Thematic Collections

Presentation and evaluation of work carried out by the ECML from 1995 to 1999

Edited by David Newby

European Centre for Modern Languages

Council of Europe Publishing

French edition:
Collections thématiques. Présentation et évaluation des travaux menés par le CELV de 1995 à 1999.

ISBN 92-871-5271-3

Cover: Gross Werbeagentur, Graz
Layout: Robert Blackwell

Council of Europe Publishing
F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex

ISBN 92-871-5272-1

Printed in Kapfenberg

Table of contents

Introduction

David Newby

The years 1995-99 represented a period of considerable importance, both for the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) and for language teaching in general. In this time, following the launch of the ECML, it held a large number of workshops, initiated and supported research and development networks to promote language learning and teaching on a European scale.

This period coincided with significant developments in what might be called 'post-communicative' language learning and teaching as various innovative approaches and theoretical applications began to have a strong influence on the way in which foreign languages were taught across Europe. Views and principles of learning, reflected in terms such as 'learner autonomy', and 'intercultural awareness' had an increasing impact on the FL classroom. The organisation of language teaching was re-defined by moves to incorporate 'bilingual education' into school curricula and the policy decision of many states to extend foreign languages to primary school education learners. The increased use of communication technology to support language learning provided a significant and valuable supplement to classroom teaching. A glance at the titles of ECML workshops during this period will show that the ECML was at the forefront of these and other developments.

As this first period of the Centre's life drew to a close, the need was felt to take stock of and summarise the contribution that the ECML had made to these innovative areas and to make the results of its activities available to a wider audience. Whilst individual workshop reports existed, it was necessary to provide a coherent overview of the various thematic areas which had formed the core of the work of the ECML workshops. These were:

- Bilingual Education
- Learner Autonomy
- Teacher Education
- Information and Communication Media/Technologies
- Intercultural Awareness
- Early Language Learning

To this end, five experts were commissioned to contribute a summary of work in these areas: so-called Thematic Collections. The results of their work are presented in this volume. The specific aims of the collections are:

- to provide an overview of recent developments in each area
- to summarise the work of the ECML in this area and to show how it relates to other work in this field
- to evaluate the ECML workshops and to make recommendations concerning orientations for future activities

Clearly, since the completion of this first phase of the Centre's activities there have been new developments in all of these areas, particularly in the field of communication technology. Nevertheless, the Thematic Collections represent a valuable contribution to foreign language teaching research and will be a useful source or information for researchers and teachers alike. The fact that the authors not only discuss the 'state of the art' in the respective areas but also describe attempts by workshop coordinators and participants to implement principles in their own spheres of activity provides valuable insights into the interface between theory and practice.

The Thematic Collections which comprise this volume provide the following information:

- List of workshops and coordinators on the topic under discussion
- Discussion of the main issues of the topic
- Summary and discussion of the ECML workshops
- Recommendations for future activities

The Thematic Collections were originally intended to be published in electronic form and remain available on the ECML website. They can be consulted at our website:

http://www.ecml.at/html/thematiccollections/thematic.htm

In addition to the expert résumés contained in the printed version you will find links to:

- reports of ECML workshop
- dissemination projects and networks set up by participants
- related CDCC documentation
- commented bibliographies drawn up by coordinators and participants
- links to related websites

Bilingual education

Gunther Abuja

1. Introduction

The following pages give an overview of the workshops and subsequent activities in the field of bilingual education that have taken place at the European Centre for Modern Languages within the period of 1995-98.

In this summary we try to evaluate the workshops listed below and all the activities undertaken that are directly linked to these workshops:

[Workshop (Number/Year): Coordinators and co-facilitators]

Bilingual Schools in Europe (4/1995): Prof. Dr. Peter Bierbaumer, Dr. Anikó Bognár, Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Butzkamm

The Implementation of Bilingual Streams in Ordinary Schools: Process and Procedures – Problems and Solutions (21/1996): Gianna Fruhauf, Ineke Huibregtse, Gunther Abuja

Aspects of Teaching Methodology in Bilingual Classes at Secondary School Level (8/1997): Dr. Antoinette Camilleri, Zuzanna Dziegielewska, Elisabeth Fleischmann

Redefining Formal Foreign Language Instruction for a Bilingual Environment (18/1997): Glen Ole Hellekjaer; Prof Dr. Peter Bierbaumer, Ralf Nyström, Anikó Bognár

Teaching Methods for Foreign Languages in Border Areas (19/1997): Albert Raasch, Ruud Halink, Brigitte Sorger, Armand Zimmer

Content and Language Integration in Vocational and Professional Education (20/1997): David Marsh, Anikó Bognár, Do Coyle, Sauli Takala

1.1 Documentation and dissemination

The procedures, discussions and results of each workshop have been documented in reports, the aim of which is to summarise the work and outcome of the workshop as well as further actions which are envisaged by the co-ordinating team and / or the participants.

Additionally, participants have given individual feedback on the contents and the organisational efficiency of the workshops, as well as on dissemination activities in their respective home countries. In some cases, documents related to the workshop themes, such as articles and bibliographies, have also been submitted to the European Centre for Modern Languages and form a part of its documentation of the activities on bilingual education.

One of the foremost aims of the undertakings of the European Centre for Modern Languages is to initiate follow-up activities after a workshop. By preparing the ground for such activities (giving organisational and also financial support) the European Centre for Modern Languages wishes to stimulate further discussion and development of the workshop topics among the representatives of the member states. Dissemination activities are also regularly documented although the Centre very much depends on the participants' cooperation in this respect. Only if the outcomes of post-workshop activities are submitted to the Centre are they of benefit to interested persons or future workshop co-ordinators and participants.

2. 'Bilingual education' – Definitions

Especially in the context of bilingual education it appears necessary to clarify the term 'bilingual' in order to avoid misconceptions about the educational approach behind this term. As two workshop coordinators remarked:

> Bilingual instruction, also known as teaching content in a foreign language (TCFL), extended language instruction, language-enhanced content instruction, immersion, or as content and language integrated learning (CLIL), is the teaching of non language subjects through a foreign language, with both subject-matter and language learning as goals (Nikula 1997). (Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction*. 1998. 4.)

And:

> ... the term bilingual education can be confusing and may require some clarification for our purposes. This workshop focused on the use of modern foreign language as the language of instruction in a subject other than language teaching itself. In most cases this is viewed as a means of achieving a higher level of competency in a foreign language in a context where the pupil's mother tongue is the dominant language in the country or community in which he or she lives (Fruhauf. *Implementation of Bilingual Streams*. 1997. 1.).

From our point of view, we would like to distinguish between the following basic types of 'bilingual' education programmes:

- Programmes in which the learners are partly or fully 'immersed' in a foreign language with the aim to achieve an almost 'native-like' language proficiency. This kind of 'language bath' provides a very large amount of classroom input in the foreign language. It is usually applied in bi- or multilingual countries or areas (e.g. Canada, Luxemburg, Malta), where the ability to communicate in two or even several languages – for example in different social contexts - is a necessity.
- Many bilingual programmes that operate in monolingual countries complement formal foreign language instruction by the teaching of many or all school subjects in a foreign language (bilingual schools, streams or classes). In such programmes the foreign language is used widely as a medium of instruction. The term 'bilingual' is often applied because it is an aim that students become almost equally proficient in the foreign language (used as a medium of instruction) as in their respective mother tongue.
- Programmes in which the foreign language is used as a medium of instruction alongside the use of the students' mother tongue form a very diversified group ('content-based teaching', 'English across the curriculum', 'English as a medium of instruction', ...). Both languages are usually used as classroom languages in different subjects or at different times and a subject may be taught in the foreign language only during a part of the school year. The aim of such programmes is an enhanced foreign language training in comparison to mainstream education.

Due to the potential confusion concerning the term 'bilingual' we would generally like to stick to the terms 'bilingual instruction' or 'bilingual education' within this thematic résumé; other definitions (as found in the quotations above) will be used when referring to the workshops in which they were employed.

3. Activities of the European Centre for Modern Languages

Within a period of only three years the European Centre for Modern Languages invited experts from different member countries to organize six workshops on a whole range of different aspects of bilingual learning and bilingual education.

Participants from more than fifteen European countries have contributed their personal experiences in the field to the workshops, thus ensuring a broad – and often diverse – view on questions such as teaching programmes, methodology, materials, teacher qualifications and student selection.

This diversity of different pedagogical settings and aspirations has proved highly stimulating for discussion and exchange of ideas. Many participants have remarked in their individual reports how much profit they gained from the opportunity to work together with other experts, to see practical teaching examples during school visits and to form co-operative networks for further research and development in the field of bilingual education.

The documents that have been collected in connection with this field of interest amount to about 700 pages of reports, suggestions, plans and commentaries. By evaluating these documents we have found that the discussions in the workshops have principally revolved around several central points of interest and research. We would like to emphasise that these central points are being debated all over Europe at the present time, which gives the collection at the European Centre for Modern Languages the quality of a panoramic view on bilingual education.

In the following sections we will try to shed more light on different aspects of this panoramic view, which should provide us with deeper insights into the current concerns of bilingual teaching and learning.

4. The diverse role of bilingual education in Europe

As mentioned before, a salient feature of all the activities of the European Centre for Modern Languages is the fact that the workshop participants come from a wide range of European countries. The initial workshop on bilingual matters (Bierbaumer. *Bilingual Schools*. 1995.) thus provided a detailed overview on the situation of bilingual education in the European member countries and in Canada.[1]

The parameters investigated in an informal survey among the participants in which they were asked to describe bilingual education in their schools/ countries were as follows:

- Which languages are employed in the bilingual programme(s)?
- What proportion of the subject matter teaching is done in the foreign language(s)?
- When was bilingual education started?
- What is the situation of the school(s) in the respective country?

1. Greta Murtagh, President of the Canadian Association of Immersion teachers, was specially invited as a representative of Canada.

Without going into detail it can be said that the situation in the different member countries is extremely diverse concerning all of the parameters listed above (Bierbaumer. *Bilingual Schools.* 1995. 19-34).

Bilingual instruction is a relatively new part of the educational policy in many European countries and the impression arises that each country has found an individual approach to this form of education which differs in certain respects from the approaches in other countries.

As far as the use of different foreign languages as the medium of instruction is concerned, English is well ahead of any other language. Apart from bi- and multilingual countries such as Switzerland and Luxemburg, in which German and French are the main target languages of bilingual instruction, all participants of WS 4/1995 (also) used English as a medium of instruction in their bilingual classes or schools, provided that English was not the mother tongue in the respective country. Further languages named were German, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian and Chinese, as well as the languages of neighbouring countries or border regions (e.g. in Slovenia). Countries which offered a choice of several languages as a medium of instruction were: Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Ukraine.

Bilingual instruction in many cases is a child of the late 1980s or early 1990s although Canada (immersion since 1965) and Luxemburg and Malta (both more than 100 years of bilingual instruction) have a longer tradition.

The actual situation of the schools involved in bilingual education is again very varied. All possible parameters such as starting age, percentage of instruction in the foreign language, number and level of classes/ students involved, length of programmes, (number of) subjects chosen, teachers employed, forms of teacher training, materials used, school leaving exams, etc., differ widely from one country to the other.[2]

A number of challenges, however, are commonly shared by most of the countries. From the participants' reports it can be deduced that especially the following areas of bilingual education are considered problematic:

- Teacher training
- Materials & methodology
- Financial and 'moral' support
- Flexibility of the curriculum

2. For more detailed and more recent descriptions of programmes, see also: Gianna Fruhauf, et al., eds *Teaching Content in a Foreign Language.* Alkmaar: Stichting Europees Platform voor het Nederlandse Onderwijs, 1996.

Although in most countries bilingual education is in an experimental state or being piloted, there seems to be a widespread, almost unanimous feeling of confidence and enthusiasm towards this form of education, which is underlined by the very positive results of bilingual education that were reported by the participants. Pia Effront critically wrote in her report after the workshop:

> Le bilinguisme est pour tous les participants une question d'idéalisme et de plaisir. [...] [Les écoles] ont été crées [sic] par des professeurs [...] qui sentaient le besoin de changer l'enseignement traditionnel des langues: "We like to change something by doing something". [...] Les autorités officielles de tous les pays se montrent favorables face à cette nouvelle impulsion dans l'enseignement, mais ne se montrent pas engagées en ce qui concerne le soutien financier de tels projets (Effront. *Bilingual Schools.* 1995.).

5. Getting started – Approaches and parameters of implementing bilingual education

Although there has been a long tradition of bilingual education in some parts of Europe, especially in bilingual areas in neighbouring regions, a more recent trend towards new forms of bilingual education has, for various reasons, seized many European countries. It was therefore often the case that many institutions had to establish bilingual instruction from scratch. Setting up a bilingual class or stream can be an often tiresome endeavour, probably impeded by hindrances and drawbacks one does not expect. In the course of time it has become apparent that the implementation procedure must be conscientiously planned and observed in order to secure the quick setting up of a stable bilingual 'programme'.

Workshop no. 21/1996 was the first to consider the factors that influence the establishment of a bilingual programme in more detail (Fruhauf. *Implementation of Bilingual Streams.* 1997.).

In a well-elaborated lecture Prof. Hugo Baetens Beardsmore treated the main variables that influence any bilingual programme, which fall within the following areas: (Baetens Beardsmore. *Manipulating the variables.* 1996.)

- Situational variables (concerning the environment or setting in which a school must operate)
- Outcome variables (concerning the aims and expectations of a bilingual programme)
- Operational variables (concerning the practical steps a school has to take to run a programme, e.g. define curriculum, find teachers, inform students and parents, decide on a working plan, etc.)

(For a summary of the lecture, see: Fruhauf. *Implementation of Bilingual Streams.* 1997. 5f.)

The participants had the opportunity to apply this background information to the situations in their respective home countries in two extensive group tasks. This procedure was further stimulated and accompanied by thematic presentations on situational and operational variables at different levels as well as by a visit to the Graz International Bilingual School. Consequently, the core of the workshop results consisted of the participants' plans and strategies in order to handle the variables mentioned before.

The most prominent results of the first group work on **situational/ outcome variables** were as follows:

- English is the uncontested main target language of bilingual programmes in Central and Eastern Europe. There is, however, the wish to introduce further foreign languages in a bilingual programme by teaching limited topic-centred modules, for example in French or Spanish.
- Many groups thought that bilingual programmes should be aimed at a specific target group. If selection is made, it should be on the basis of linguistic ability, thus not be socially elitist. It was felt that programmes with high academic aims would attract a lot of students.
- It was mentioned that the introduction of bilingual education could give a school a new, attractive profile. It would also motivate teachers, students and parents to work co-operatively and more intensively. Opportunity for attractive international activities would be provided.
- The need for (new or better) teacher training was also emphasised.

The second group work, on **operational variables** had the following outcomes:

- Most bilingual programmes would generally have to follow the national curriculum; emphasis, however, could be put on international topics by the choice of supplementary teaching materials.
- A foreign language should always be partly used in a bilingual programme. A 50% - 50% ratio in a subject would be ideal. The maintenance of the mother tongue would be important. Formal instruction of the target language was seen to support the programme.
- Between 30% and 50% of the subjects should be taught in the foreign language or in two languages. Including non-academic subjects such as Craft, Design and Technology (CDT), Arts and Music should (initially) alleviate the burden of bilingual instruction for the students.

- As for teacher qualification, a dual certification (both in the subject matter and in the target language) was regarded as ideal, but is not current in many European countries. In other cases it seemed most profitable to train subject teachers in the target language.
- Students should initially have the opportunity to take exams in either language and should gradually get acquainted to taking exams only in the target language. However, centrally organised (school leaving) exams, as they exist in many countries, are a clear obstacle to such a policy.
- The importance of efficient communication and information between all people involved in a bilingual programme (teachers, students, parents, administrators, ...) was repeatedly stressed by the participants. Appropriate measures (meetings, newsletters, information events, ...) should therefore be taken.

(A concrete example of a detailed plan on operational variables at school level was submitted to the ECML by the participant Jan Espen, Norway: Andresen. *Report.* 1997)

It was interesting to note that there was much common ground among the participants in the goals, difficulties and possible solutions envisaged despite the fact that the educational situation in their home countries sometimes differed considerably. This seems to indicate that there is a common core in most approaches towards bilingual education or at least certain overall aims of bilingual instruction that were shared by the participants.

The question of the implementation of bilingual programmes is taken up and discussed again for vocational schools in Workshop 20/1997 (Marsh. *Content and Language Integration*. 1998.). Following an exemplary approach presented by co-facilitator Anikó Bognár (Marsh. *Content and Language Integration.* 1998. 9f.), several lists of situational, operational and outcome parameters for implementing CLIL [3] were provided and discussed in group sessions. A host of very detailed parameters were identified, often accompanied by sets of guiding questions. The results are several valuable 'checklists' by which the establishment of a bilingual programme could be meticulously planned.

Moreover, the report contains a detailed summary of discussion results, providing a thorough analysis of aspects such as methodology, professional teamwork and in-service teacher education (Marsh. *Content and Language Integration.* 1998. 10-18.).

Special attention shall be drawn to the group work results concerning bilingual methodology which seem valid not only for vocational education. An eclectic

3. CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning.

methodological approach which includes the use of many support measures (visual help, reading and writing skills, simplification of instruction and the use of "predictable routines") and which allows for repetition and increased redundancy in the lessons was highly recommended (Marsh. *Content and Language Integration.* 1998. 15.).

From the interest for situational, operational and outcome variables/ parameters in two of the workshops it can be deduced that these variables form a key area for bilingual education which should be given close attention in the future. By analysing existing bilingual programmes and considering the results of both workshop 21/1996 and 20/1997 it should be possible to draw up some general guidelines as a help for the setting up of bilingual programmes in Europe.

6. Methodological and pedagogical aspects of bilingual instruction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, methodology is one of the main challenges in bilingual education. Almost all workshops dealt with questions on methodology in one way or another. In workshop 4/1995, Prof. Butzkamm gave an overall assessment of current foreign language teaching methodology, underlining the importance of the provision of (useful) comprehensible input in the form of communicative (message oriented) foreign language teaching for which bilingual classrooms are the ideal setting. He also discussed the possible shortcomings of French immersion programmes due to a lack of message oriented communication, and identified the danger of fossilisation by the immersion students' evident lack of productive language skills.[4]

Two workshops (WS 8/1997 and 18/1997) were primarily dedicated to methodological aspects:

In her lecture on language usage in the bilingual classroom during Workshop 8/1997, Antoinette Camilleri focused on the question of codeswitching, explaining why, on which occasions, and how often students or teachers in bilingual classes switch from one language (e.g. their mother tongue, L1) to another one (the target language, L2). Drawing on the research she had done (Camilleri. *Bilingualism*. 1995.) she explained different pedagogical and social functions of codeswitching (Camilleri. *Teaching Methodology*.1997. 5f.).

In the course of the workshop, participants were invited to observe and evaluate codeswitching phenomena during a visit to Graz International Bilingual Schools

4. The topics of language learning methodology and fossilisation are taken up in Workshop 18/1997 again: cf Glen Ole Hellekjaer. *Workshop no.18/97: Redefining Formal Foreign Language Instruction for a Bilingual Environment.* Graz: ECML, 1998.

(GIBS). To prepare for this visit the participants were acquainted with different action research techniques; observation sheets and evaluative procedures were developed in group work.

After the school visit, co-facilitator Elisabeth Fleischmann gave a short account of how learner autonomy as a pedagogical concept was realised in her school. After introductory remarks on the different roles of students and teachers within a concept of learner autonomy, Fleischmann explained how autonomy had been realised in practical teaching (use of workshops, weekly task sheets for students, lots of extra-curricular activities), in syllabus design (topic-centred and project based curriculum), in methods of assessment and in organisational matters by intensive teamwork and the creation of working parties among the staff (Camilleri. *Teaching Methodology*.1997. 9ff.).

In her speech on *Méthodologie de l'enseignement bilingue des disciplines non-linguistiques: matériel, évaluation, stratégies* (Camilleri. *Teaching Methodology*.1997. 15ff.), Zuzanna Dziegielewska tried to answer the question whether there is common ground between different approaches to bilingual teaching methods. Although she identified three main features (the integration of language and subject teaching, learner autonomy and the use of 'universal' teaching strategies across the curriculum) many problems, such as the following two, remain unsolved:

- Bilingual education very often necessitates the creation of specially adapted materials if authentic materials in the target language cannot be used
- Evaluation and assessment are difficult; should one assess knowledge, language proficiency or learning strategies?

Consequently, there is a wide field open for research on bilingual matters. Current research in Poland is investigating teachers' classroom language in order to find out more about their unconscious linguistic strategies. For future work, Dziegielewska suggests the analysis and comparison of materials and teaching/ teacher behaviour as a starting point for the documentation of good practice, which would influence both teaching and teacher training.

Workshop 18/1997 (Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998.) followed a few months after workshop 8/1997 and investigated the relationship between formal L2 instruction and bilingual instruction. Stephen Krashen's theories on language acquisition and on comprehensible input (Krashen. *Input Hyothesis.* 1985.) were critically reviewed and contrasted with Merril Swain's Output Hypothesis.[5] The main line of criticism, which was basically followed by Glen Ole Hellekjaer, is that

5. For a complete list of references here, see: Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998:19ff.

language input alone is not sufficient to create proficient speakers of the target language. Many Canadian French immersion programmes have been criticised for neglecting the active use of the language thus producing students with highly developed receptive language skills but poor productive ones. Merril Swain argues that in order to produce a balanced bilingual communicative competence both the opportunity for the learners to use the language extensively and feedback on their linguistic errors were necessary.

Hellekjaer draws several conclusions[6] as to the practical consequences of Swain's theories for bilingual instruction. He proposes that the learners' linguistic development be supported by strengthening the collaborative and supportive role of formal language teaching in EFL/ ESL classes:

- Language input should be given in its full functional range - to achieve this, formal language instruction should provide the learners with communication and text types that do not usually occur in the "fairly stereotyped" (Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998. 11.) communication of the bilingual classroom.
- Moreover, the learners' output should be steered in the same way. Oral communication about subject matter (e.g. "reporting about research topics" [Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998. 11.]) should be complemented by the usual kind of oral activities in the modern foreign language classroom.
- Helpful feedback on the learners' errors can also be best given in formal language instruction because "it is hardly to be expected that most subject matter specialists will also be language specialists trained to do this" (Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998. 11.)[7]

Further practical hints are provided in a talk on *Teaching Advanced Language Strategies* (Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998. 12ff.) by Ralf Nyström, who spoke in favour of the use of modern communicative language learning strategies, task based learning and the use of authentic materials in bilingual teaching. The explicit teaching of reading skills and discourse strategies was also advocated:

> It is important to build the students' ability to handle different discourse or notional categories [...]: recognise – define – describe – compare – argue – evaluate – draw your own conclusions.

6. See footnote 5.
7. It must be remarked here that all of the author's conclusions are obviously based on the presumption that the subject matter teacher is not a language teacher at the same time, as is the usual case in Norway.

> Here the FL teacher should work closely together with the subject teacher to define and practise discourse categories that are typical of the subject taught [...] (Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998. 13.)

The careful training of advanced text writing skills on different levels was demonstrated by Jennifer Schumm and Valerie Wurschitz, who spoke about the goals of an "Advanced Comprehension and Composition" course at university level (Hellekjaer. *Formal Foreign Language Instruction.* 1998. 14ff.). In this course both the process of writing and the subsequent creation of various text types (summaries, comparisons and opinion writing) are discussed and trained. Whilst the courses illustrated were not part of a bilingual programme, it was agreed that such forms of explicit training of text writing skills were also useful for advanced students in bilingual programmes.

Methodology is thus the second area of bilingual education that was given an intensive focus by many workshop co-ordinators and participants. It is not difficult to understand that in such a recent pedagogical movement as bilingual education is in many European countries there still prevails a lack of teaching experience. As strongly suggested by A. Camilleri, Z. Dziegielewska and G.O. Hellekjaer, extensive linguistic research still needs to be done on the actual process of learning in bilingual classrooms. Research findings could then be taken as the starting point to develop appropriate methodological strategies and teacher training programmes for individual countries.

7. 'Bilingual education' in border areas

In the previous sections we reported mainly about bilingual education as a feature of main-stream education in European countries. The target language of these programmes is – for political, economic and social reasons – almost exclusively English.

The following part will deal with a form of 'bilingual education' which arises from the proximity of neighbouring languages in border areas. The circumstances of language contact in a border area entail informal day to day use and exchange of languages, for example in the course of short trips and visits to the neighbouring country or countries. Linguistic proficiency in this context is seen as a support measure to intercultural contact, comparison and understanding.

As a preparatory stage to workshop 19/1997 (Raasch. *Fremdsprachendidaktik.* 1998.) a portfolio of expert reports on individual examples of foreign language teaching in border areas was collected. These expert reports were then presented to the members of Workshop 19/1997 who evaluated them and considered whether they could be

transferred to individual situations in border regions (trialling). In order to support the analysis of situations in different border regions, a model for description was developed. It was proposed that the outcomes of this trialling should be collected in a follow-up workshop at the European Centre for Modern Languages.

A further aim of workshop 19/1997 was the evaluation and final adaption of a series of 'theses' and recommendations (the *Grazer Erklärung*) on the social, linguistic and cultural situation in border regions. The *Grazer Erklärung* consists of two main parts:

- Considerations on the different socio-political functions of border regions and on the cognitive and affective 'load' that is carried by the word 'border' (ref.). Also, the roles of language(s) and cultures as deliminating factors in border regions are taken into account.
- The second part is a series of recommendations and plans for the implementation of teaching and exchange programmes as well as in-service training for teachers in border areas, followed by a series of planned follow-up activities (Raasch. *Fremdsprachendidaktik.* 1998. 15ff.).

The *Grazer Erklärung* gives an overview on the complex historical, political, cultural, linguistic and social influences which often characterise the situation in border regions. In this context bilingual education is one - but not the only - means to secure mutual understanding and acceptance. The use of neighbouring languages in many different situations (out of school contexts, informal language learning on trips and visits) is also an important factor.

At the close of the workshop the idea was born to create a European network for the coordination and dissemination of further activities in the field of language learning and instruction in border areas. A very detailed plan for setting up these activities led to the founding of a network under the name of CICERO.[8]

8. Follow-up activities

As already mentioned in our introductory remarks, the dissemination of work results is one of the foremost aims of each workshop at the ECML. Therefore, encouragement to set up follow-up activities has been an integral part of the workshop concept from the very beginning. A whole series of such activities was planned in and after the workshops on bilingual education.

8. …or the word 'frontier'. The German word Grenze can be translated into English by more than one word, which all carry different connotations (author's commentary).

Most of the topics and aims of these activities were clearly influenced or stimulated by the contents of the workshops. As a consequence, the main topics of interest in relation to bilingual education could be found again in the propositions for follow-up work:

- "Materials, materials, materials!" – This was one of the battle cries in all of the workshops. Several networks and cooperation plans were dedicated to the development or at least exchange of materials for bilingual instruction (WS 4/95, 21/96, 8/97, 18/97).
- Methodological questions and interests were another favourite stimulus for research activities. Documentation (videos etc.) of the actual teaching in bilingual classrooms, the promotion of learner autonomy and the search for a model of bilingual instruction/ education were special areas of interest (4/95, 8/97).
- Research on bilingual teaching and learning was especially stimulated by WS 8/97. As a consequence of stimulating input and classroom observation, research projects on learner autonomy and code switching were proposed.
- In order to keep in contact after a workshop and to be able to exchange materials, experiences and research findings, the creation of networks (supported by e-mail and Internet) was strongly suggested at most workshops (21/96, 8/97, 19/97, 20/97).
- Teacher training schemes were another issue of topical interest. As in many countries subject matter teachers are not necessarily language teachers, there is an urgent need for the development of suitable teacher training courses (21/96, 20/97).

To our great regret it must be remarked, however, that only very few of the follow-up projects have proven stable enough to show results. Some participants reported on individual dissemination activities in their respective home countries. One network, EuroCLIC (operating via the Internet and a news bulletin), was set up and is still active. Its aim is to serve as a discussion forum for people interested in the field of bilingual education and provides data and information about conferences and useful materials (e.g. books, videos).

The network resulting from workshop 19/1997, CICERO, is very active, its main aims being the collection, evaluation and dissemination of data in the area of teaching and learning in border regions. New initiatives and organisations working in this field shall be supported by information events and by the setting up of further networks in the future. In the third Colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages a working group was dedicated to the topic "Learning the language of the neighbour and trans-border cooperation in the area of modern languages".

In May 1999 a regional follow-up workshop will be held in Maastricht.

In the course of workshop 4/97[9] which was not primarily dedicated to bilingual education, an international network – language across the curriculum - for the creation of materials and a glossary on specific vocabulary for the use in bilingual teaching contexts was founded. First results of this network have already been submitted to the European Centre for Modern Languages and a publication is forthcoming.

Other activities showed initial results but did not prove stable enough to be maintained over a long period. In most cases, however, proposals made at the workshop in Graz never reached a primary stage of development, or at least were not documented.

The reasons for this may be manifold. It is certainly difficult to maintain a network without any local institutional help. The coordination of several project partners is not only a skill but also needs a considerable amount of time, adequate resources and a lot of dedication. It would perhaps be advisable to limit the number of networks and working parties created at a workshop and to give more professional support to them (see also below).

9. Comments and recommendations for future activities

9.1 Comments on workshop structures

The main areas of interest in the field of bilingual education have been clearly identified (the role of diversity, implementation of bilingual education, methodological and pedagogical aspects). Thus, it goes without saying that focused activities in these areas can, in the long term, produce fruitful results. We would suggest, however, that the activities which are targeted by the ECML be given a clearer and more specific focus. Workshop 4/1995 impressively displayed the great variety of goals and approaches in bilingual education that exist among the member countries of the ECML, a feature that was frequently rediscovered in subsequent workshops. Whilst this enormous variety is very attractive, it probably also represents an obstacle to some forms of activities which might be more profitable on a small scale.

Instead of promoting large European networks for different kinds of dissemination activities, the ECML should try to make available the necessary know-how concerning the setting up and maintenance of individual cooperation, teamwork, working parties and smaller, national networks. Participants interested in any kind of follow-up work

9. Workshop No 4/97: *Foreign language teaching and learning in Central and Eastern Europe: towards common principles for European foreign language curricula for children of age 9-11* (no workshop report published).

could, for example, be specially trained for successful collaboration before a workshop. Small activities and networks can then be linked to each other at a later point of time.

Workshops should be planned as a coherent series. The reoccurrence of certain issues not only shows the urgent needs of the participants but also a certain lack of coordination (which was admittedly very much complicated by the regulations on the proposal of workshop topics). If possible, workshop themes should be planned to complement or to build on each other.

9.2 Recommendations for activities in the field of bilingual education

- Recent developments in bilingual education could be summed up and evaluated in a separate workshop or conference. Very many ideas put forward in the ECML workshops between 1995 and 1998 were positively influenced by the prior Council of Europe Workshops 12 A and B, which started a strong movement towards bilingual education in many European countries.[10] A further workshop of this kind should be held.
- Individual classroom research on teaching parameters (methodology) should be carried out. Using action research methods, underpinned by audio- and videotaping, results could be made available at low costs. A special training programme could be offered at the ECML in Graz to learn about action research techniques in order to enable participants of this programme to carry out individual research in their home countries. Results could then be pooled by the Council of Europe and a publication on this issue could be produced.
- Linguistic research on language acquisition and language learning in the bilingual classroom with a focus on the linguistic outcomes of bilingual programmes could complement the above activities on classroom research.
- A discussion of the aims of bilingual education in different local contexts should be stimulated. How useful is bilingual education and for who? What are the aims of a bilingual programme? Can these aims be reached by other, less complicated or demanding means? These and similar questions are all too often not considered at the outset of a bilingual programme. The result of this may be a lot of unexpected problems and drawbacks, in some cases utter frustration, both on the part of teachers and of students.
- As an exemplary international project the creation of a common curricular framework (goals, topics, materials, etc.) for the subjects most often taught in a foreign language would suggest itself. This framework would probably facilitate the production of universal materials that could be used across

10. An excellent overview is given in: Hugo Baetens Beardsmore. *Bilingual Education in secondary schools: learning and teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language.* Brussels, 1996 (individual report on Workshop 21/1996).

Europe. This would be a great step towards meaningful international co-operation on a larger scale.

Considering the suggestions made above, we would like to emphasize again that it is far more difficult to facilitate changes in the area of bilingual education if projects operate at a supranational level only. A valid method of tackling many of the problems and challenges that have been evoked in this résumé may be to concentrate on the same developmental and evaluational tasks on a national level first. The results can then be pooled and compared across European countries.

10. References

Andresen, Jan Espen. *Report from Workshop No.21/96: The implementation of bilingual streams in ordinary schools: Process and procedures – Problems and solutions.* Gjovik: 1997 [individual report from January 1997].

Baetens Beardsmore, Hugo. *Manipulating the variables in Bilingual Education (or: You can't beat them all).* 1996 [lecture paper].

Baetens Beardsmore, *Bilingual education in secondary schools: learning and teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language*. Brussels: 1996 [individual report on WS 21/1996].

Bierbaumer, Peter. *Workshop No.4/95: Bilingual Schools in Europe*. Graz: ECML, 1995.

Camilleri, Antoinette. *Bilingualism in Education: The Maltese Experience*. Heidelberg: Julius Groos Verlag, 1995.

Camilleri, Antoinette. *Workshop No.8/97: Aspects of Teaching Methodology in Bilingual Classes at Secondary School Level.* Graz: ECML, 1997.

Effront, Pia. *Bilingual Schools in Europe: Séminaire organisé par le Conseil d'Europe du 15 au 20 mai 1995 à Graz.* Genève: 1995 [rapport individuel du 4.12.1995].

EuroCLIC. Online in Internet: URL: http://www.euroclic.net [as of 30 April 1999].

Fruhauf, Gianna. *Workshop No.21/96: The Implementation of Bilingual Streams in Ordinary Schools: Process and Procedures – Problems and Solutions.* Graz: ECML, 1997, Fruhauf, et al., eds. *Teaching Content in a Foreign Language.* Alkmaar: Stichting Europees Platform voor het Nederlandse Onderwijs, 1996.

Hellekjaer, Glen Ole. *Workshop No.18/97: Redefining Formal Foreign Language Instruction For A Bilingual Environment.* Graz: ECML, 1998.

Krashen, Stephen. *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications.* New York: Longman, 1985.

Marsh, David. *Workshop No.20/97: Content and Language Integration in Vocational and Professional Education.* Graz: ECML, 1998.

Raasch, Albert. *Workshop Nr. 19/97: Fremdsprachendidaktik für Grenzregionen.* Graz: ECML, 1998.

Learner autonomy

Anne-Brit Fenner

1. Introduction

The aim of this thematic collection is to present the work on learner autonomy initiated by the European Centre for Modern Languages through workshops and related activities. This will be discussed under the following headings: definitions, key issues, initiated projects, comments and recommendations.

Learner autonomy has been one of the central issues in the work of the ECML from 1996 onwards. In a few cases this work has been a follow-up of New Style Workshops initiated by the Council of Europe in this field. A series of workshops have been held on the topic, some of which have addressed only learner autonomy. Most workshops have, however, focused upon learner autonomy in relation to other topics, such as general learner strategies, early foreign language learning, various methodological approaches to learning, materials design, resource centres, multimedia, curriculum development, language and cultural awareness.

The main sources of material for this thematic collection are a number of workshop reports and, in a few cases where these are not available, proposals, additional material submitted by co-ordinators, reports on network groups, proceedings of the 2nd colloquy of the ECML and some recent ECML publications.

List of workshops

The following ECML workshops on learner autonomy from 1996 to 1998 have formed the basis of this report:

(Number of workshop/year/title/coordinators and co-facilitators)

5/96 Learner types and learner strategies in modern language teaching: Beda Künzle and Martin Thurnherr

11/96 Child Development and early Foreign Language Learning: Implications for Curriculum Design, Methodology and Materials: Carol Read and Gail Ellis

17/96 Learner autonomy and self-directed learning systems: Marie-José Gremmo and Turid Trebbi

18/96 Autonomous Language Learning and Resource Centres: Martine Henao, Daphne Goodfellow, Christine Lacroix

1/97 How to Promote Learner Autonomy in the Adult Language Classroom: Matilde Grünhage-Monetti, Andreas Klepp, Rolf Bianchi, Gareth Hughes Kost

3/97 Language and Culture Awareness in Language Learning/Teaching for the Development of Learner Autonomy: Michael Byram, Antoinette Camilleri and Josef Huber

6/97 New Trends in FL Learning and Teaching for FL Teachers and Multipliers from Bosnia and Herzegovina: David Newby, Nicole Bucher-Poteaux, Mireille Cheval and Marina Stros

8/97 Aspects of Teaching Methodology in Bilingual Classes at Secondary School Level: Antoinette Camilleri

10/97 Teacher Training and Relevant Aspects of the Development towards Learner Autonomy in FL Teaching in Secondary Schools in Europe. Arjan Krijgsman, Jan Mulder, Ludmilla Khomenko. (Report not available)

17/97 Establishing Principles and Guidelines for Publishers and Authord of FL Textbooks in the Context of the Aims of the ECML: David Newby, Olga Afanasyeva, Anne-Brit Fenner, Julja Komarova, Natalya Kuznetsova, Ruxandra Popovici

5/98 The Specifications of Objectives for Learner Autonomy and Cultural Awareness within Syllabus Development at Secondary Level: Antoinette Camilleri, David Newby, Berta Kogoj and Albane Cain

ECML publications on learner autonomy

Camilleri, A. (ed.) (1999) *Introducing Learner Autonomy in Teacher Education.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Camilleri, G. (ed.) (1999) *Learner Autonomy – the Teachers' Views.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fenner, A-B. and Newby, D. (2000) *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

2. Learner autonomy – Definitions

Different terms are used for learner autonomy in various workshops, most of them used synonymously: autonomous learning, learning to learn, independent learning and self-directed learning. In their definition of learner autonomy, most workshops have, in addition to learning a foreign language, included development of self-awareness. The definition of the term, which forms the theoretical basis for most of the workshops, is the one written by Henri Holec in 1979/81 and later definitions developed from the original (Holec & Huttunen 1997):

> L'autonomie de l'apprentissage est la capacité de l'apprenant à prendre en charge son apprentissage, c'est à dire la capacité à:
>
> - definir des objectifs
> - déterminer des contenus
> - choisir des supports et des techniques
> - gérer le déroulement de l'apprentissage
> - évaluer l'apprentissage (contenus et forme) (Workshops 17/96, 3/97, 8/97, 17/97)

In English Holec's definition is as follows:

> "Learner autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's own learning"; in other words: "to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning:
>
> - determining the objectives
> - defining the contents and progressions
> - selecting methods and techniques to be used
> - monitoring the procedure of acquisition (rhythm, time, place, etc.)
> - evaluating what has been acquired" (Holec 1981: 3)

One workshop defines what learner autonomy is *not* in order to establish a common ground for the participants (Workshop 6/97), based on David Little's: *Learner Autonomy. Definitions, issues and problems.* (1991: 3-4):

Learner autonomy

- is not a synonym for self-instruction
- is not limited to learning without a teacher
- is not a matter of letting the learners get on with things as best as they can

- is not something that teachers do to learners
- is not another teaching method
- is not easily described behaviour
- is not a steady state achieved by learners

A definition based on negatives might rule out misconceptions about autonomy, of which there are many, but it hardly provides teachers and educators with a good definition from which to progress with practical work. Unless negatives are coupled with a definition and an understanding of what an autonomous approach to learning implies, they might prove counterproductive.

In most workshops Holec's definition is seen as too extreme as a practical basis for the work of teachers and educators and it is adapted in ways which apparently makes it more feasible in practical classroom situations. The view of how much responsibility can be given to the learner varies greatly from one learning culture to another, depending on types of curricula and syllabi, teaching and learning traditions, textbooks and other materials used in the learning situation. This is clearly expressed in the following quotation: "The various freedoms that autonomy implies are always conditional and constrained, never absolute. As social beings our dependence is always balanced by dependence, our essential condition is one of interdependence." (Workshop 6/97)

Despite the fact that the learners' choice is central to Holec's definition of autonomy, the practical implications of choice on teaching and learning do not seem to have been a very important issue for discussion in the workshops. That learners should be able to choose according to needs, interests and level of language competence is stated as a theoretical concept in quite a few of the workshops. Choice as a cognitive process is also dealt with in presentations by animators, but the practical implications of the learners' choice is limited to one workshop where the participants themselves have to make such choices (Workshop 17/96) and to one on materials design (Workshop 17/97). Surprisingly, choice has not been given much attention in the workshops where autonomy is presented and discussed in relation to curriculum and syllabus development. These discussions seem to have been limited to what teachers and educators regard as the learners' needs and interests. In many traditions and learning cultures this is the most complicated aspect of learner autonomy. Recent ECML publications have, however, given attention to the complex issue of learners' choice (A. Camilleri 1999, G. Camilleri 1999, Fenner & Newby 2000).

In a few workshops where autonomy constitutes one of several learning approaches, the term is used to describe learner independence more generally. When this occurs, it seems to be regarded more as a methodology than as a philosophy and attitude to

learning. It becomes more instrumental and related to skills and materials (e.g. Workshop 5/96). Even when autonomy is termed "a philosophical concept" in one of the workshops it is followed by a set of "methodological principles". (Workshop 6/97) Although these 'principles' are in no way opposed to autonomy, traditional pedagogical terminology has a tendency of trapping its users when new concepts are introduced.

The basic psychological foundation of learner autonomy is George Kelly's constructivist psychology (1955, 1963). The theory is based on the learners' personal 'constructs', which can be expressed in the following manner: each learner anticipates events and constructs what Kelly calls 'replications'. It is through the individual's replications that he/she interprets and understands his/her experience. Through a continuous hypothesis-testing and hypothesis-revision each person tries to make sense of the world. "According to personal construct psychology, any learning task requires the learner to assimilate new knowledge to his current system of constructs." (Little 1991) Learning and understanding are consequently individual processes: "… it is possible for two persons to be involved in the same real events but, because they construct them differently, to experience them differently" (Kelly 1955) (Workshop 17/96). In the classroom this implies that different learners will understand teaching differently and will learn different things from the same teaching. The implications of Kelly's psychology is dealt with in some of the workshops on autonomy (Workshops 11/96, 17/96, 17/97) and related to Vygotsky's concepts of 'constructs' and 'proximal zones' and Bruner's concept of 'scaffolding' in two of these. (Workshops 11/96, 17/97)

In several workshops, theories of learning form part of the definitions used by presenters; constructivism and theories of cognitive learning strategies seem to have been given increasing emphasis during the period described in this report.

Learner autonomy must be seen as a double process: one of learning the foreign language and one of learning how to learn, 'apprendre à apprendre'. It is, therefore, a cognitive process as well as a metacognitive one, and learners must be given the possibility to develop both. This can only be done if the learners have the opportunity to talk and/or write about their learning and thus reflect upon it, for instance by writing diaries. According to Gremmo and Trebbi, we are talking about acquiring learning competence for which specific methodology is required (Workshop 17/96). Some workshops have dealt with both these aspects of autonomy, two of them have not only presented them theoretically, but have also asked the participants to carry out practical tasks in order to experience, define and discuss cognitive and metacognitive processes (Workshops 17/96, 5/98).

Various workshops stress both the individual and the social aspects of autonomous learning, but to varying degrees, with an increasing focus on the social aspects of

learning: "[Autonomy] entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a socially responsible person. An autonomous learner is an active participant in the social processes of learning, …" (Nordic Conference 1990 in Dam 1995) (Workshops 18/96, 8/97, 17/97). "Successful autonomous learning involves plenty of peer co-operation. It is a social and democratic process through which learners have plenty of opportunity to learn from each other and to learn together – to create the learning text and context together. Learner autonomy is a social process!" (Workshop 3/97). Throughout the workshop presentations the teacher/learner relationship is emphasised, and some of the work done during the workshops is concentrated around the roles of teacher and learners.

Learner autonomy is, in a few cases, defined by the participants from questionnaires or by what they associate with the term and this has formed the basis for further work (Workshops 17/96, 6/97). The questions or statements used in questionnaires are commonly based on classroom behaviour and roles played by teacher and learners. In some cases a set of principles of what learner autonomy entails is presented or worked out by workshop participants (Workshops 5/96, 17/97)

According to some theoreticians, experiencing an autonomous learning situation based on personal needs for learning is the only way to gain a real understanding of what autonomy is. One workshop only is organised completely according to principles of learner autonomy where all the work is based on the participants' taking responsibility for their own learning in concrete practical learning situations. During the workshop the tasks for the participants are redefined in the process, according to their needs (Workshop 17/96). Another workshop is partly organised in this way. The participants are asked to carry out practical tasks in a socio-cultural context and then have to analyse their working methods and findings according to specific cognitive processes presented in advance. Focus is here on cultural awareness and learning awareness rather than on the participants'/learners' needs (Workshop 5/98).

Common to all the definitions used in the workshops is that autonomy is learner centred and that it is concerned with the learners' responsibility for their own learning. These aspects will influence and have certain consequences for the roles of the participants in the learning situation as well as for the learning environment.

The focus on learner autonomy by the Council of Europe and the European Centre for Modern Languages are in many cases related to general trends in society. Some presenters stress the influence of society upon learning and teaching as well as the demands and requirements of modern society upon its members: democracy, flexibility, awareness of learning in order to acquire good learning strategies which will make it easier to learn more languages, and, in particular, the aspect of life-long learning (Workshop 8/97).

3. Key issues

In this section various aspects of learner autonomy, as focused upon in the workshops and in papers delivered by co-ordinators, will be presented and discussed. Some workshops deal with a few of these topics in detail while others treat several of them on a more superficial level.

3.1 Autonomy and the role of the learner

When dealing with autonomy, it is of vital importance that a clear distinction is made between teaching and learning. Autonomy is not a teaching methodology; it is a diverse approach to learning where the focus is on the learner, not the teacher.

Workshop 3/97 emphasises two main conditions which are necessary for developing learner autonomy, both concerned with the learner: "being able to want what one wants" and "being in a position to do what one wants" (Camilleri 1997). Often the autonomous learner is regarded as a learner who has acquired certain skills and attitudes. These include such skills as the ability to identify own needs and objectives, choose relevant methods and techniques and the ability to evaluate one's own learning progress.

It is fairly obvious that these skills and abilities have to be worked on in the classroom and that the teacher has to assist the learners in this process. Autonomy is not a matter of a completely free choice: it is a matter of developing an ability to make qualified choices which enhance learning and awareness.

When we speak of autonomous learning we are concerned with individual learning processes. Because learners acquire knowledge and skills in different ways and at different speeds, they need assistance from the teacher in different ways and with different problems. It is, therefore, of vital importance that the learners are aware of how they learn in addition to what they learn. They also have to discover, from the evaluation of what they know, what their needs are. Consequently they also need to develop metacognitive skills.

Learning processes are not just something that concerns the individual learner and the teacher. Learning takes place in a social context where learners communicate with each other (Workshops 18/96, 3/97, 17/97). As far as learning languages is concerned, peer feedback is as important as teacher feedback, as communicative competence cannot be acquired without communicating in a social context.

3.2 Autonomy and the role of the teacher

As autonomy is concerned with learning rather than teaching, it requires both learners and teachers to take on different roles from the traditional ones. The learner takes on

more responsibility for the learning process. This in no way removes responsibility from the teacher, but it necessitates a change in the teacher's attitude. The terms employed to describe this new role of the teacher varies. The term 'counsellor' (Riley 1997) was used for a time, but recently the term 'mediator' has been more frequently employed. Workshop 8/97 focused upon the autonomous teacher's role as defined by Leni Dam (1995) and Philip Riley (1997) by setting up certain requirements and comparing a traditional teacher role with that of the autonomous teacher. Particular emphasis was put on support, encouragement, the ability to observe and interpret individual learning processes and learner behaviour, present and suggest ways of working, organising and assessing. Workshop 3/97 also dealt with criteria and definitions of what constitutes an autonomous teacher in relation to awareness of personal influence, understanding of pedagogy and management skills.

In the publication which was the result of a network following this workshop, *Learner Autonomy – the Teachers' View* (Camilleri 1999), the teacher's role in learner autonomy is discussed in more detail. The important aspect of shared responsibility in the classroom is underlined rather than the teacher being the sole provider of knowledge.

3.3 Autonomy and learner awareness

In order for learners to be able to take charge of their own learning by making qualified choices, they have to be given the opportunity to develop awareness of how they learn and the teacher has to be the mediator or counsellor in this process. Focus is put on this aspect in many workshops, although, as few participants and relatively few presenters seem to have practical experience in this field, the teacher's role as far as learner awareness is concerned remains a fairly unclear one.

Some workshops approach the aspect of awareness by defining specific types of learners and then discuss where autonomous features can be identified (e.g. Workshop 5/96). Identification, however, is not enough, especially as it tends to cement a theory that specific learner types exist rather than opening up for a diversity of ways to learn, which is more useful, particularly with regard to young language learners.

Later workshops tend to concentrate on the role of certain cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Making a variety of such strategies clear to educators is important. In the cases where participants have had an opportunity to experience and classify strategies (Workshops 17/96, 5/98), there is a stronger possibility that they will be implemented in teaching and teacher training. There is, however, a danger that such strategies become instrumental and are introduced into teaching as more skills to be achieved rather than as a basis for reflections upon individual learning processes.

3.4 Autonomy and awareness of culture and language

Autonomy has been linked to cultural awareness and language awareness in many workshops. In some ways this is a strange link as they are not parallel principles, but function on different theoretical levels. The reason for linking them is perhaps that they are all fairly new concepts with new didactical implications for which there is little support in traditional teaching methodology. Still, one needs to bear in mind that autonomy constitutes diverse individual approaches which aim at developing competence and awareness of culture and language. What is, however, a parallel concept, is learning awareness.

In the workshops where these topics have been linked (Workshops 3/97, 17/97, 5/98), co-ordinators deal separately with theoretical aspects of each topic and leave it up to the participants to link them in practical work and networks following the workshops.

3.5 Autonomy and the learning environment

The importance of the learning environment for learner autonomy has been dealt with in relatively few workshops. When it has been on the agenda, it has been related to resource centres and multimedia and mainly been concerned with adult learners. This is partly due to the financial commitment required when setting up resource centres, partly to traditional views of classroom management. The technical equipment of resource centres promotes individual learning where each learner is given the opportunity to choose content of learning as well as setting his/her own goals. The learner is in control of objectives, rhythm of learning and time management. The nature of a resource centre forces the learners to take charge of their personal learning development in co-operation with a supervisor or teacher. Also, because one deals with individuals and not with large groups of learners, it is easier for the 'teacher' to assist the learners in their decision-making rather than to take charge of the entire teaching situation. (Workshops 17/96, 18/96)

Learning environment is, however, not only a matter of the physical environment in which learning and teaching take place and the practical tools which make an autonomous approach easier. In Workshop 3/97 learning environment is described as "an environment of reflection" which helps learners "become aware of a variety of cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies that play a fundamental role in learner autonomy" (Camilleri).

3.6 Autonomy and materials design

Several workshops have focused on materials design in relation to learner autonomy. This topic is problematic because materials will always limit the learners' choice, both

of content of learning and individual approaches (Fink 1998: 252-258). Rather than focusing on providing learners with sufficient materials to choose the content of their learning, some workshops propose materials chosen according to certain criteria: materials which are supportive, activating, open and flexible, and which focus on aims and objectives and self-assessment. Through their diversity these criteria constitute a way of trying to meet some requirements and needs of all learners (Workshop 5/96). The need for authentic texts has been stressed in several workshops where learning materials have been on the agenda.

Workshop 17/97 was set up specifically with a view to defining principles and analysing materials for learner autonomy in addition to authenticity and cultural awareness. The participants of the workshop were textbook authors as well as foreign language teachers. One section of the ECML publication following this workshop attempts to analyse materials in existing textbooks in terms of autonomy by describing a number of texts and tasks from this specific point of view (Fenner & Newby 2000).

3.7 Autonomy and curriculum design

There is no doubt that curricula and syllabi, together with exams, are the most important factors for implementing new practices in foreign language teaching. Several of the workshops on autonomy emphasise the importance of introducing autonomy into the curriculum. There is, for instance, an expressed wish that students should be allowed to participate in syllabus design (Workshop 8/97). In Workshop 6/97 for foreign language teachers and multipliers from Bosnia and Herzegovina a need for curricula reforms is clearly stated. Workshop 5/98 in Malta was dedicated to specifications of objectives for learner autonomy and cultural awareness in relation to syllabus development. During this workshop it became clear, through presentations of the participants' national curricula as well as through discussions, that the more specific the syllabus of a language subject is, the more difficult it is to introduce aspects of autonomy.

As long as syllabi in many countries tend to focus on knowledge and skills that can be tested and assessed in traditional exams, it is difficult to solve this problem.

3.8 Autonomy and assessment

When learners can choose parts of their learning content according to interests and needs, assessment becomes a very complex matter. As autonomy is primarily concerned with learning processes rather than learning outcomes, process assessment is less complicated than assessment of final products. Self-assessment for both learners and teachers is an important aspect of learner autonomy and this is reflected in some

workshops, especially those which deal with materials design. A thorough discussion on whether it is possible to assess awareness is, however, lacking in all the workshops. Nor is adequate treatment given to the different ways of assessing learning outcomes, if the learners choose materials and methods for their own learning.

One possible way of assessing language learning in relation to autonomy is using various types of portfolios, a topic to which Workshop 10/97 is partly dedicated. Materials available during this workshop treat the following types: subject- specific portfolios, comprehensive portfolios and showcase portfolios.

3.9 Autonomy and teacher training

In most of the workshops on learner autonomy, the topic has been directed at teacher trainers as much as at teachers in primary, secondary and tertiary education. A few workshops are aimed specifically at teacher trainers (e.g. Workshop 10/97) where self-assessment, criteria for textbook analysis and portfolios are among the main topics related to autonomy.

Peter Rádai's thematic collection, *Teacher Training – Résumé of the work from 1995 – 1998,* deals with autonomy as one important aspect of pre-service and in-service training. It seems essential that if there is a genuine wish to implement autonomy in teaching and curricula it needs to be institutionalised in teacher training, something which has often been left to enthusiastic individuals trying to disseminate what they have experienced in workshops. According to Rádai Norway seems to be the only country where there is a national curriculum for teacher training which states aims and objectives for learner autonomy (Rádai 1999); Malta has carried out projects on learner autonomy in teacher education. From the workshop reports and from participant feedback it is clear that this is an expressed wish.

4. Initiated projects

The success of an ECML workshop is partly dependent on dissemination in the various participant countries following the workshop. While documentation shows that a number of networking groups have been set up after each workshop on autonomy, the enthusiasm and idealistic intentions of participants tend to diminish once hard work and teaching traditions catch up with them. Consequently most networking groups disintegrate before they reach a stage where results can be collected and published in some form. It is to be hoped that some of the work done in the period following each workshop has influenced teaching and learning to a certain extent even if there is no documentation to prove it. Some of the workshops on autonomy have, however, resulted in specific projects, one of which is an extensive research project conducted

from CRAPEL, University of Nancy: "Réseau Européen pour l'introduction de l'innovation en language" (Gremmo). Other projects have resulted in the following ECML publications over the past few years:

Workshop 3/97:
Camilleri, A. (ed.) (1999) *Introducing Learner Autonomy in Teacher Education.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Workshop 8/97:
Camilleri, G. (ed.) (1999) *Learner Autonomy – the Teachers' Views.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Workshop 17/97:
Fenner, A-B. and Newby, D. (2000) *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Workshop 5/98:
Fenner, A-B. (ed.) (2001) *Cultural Awareness and Language Awareness Based on Dialogic Interaction with Texts in Foreign Language Learning*. Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

5. Comments and recommendations for further activities

In the first part of this section general comments from participants will be reported. The second part includes comments and recommendations by the writer of this thematic collection.

5.1 Participants' comments

Reports from participants at the various workshops are generally very positive. As one would expect, feedback varies greatly as to what they have found most interesting and useful. In most in-service training, participants tend to divide into two groups according to what they find useful - one group usually asking for more practical examples for teaching, the other wanting more theory to base their own practical work on. This is also the case with the ECML workshops on autonomy. There is a general tendency that participants want more time for discussion and exchange of practical experience. This is, however, difficult to link with requests for more practical material to be used in the classroom or in teacher education. Since the starting point of autonomous learning is the individual learner, it differs from specific kinds of methodology in that it cannot be introduced by means of a set of learning activities.

What happens in the classroom has to be worked out between teacher and learners and cannot be brought into the classroom as a recipe from outside that particular learning situation.

As far as the workshops dealing with topics in addition to autonomy are concerned, several participants ask for more input related to learner autonomy. Many express the view that they find it a complex issue, and there seems to be uncertainty about how to apply autonomy in classroom situations.

In a large number of reports participants state the importance of learner autonomy becoming institutionalised in teacher training, in curricula and in textbooks.

5.2 Comments and recommendations for future activities

In quite a few workshops animators and co-ordinators stress the problems concerning learner autonomy more than its possibilities. Perhaps this is necessary in order to encourage participants from countries which have strongly teacher-based traditions and where changes towards autonomous learning might seem drastic. Words like 'dream' and 'wish' are often employed when describing certain aspects of autonomy, and this does not seem to be a good basis for showing that something is practically feasible. Perhaps it reflects the uncertainty with which the topic is approached. It also reflects the fact that autonomy has, to a large extent, been dealt with as a theoretical concept. The step from presenting theory and principles to practical work is a considerable one.

Emphasis in most workshops is on a very gradual and careful process towards autonomy. There tends to be a reluctance to encourage teachers to take certain leaps and then, perhaps, interpreting and learning from bad experience. Such an attitude to new approaches in teaching might stem from teaching principles related to behaviourism and its concerns about forming bad habits. Secondly, teachers and educators are also influenced by pedagogical principles of starting with what is familiar before moving into more unfamiliar territory, and with autonomy this is difficult as the best results are often achieved by focusing upon the unknown. A third reason might be that foreign language methodology has, for a long time, been heavily influenced by instrumental recipes of how to make the learners use the foreign language actively in the classroom, and when the teaching material runs out the new activities often stop.

Workshops which not only deal with theoretical aspects, but which focus on putting participants through a process of autonomy, seem to have been most successful. One problem with this is that workshops are of a short duration, and, unless the participants have time to reflect on their experience, it might leave them more confused than when they started.

Learning through examples is a sound didactical principle. Few workshops, if any, have linked theory to practical classroom examples; this is only done in publications resulting from networking groups. Interpreting, analysing and discussing learners' cognitive and metacognitive feedback are essential aspects of learner autonomy, and, as this is new territory for most educators, it needs to be practised in a 'safe' environment if they are going to feel confident doing it themselves.

The requirements of curricula and syllabi determine practice in foreign language classrooms, as do textbooks. In their workshop feedback, many participants express the need for more open curricula in many countries, so that teachers have a certain scope for choice. Just as important is that teachers recognise the scope which is inherent in many syllabi and in many textbooks. However, unless cognitive and metacognitive skills are stipulated in curricula and syllabi, or tasks aimed at acquiring such skills are presented in textbooks, it is unlikely that teachers will make these explicit in the classroom.

Another problem related to autonomous learning is that most European countries base foreign language assessment on product and reproduction rather than on learning processes. Continuous assessment and portfolios would improve matters and more research is needed in this field.

A focus upon learner autonomy in teacher training is also essential if attitudes of teachers are going to change, and this is particularly important in pre-service training (see Rádai 1999: 10 and 13-14).

In the Medium-term programme of activities 2000 - 2001 the ECML is organising only one workshop on autonomy. As learner awareness and 'learning how to learn' form the basis of all foreign language learning, the good work which has been carried out over the last years should be continued.

References

Camilleri, A. (ed.) (1999) *Introducing Learner Autonomy in Teacher Education.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Camilleri, G. (ed.) (1999) *Learner Autonomy – the Teachers' Views.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Dam, L. (1995) *Learner Autonomy 3: From theory to classroom practice*. Dublin: Authentik

Fenner, A. (1998) "Developing materials for autonomous learning: Writing a coursebook as a means to promote learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom – a paradox?" in Fink, B. (ed.) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Fenner, A. and Newby, D. (2000) *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fink, B. (ed.) (1998) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and Eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Proceedings of the Second Colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, Graz 1997. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing

Holec, H. (1981) *Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon. (Reprint; first published 1979, Strasbourg: Council of Europe)

Holec, H. (1998) "De l'apprentissage autodirige considere comme une innovation" Nancy: CRAPEL

Holec, H. and Huttonen, I. (eds.) (1997) *The Leaner's Autonomy.Research and development*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Kelly, G. (1955) *The Psychology of Personal Constructs.* New York: Norton

Kelly, G. (1963) *A Theory of Personality*. New York: Norton

Little, D. (1991) *Learner Autonomy. Definitions, issues and problems*. Dublin: Authentik

Rádai, P. (1999) *Teacher Education – Resume of the work from 1995 – 1998.* Graz: ECML

Riley, P. (1997) "'Bats' and 'Balls': beliefs about talk and beliefs about language learning" in *Mélanges* 23, Nancy: CRAPEL

Vygotsky, L. (1934/91) *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press

Wendon, A. & Rubin, J (1987) *Learner Strategies in Language Learning.* London: Prentice Hall

Recommended reading

Camilleri, A. (ed.) (1999) *Introducing Learner Autonomy in Teacher Education.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Camilleri, G. (ed.) (1999) *Learner Autonomy – the Teachers' Views.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Dam, L. (1994) "How do we recognize an autonomous classroom?" In *Die Neueren Sprachen* 93.5, pp 325-34

Dam, L. (1995) *Learner Autonomy 3: From theory to classroom practice*. Dublin: Authentik

Ellis, G. and Sinclair, B. (1989) *Learning to Learn English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Eriksson, R. (1993) *Teaching Language Learning: In-Service Training for Communicative Teaching and Self-Directed Learning in English as a Foreign Language*. Philadelphia: Coronet Books

Fenner, A. (1998) "Developing materials for autonomous learning: Writing a coursebook as a means to promote learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom – a paradox?" in Fink, B. (ed.) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Fenner, A. (1997) "Sociocultural competence in a 'learning to learn context'." In Byram, M. and Zarate, G. (eds.) *The sociocultural and intercultural dimension of language learning and teaching.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Fenner, A. and Newby, D. (2000) *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fink, B. (ed.) (1998) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and Eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Proceedings of the Second Colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, Graz 1997. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing

Gremmo, M. and Riley, P. (1995) "Autonomy, self-direction and self access in language teaching and learning: The history of an idea". In System, Vol. 23. No. 2 pp.151-164

Gremmo, M. (1996) "Former les apprenants a apprendre: Les Lecons d'une experience". In *Mélanges Pédagogiques* No. 22. Nancy: Crapel, Université de Nancy

Hedge, T. (1993) "Talking shop: Aspects of Autonomous learning. An interview with Leslie Dickinson". In *ELT Journal* Vol. 47/4: 330-336.

Holec, H. (1981) *Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon. (Reprint; first published 1979, Strasbourg: Council of Europe)

Holec, H. (1998) "De l'apprentissage autodirige considere comme une innovation" Nancy: CRAPEL

Holec, H. & Huttonen, I. (eds.) (1997) *The Learner's Autonomy.Research and development*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Holec, H. and Huttunen, I. (eds.) (1997) *L'autonomie de l'apprenant en langue vivantes.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Huttunen, I. (1986) *Towards Learner Autonomy in a School Context*. Oulu: Oulun Yliopisto

Little, D. (1995) *Learning as Dialogue: The Dependence of Learner Autonomy on Teacher Autonomy*. Dublin: Centre for Language and Communication, Trinity College

Little, D. (1991) *Learner Autonomy. Definitions, issues and problems*. Dublin: Authentik

Little, D., Dam, L. and Timmer, J. (eds.) (2000) *Focus on Learning rather than Teaching: Why and how?* Papers from the IATEFL conference on learner independence, Krakow 1998. Dublin: Trinity College

Ribe, R. (ed.) (2000) Developing Learner Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning. Barcelona: Universitat de Barcelona

Thavenius, C. (1990) *Learner Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*. Lund: Pedagogisk utvecklingsarbete vid Lunds universitet nr. 90: 173.

Trebbi, T. (1996) “Apprentissage auto-dirigé et enseignement secondaire: un centre de ressource au collège.” In *Mélanges Pédagogiques* No. 22, pp. 169-193. Nancy: Crapel, Université de Nancy

Trebbi, T. (ed.) (1990) *Developing Autonomous Learning in the Foreign Language Classroom*. Report from Third Nordic Conference on Learner Autonomy 1990. Report. Bergen: Universitetet i Bergen, Institutt for praktisk pedagogikk

Trebbi, T. (1998) “ Self-directed learning and the autonomy of the learner: The case for diversification in school language classes” in Fink, B. (ed.) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Wenden, A. (1991) *Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy*. London: Prentice-Hall

Working documents of the ECML and the Council of Europe

Camilleri, A. (ed.) (1999) *Introducing Learner Autonomy in Teacher Education.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Camilleri, G. (ed.) (1999) *Learner Autonomy – the Teachers' Views.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fenner, A. (1998) “Developing materials for autonomous learning: Writing a coursebook as a means to promote learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom – a paradox?” in Fink, B. (ed.) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Fenner, A. and Newby, D. (2000) *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fink, B. (ed.) (1998) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and Eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Proceedings of the Second Colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, Graz 1997. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing

Holec, H. (1988) *Autonomy and Self-directed Learning: Present Fields of Application*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Holec, H. (1981) *Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon. (Reprint; first published 1979, Strasbourg: Council of Europe)

Holec, H. (1998) "De l'apprentissage autodirige considere comme une innovation" Nancy: CRAPEL

Holec, H. & Huttonen, I. (eds.) (1997) *The Learner's Autonomy. Research and development*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Holec, H. and Huttunen, I. (eds.) (1997) *L'autonomie de l'apprenant en langue vivantes.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Holec, H., Little, D. and Richteric, R. (1996) *Strategies in Language Learning and Use*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Rádai, P. (1999) *Teacher Education – Resume of the work from 1995 – 1998.* Graz: ECML

Report on Workshops 13A and 13B Language and Culture Awareness in Language Learning/Teaching (L2 and L1) for the Development of Learner Autonomy (age 11-18). Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Trebbi, T. (1998) " Self-directed learning and the autonomy of the learner: The case for diversification in school language classes" in Fink, B. (ed.) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Trim, J. (1988) Preface to H. Holec (ed.) *Autonomy and Self-directed Learning: Present Fields of Application*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe

Additional reading

Aase, L., Fenner, A., Little, D. and Trebbi, T. (2000) *Writing as cultural competence: a study of the relationship between mother tongue and foreign language learning within a framework of learner autonomy*. CLCS Occasional Paper No. 56. Dublin: Trinity College

Bannister, D. and Fransella, F. (1989*) Inquiring Man. The Psychology of Personal Constructs.* London: Routledge

Black, L. et al (1994) New Directions in Portfolio Assessment. Portsmouth: Heinemann

Breen, M., Candlin, C., Dam, L. and Gabrielsen, G. (1989*) "The evolution of a teacher training programme*". In Johnson, R. K. (ed.) The Second Language Corriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Bruner, J. S. (1977) *Toward a Theory of Instruction.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press

Campbell, C. and Kryszewska, H. (1992) *Learner-Based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Duda, R. and Riley, P. (eds.) (1990) *Learning Styles*. Nancy: Presses Universitaires de Nancy

Farr, R. and Tone, B. (1994) *Portfolio and Portfolio Assessment*. New York: Harcourt Brace

Gottlieb, M. (1995) "Nurturing student learning through portfolios". In TESOL Journal No.5, pp. 12-16

Kelly, G. (1955) *The Psychology of Personal Constructs.* New York: Norton

Kelly, G. (1963) *A Theory of Personality*. New York: Norton

Mamchur, C. (1996) *Cognitive Type Theory and Learning Style. A Teachers Guide*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD

Oxford, R. (1990) *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. Boston, Mass.: Heinle & Heinle

Porter, C. and Cleland, J. (1995) *The Portfolio as a Learning Strategy*. Portsmouth: Heinemann

Reid, J. M. (1995) *Learning Styles in the ESL/EFL Classroom*. New York: Heinle & Heinle

Thomsen, H. and Gabrielsen, G. (1991) *New Classroom practices in Foreign Language Teaching: Co-operative Teaching-Learning: Beginners in the 5th Form*. Copenhagen: Danmarks Lærerhøjskole

Vygotsky, L. (1934/91) *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press

Wenden A. and Rubin, J. (1987) *Learner Strategies in Language Learning*. London: Prentice-Hall

Teacher education

Péter Rádai

1. Introduction

The aim of this thematic collection is to present issues, themes, hypotheses, trends etc. of general relevance to teacher education in Europe as they have been perceived by practitioners and theoreticians, who have attended ECML workshops co-ordinators, moderators and participants between 1995 and 1998. In addition to looking back, this collection will highlight how the future of some of these themes, trends, recommendations or projects are envisaged by these experts and by the compiler of this report.

The main sources of information of this thematic collection have been the reports of all the workshops directly – and in some cases indirectly - related to any form of teacher education. The reports themselves have provided the majority of issues, hypotheses, suggestions and projects initiated. Added to these are a number of ideas, propositions, research data arising from the appendices or tasksheets attached to a number of reports. Further insights were included from the recently published proceedings of the 2nd Colloquy of the ECML (13-15 February 1997), as well as from a variety of documents from Workshop No. 5. of the 3rd Colloquy (9-11 December 1998). Both User Guides for Teacher Trainers to the Common European Framework of Reference have also been consulted.

The following documentation of ECML workshops and other Council of Europe events have been used for this overview:

[Workshop (Number/Year: Co-ordinators and co-facilitators]

Teacher Training for Multicultural and Multilingual Education (2/1995): Hans-Jürgen Krumm, Gisela Baumgratz, Michael Byram, Michael Legutke

Understanding Teacher Development for Primary Schools (6/1995): Marina Stros, Gail Ellis, Carol Read

Effective Trainer Training: Strategies and Techniques (6/1996): Lisa Harshberger, Maggie Dalrymple, Berta Kogoj

INSETT Provision for Modern Languages Teachers within National Career Structures (7/1996): Péter Rádai, Rod Bolitho, Angi Malderez, Uwe Pohl

Using Videotaping in Teacher Training (9/1996): Katalin Boócz-Barna and Katalin Balassa

Languages and Learning in Multilingual Schools – Creating a Network for a Teacher Training Curriculum (15/1996): Maaike Hajer, Josef Huber, Hans Reich

Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved? (Proceedings of the 2nd colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, 13-15 February 1997). Bärbel Fink (ed.)

Minorities, language teaching and in-service training: an intercultural exchange of experiences and developments (New Style Workshop 7B/European Teachers' Seminar, 1997) Georg Gombos, Peter Gstettner, Dietmar Larcher, Mart Rannut, Euan Reid, Ferdinand Stefan

A Reflective Model of Language Teacher Education: An Integration of Theoretical with Competency-based Training in an Awareness-raising Context (21/1997): Krassimira Sharkova, Marina Stros, Hanna Kryzewska

Piloting the Common European Framework of Reference (CEF) in Teacher Training (2/1998): Barry Jones,

Promoting Reflective Teaching through Classroom Research in Pre-service Teacher Education (2/1999): Margit Szesztay, Gabriela Matei, Péter Rádai, Tony Wright

References to individual ECML workshops and their documentation follows the numbering applied by the ECML to its reports, thus 2/98 means the second workshop in 1998.

2. From teacher training towards teacher education

Both in the professional literature and in everyday use the term, which was previously widely accepted, of *teacher training* seems to be giving way to that of *teacher education*, which reflects a marked change in educational philosophy. The word training has always implied a one way process, reflecting the idea that there are those who need to be trained and – at least one level above them in the hierarchy – there are those who will train them. This concept was also based on the hypothesis that the effective transfer of knowledge and skills will inevitably result it better teaching qualities.

Now that the process of teacher development in the form of life-long professional learning has been brought into the focus of attention, the principal aim of teacher education programmes is seen essentially as that of facilitating the development of "those personal capacities that affect a teacher's presence in class, including their effectiveness at 'people skills' and their awareness and attitudes." (Underhill 1990:4) In this process knowledge and skills still assume key but not exclusive roles (see *3.5.2 Balance between Theory and Practice* and *3.5.3 Sources of Theory Relevant to Different Foreign Language Learning Contexts*), yet considerable emphasis is laid on the development of professional beliefs, values and on the personality of the teacher, most of which can hardly be trained or influenced directly by outsiders. Student teachers and those more experienced equally need frameworks "to work on relevant topics in open-ended fashion and reach their own conclusions" (Stros WS 6/1995, p. 6.) This shift in the approach is a slow and gradual one and has only been institutionalised in a small number of Council of Europe countries, but it is much more discernible at institutional level all over Europe (see also *3.5 Teacher Development in Focus*).

3. Key issues and hypotheses

In this section the focus is on a number of themes that have been dealt with in more than one workshop and are continually referred to by experts. More often than not, these issues are presented in the form of principles, practices applied in certain countries and/or institutions, and this collection mostly presents summaries either of the experts' presentations or the results of the work of the participants. Concrete suggestions arising from the activities and possible responses to some of the questions raised are to be found in a later section (see *4. Recommendations and Identified Ideas for Future Intervention*).

3.1 Teaching and training for multilingualism and multiculturalism

Since concepts like plurilingual individual and multilingual and multicultural society are cornerstones in the foreign language policies of the Council of Europe, it follows that emphasis should be given to these areas in connection with any form of foreign language teacher education. Several workshop documents (WS 2/1995, WS 6/1995 & WS 15/1996) attempt to raise these issues, but the description of the follow-up discussions indicate that there are considerable differences in their implementation and that in general little concrete action is taken to incorporate these aspects into teacher education.

3.1.1 New roles for foreign language teachers in the multilingual setting

The increasing call for multilingual skills in the background of an ever-changing Europe requires political and attitudinal change in foreign language policies. One of the

key questions is how foreign language teaching in one foreign language can contribute to plurilingualism. Workshop 2/1995 (p. 7.) provided a summary of practical, methodological suggestions applicable in most foreign language learning environments where more than one foreign language is taught. The list below contains additional ideas arising from the activities of Workshop 15/1996 (p. 15.).

- References to words from other languages could be utilised;
- Learners' learning experience of other languages ought to be explored and exploited (working on language lifelines);
- Learning strategies that are of general use for learners are to be developed;
- Contrastive analyses involving more than two languages may be used;
- Translation could be reintroduced in a new function to compare languages and cultures;
- An awareness of multilingualism and multiculturalism needs developing in learners and teachers alike.

As a result, foreign language teachers are in a new role as co-ordinators of open and autonomous learning processes. This new teaching role imposes new aims on foreign language teacher education to enable teachers to facilitate both cultural and linguistic learning. (WS 2/1995 p. 9.) There seems to be a consensus that, should there be sufficient language policy backing, teacher education curricula should integrate one or more of the goals listed above. One further key suggestion voiced in Workshop 15/1996 (p. 15.) was that there may even be a common core in the curriculum for the training of teachers of all foreign languages.

Despite a general acceptance of its overall aims, several Central- and Eastern European countries still have different priorities; for them the introduction of "languages and learning in multilingual schools did (and still does) not constitute one of the more urgent issues." (Hajer WS 15/1996 p. 16.)

3.1.2 Trans-European mobility in the service of multilingualism and multiculturalism

With mobility becoming a key feature of educational co-existence in Europe (e.g. SOCRATES, LINGUA, COMENIUS etc.), there may be a need for special in-service programmes for foreign language teachers to meet the special needs of interaction and co-operation with 'otherness'.

Specific skills to address such training needs - also dealt with in Workshop 2/1995 - could include:

- Recognising the importance of intercultural events;
- Recognising obstacles to intercultural communication;
- Negotiating meanings and decisions in multicultural teams;
- Managing the dynamics resulting from multicultural relations;
- Relativising one's pedagogical values and beliefs in relation to those of the other participants in an intercultural partnership. (Nalesso. *Teacher competences for a linguistic and cultural education towards mobility in Europe*, 1997, 166–171)

Even though the aims are clearly identifiable, some basic questions still have not been addressed:

- Who should initiate and provide such programmes (e.g. SOCRATES Agencies)?
- Could this be made into a major European (Council of Europe/ECML-EU/Socrates) project which would bring together national agencies, foreign language teaching and teacher education experts?

3.2 Teacher education catering for minority languages

This aspect of foreign language learning and teaching varies from context to context even more than others. At pre-service level universities and colleges may provide proper initial teacher education programmes in one or more minority languages if the size of the population and their educational institutions require a higher number of qualified language teachers. However, smaller scale, locally designed and implemented in-service programmes have been more widely accepted in these circumstances in almost every national context, as they allow a much more flexible, tailor-made approach to meet local needs. (Stefan-Gombos, New Style Workshop 7 B).

3.3 Learning through a second language

Bilingual education is extensively dealt with in a separate thematic collection (Abuja. 1999), thus the following sections will touch upon a more limited, though related field:

- How can the subject areas of formal education and foreign languages be integrated to achieve more effective learning.

Co-operation between teachers of different subjects can be triggered within in-service schemes at institutional level in schools or regions where such needs should arise. Such teacher education programmes aim at raising the awareness of teachers of different subjects to see the values of ‘learning through a second language’ and how the skills

and strategies appropriate for learners of a foreign language can be made useful in their learning of other school subjects, and, most probably, vice versa. In the long run, pre-service training institutions are likely to adjust their programmes to host these special needs. Workshop 15/1996 refers to a particularly successful project in Austria ('Language and Culture Education' at the Centre for School Development in Graz) as one which aims to help what Byram calls the "intercultural speaker" to develop.

3.4 Educating lower primary specialists

It can safely be claimed that in a large number of countries in Europe there is a growing emphasis on the educational value of integrating foreign languages with other areas of the curriculum, i.e. combining linguistic and cross-curricular content. (WS 6/1995) In addition to bilingual education, the other key area of education in which this integration has already yielded considerable success is that of early foreign language learning.

Once policy documents have acknowledged the need to institutionalise the introduction of the first foreign language to young learners (aged between 6 and 8), the pre-service training of teachers of young learners seems to respond to the new requirements: the training of foreign language specialists of young learners has been or is being replaced by the initial training of 'overall' primary teachers who need to specialise in at least one or, ideally, two foreign languages. However, in some cases where the educational political decisions have not yet been made (e.g. Hungary), this has a very strong demotivating effect on any institutional attempt to introduce such programmes. Fortunately more and more countries (e.g. Poland, Spain etc.) have taken concrete measures and the introduction of early foreign language learning in the school system, as well as teacher education programmes in support of it, is becoming a fundamental element of effective foreign language education all over Europe.

3.5 Teacher development in focus

"Teacher development means [...] becoming a student of learning, your own as well as that of others." (Underhill, 1994: v.) Both in theory and practice a shift from training to development based on teachers' direct, hands-on experience as the most valid form of learning can be clearly identified in the philosophy, design and curricula of pre-service and in-service programmes. Teacher education is increasingly more concerned with the facilitation of "autonomous self-development" (Wallace, *Teacher training and the changing role of the language teacher*. 1999. 3.) and it needs to reconceptualise itself from being primarily a discipline of knowledge transmission. This transformation and the accompanying move towards the classroom as the focal point of learning teaching, is embedded in critical reflection and aims at improvement and, ultimately, at educational change. (WS 6/1995, WS 6/1996, WS 7/1996, WS 21/1997 & WS 1/1999)

All ECML workshops (WS 6/1995, WS 6/1996, WS 7/1996, WS 21/1997 & WS 1/1999) and events (e.g. 3rd Colloquy – Workshop 5) dealing with teacher education issues have advocated the shift of emphasis described above. Translated into practical terms, designers and implementers of teacher education programmes (both at pre- and in-service levels) are recommended to address – among other ones not specified in the documents – the following question:

3.5.1 What is "trainable" and what is not?

This recurring dichotomy has been in the limelight and has undoubtedly influenced teacher education curriculum design in a large number of countries in recent years. (WS 6/1995, WS 7/1996 & WS 21/1997) While the varying contexts will offer diverse solutions, a clearly emerging consensus suggests that 'reflection in action' approaches have become fully recognised components of pre-service teacher education programmes. Training techniques, educational research methods and their instruments, which used to be typical of experiential, in-service programmes or PhD level research, have finally been introduced at pre-service level as well. (WS 6/1995, WS 7/1996, WS 21/1997 & WS 1/1999)

Two workshops (WS 7/1996, pp. 17-18. & WS 21/1997, p. 15.) focused extensively on these components of professional development and the circumstances in which they may evolve. The main message of the debate concerns pre-service teacher education, since it has the capacity to provide students and student teachers a framework to start the process of principled reflection on every aspect of their training, no matter whether it is theoretically or practically oriented. (cf. Wallace 1999/b: 2-3. & WS 1/1999) At the same time, there seems to be an agreement that certain competences and skills can only be acquired at later stages of development, during actual classroom teaching.

3.5.2 Balance between theory and practice

Since no one would cast any doubt on the need for a sound theoretical foundation in teacher education programmes, providers of such programmes ought to identify the place and weight of theory in relation to components with practical orientation. A number of countries still prefer a 'from theory to practice' principle both at pre-service and in-service levels, whereas others advocate a more integrated approach in which the two elements are intertwined throughout the training programme. (WS 6/1995 & WS 6/1996)

3.5.3 Sources of theory relevant to different foreign language learning contexts

Certain experts and sources, particularly those more involved in the training of teachers of young learners (WS 6/1995, p. 9. & p. 11.), find it paramount that training

programmes geared to the teaching of different age groups ought to draw on different sources of theory. While there will be, inevitably, a huge body of overlapping theory in both types of programmes, a much bigger emphasis needs to be given to certain areas of theoretical knowledge which are more applicable to the respective learning and teaching context The major divide seems to lie between the following two age groups:

- *Young learners*: the needs of this age group will call for educational and psychological theories in particular;
- *Upper-primary upwards*: to cater for the needs of the older and cognitively more mature learners, links with linguistics and language theory will need to be established.

3.5.4 Approaches and training styles

Similar to the points made above (see *3.5 Teacher Development in Focus*) is the distinction between top-down/prescriptive or bottom-up/exploratory approaches, which of necessity creates new teacher educator roles. The more traditional 'lecturer', 'knowledge-transmitter' or 'trainer' roles have not lost their places, but they do not constitute the only possible set of roles. The emergence of guided reflection as one of the basic principles of teacher education programmes, however, calls for new types of roles, such as 'task-setter', 'catalyst' or 'facilitator of learning' etc., and very often – particularly in in-service schemes – teacher educators find themselves forced to switch between a variety of these roles. (WS 6/1995, WS 21/1997 & Wallace 1999/b)

3.6 Teacher education is a form of adult education

This often ignored characteristic of teacher education requires both designers and implementers to consider factors of how adults learn best. At the same time, adults at pre-service level will present personal, behavioural, attitudinal etc. features which are strikingly different from those of teachers in an in-service training classroom. (WS 2/1995 & WS 6/1996)

3.6.1 What do adult learners expect?

Studies show that adult learners involved in most learning situations will require:

- to take responsibility for setting objectives for themselves ('ownership');
- control over their own approach to learning;
- time, space and opportunity to reflect on and make use of own experience as resource and reference point for learning;
- that their personal and professional experience be valued by others;

- time, space and opportunity to share ideas and feelings with others;
- a reassuring and non-threatening learning environment;
- that new information is presented in a variety of ways;
- that content and processes be relevant to their past experience and/or present concerns;
- to see the value and outcomes of their own learning. (WS 6/1995, p. 19)

Adult learners will display explicit sets of needs which teachers and teacher educators need to address. (WS 2/1995) The needs of primary- and secondary-age learners may or may not correspond to one or more of the conditions above so this issue needs to be considered separately.

3.6.2 Differences between adults in pre- and in-service teacher education

In-service teacher education is a form of adult education in which factors of maturity and life experience (often missing in pre-service students/student teachers) could be better harnessed. Adult learner needs, including learning styles differences, psychological (cognitive style, level of anxiety, age etc.) and sociological differences, differences in background and basic personal needs (limited amount of time for home study, increased amount of out-of-class obligations, sensitivity etc.) could play a significant part in their efficiency of learning. Programme providers should be encouraged to investigate how some or all the factors listed above could affect the training context, its contents and processes. (WS 6/1996)

3.7 Specific issues related to in-service teacher education

Despite the inclusion of this title in the résumé, it is surprising to note that, in fact, very little focus has been placed on the field of pre-service teacher education within the ECML activities. Workshop topics and, consequently, the content and procedures of the workshops, reflect a marked over-representation of in-service teacher education. An attempt to give some explanations for this phenomenon will be made in the final section of this thematic collection.

3.7.1 Motivation and incentives

There are many contexts in Europe in which there seem to be few incentives for language teachers to involve themselves in in-service teacher education programmes. In these countries salaries are low and teachers often have to take on second and third jobs just to make a living. In other countries where conditions are more favourable, incentives may be more tangible. Among the extrinsic motivating factors are:

- *Certification*: in some countries, teachers can accumulate credits towards a further professional qualification by successfully completing in-service courses or programmes;
- *Reward systems*: in some countries, points are awarded for attendance in in-service sessions, courses and/or programmes. These points may be taken into account in one way or another for promotion purposes or when teachers are selected for professional visits to the target language country;
- *Visits abroad*: most language teachers are given the opportunity to attend in-service courses/programmes in the target language country. (WS 2/1995 & Nalesso 1997)

Workshop 7/1996 attempted to provide a comprehensive picture of the practices applied in all Council of Europe countries, though with limited success. In some countries this kind of incentive is a key motivating element in terms of participation in in-service programmes; the current diversity in approaches in different countries would be worth a larger-scale study (see *6. Comments and Recommendations for Future Activities*).

3.7.2 Features of training events and programmes

Quite a large proportion of the relevant workshop documents indicate that focused discussions often revolved around such concrete topics as the possible ingredients of effective training procedures and personality features of the teacher educator. (WS 6/1996, WS 7/1996 & WS 21/97) The reason for the strong presence of these detailed procedural components of training programmes rather than overall rationales and curricula could be that they are relatively easily transferable to individual institutions and that no higher level decisions are necessary to apply them.

Interestingly, the vast majority of participant comments or learning outcomes also refer to the ways in which workshops were run, to the styles of the moderators and their co-operation etc., all of which show that participating teacher educators tend to take practical advantage of the workshops and see them as a chance to gain experience and insights, which may be subsequently implemented in training programmes.

3.7.3 Positive and negative aspects of training events

The following table presents a number of ideas which seem to be shared by providers of teacher education sessions or programmes (WS 6/1995, pp. 10-11. & WS 6/1996, pp. 11-12.):

Positive features	Negative features
• good timing • visual aids • challenge • learning satisfaction • involvement • clear organisation • realistic tasks set • good rapport • participant needs considered, constantly assessed and reassessed • time and space for thinking, analysis, etc.	• monotony • lack of clarity, objectives • too much or little challenge • poor routine • poor environment • status structure between presenter and participants made felt, etc.

3.7.4 Styles of presenters and presentation skills

Although the shift from 'trainer' to 'educator', from 'knowledge-transmitter' to 'facilitator' has been widely accepted, teacher educators will have to act as presenters in a number of situations. Thus workshop participants have collected a basic list of characteristics and skills.

An effective presenter should possess and make use of appropriate:

- eye contact;
- voice projection;
- gestures;
- variety of pace;
- a reasonable amount of relevant anecdote;
- interactive skills and activities at their disposal.

Good presentation skills should include (among others) the ability to:

- create links between points;
- offer a clear overview of points;
- provide signposts;
- summarise own and others' points. (WS 6/1996)

3.7.5 Evaluating in-service teacher education programmes

Criteria, procedures and methodology of evaluating in-service programmes are in the focus of current educational development research; however, implementing research

findings seems to be an extremely complex process: quantitative and qualitative research methods need to be combined in a coherent manner and normally a vast amount of the variables need analysing. The evaluation of effectiveness is made more difficult by the mere fact that there are often several stakeholders involved, and the variety of interests (impact on learners, on participants, on institutions, on staff development, on local and national policy-makers, on international funding agencies etc.) is hard to identify and is seldom taken into account in the research. Fullan (1991) reports on and summarises the findings of a number of research studies on the effectiveness of in-service teacher education programmes in general. Many of his conclusions below apply equally to foreign language teachers and teacher educators.

Features of effective school-based INSET programmes are likely to yield better results:

- if complex teacher behaviours are the focus;
- if programmes are based on demonstrations, supervised trials and feedback;
- if teachers are expected to store up ideas and practices for future use;
- if teachers are encouraged to learn from other teachers concerning job related skills and practices (though they also need some outside help from consultants capable of providing relevant activities);
- if teachers interact (share and provide assistance to each other);
- if the programmes provide different training experience for different teachers (i.e. are individualised);
- if participants also act as planners and decision-makers regarding in-service activities;
- if staff development is part and parcel of an overall plan to bring about improvement. (Bolitho. *Some Key Issues in INSETT*, 1996: 26-33.).

3.7.6 The importance of group dynamics

One could hardly find a more sensitive and vulnerable group of learners than foreign language teachers attending in an in-service course or programme. As an individual, every participant will become a constituent of a smaller or larger learning group, and their contribution or the lack of it will influence the quality of their own and the group's learning. Although the study of group processes and group development within the field of group dynamics has come to the foreground of the psychology of learning, the most crucial phenomena (stages of group life, team roles etc.) are generally not given sufficient consideration in the design of in-service teacher development programmes.

Two workshops devoted considerable time and space to exploring some key aspects of group development (cf. Malderez. *Thinking about Groups - Some Notes* 1996. 34-35. &

WS 21/1997, p. 13.) and came to the conclusion that the relationship between individuals within the group and the effects of their interaction on their learning, etc. are undoubtedly of equal importance to content and methodology.

3.8 Learner autonomy

The topic of learner autonomy is one that has received special focus within the activities of the ECML. Given that one primary aim of foreign language teaching is to help learners to develop as autonomous learners and take a certain degree of responsibility for their own learning, both pre-service and in-service teacher education institutions seem more and more eager to incorporate these aspects of learning into their curricula to help student teachers and experienced colleagues to consider and practise this as a new element of their work. (cf. WS 6/1995 & Wallace 1999/b).

Very few countries can claim to have institutionalised such principles in their educational system, but the considerable success of the new Norwegian curricula suggests that such crucial aims of foreign language learning and teaching can be translated into national educational foreign language learning/teaching aims and that implementation will follow suit. (Trebbi. *Self-directed learning and the autonomy of the learner: The case for diversification in school language classes*, 1997. 184-189.)

4. Recommendations and identified areas for future intervention

4.1 Implementing reflective practice

Over the past few years teacher education programmes based on the principle of reflective practice (cf. Schön, 1987; Wallace, 1991) have gained considerable ground internationally. One reason for this is a definite move away from the search for "the best method". The success of any method can only be evaluated by how best it suits the particular group of students of a particular school set against the background of a particular culture (Wallace, 1999/a). The essence of reflective practice lies in valuing and learning from our own experiences and from the experiences of our learners and colleagues. (Szesztay, WS 1/1999, p. 3.)

4.1.1 Reflective practice institutionalised

Reflective thinking (or an "awareness-raising approach" in the CEF Guide for Teacher Trainers [Primary]) should be integrated within all stages of teacher education: the theoretical curricula, the observation practicum and the teaching practice. (WS 21/1997, p. 7.) Despite a general commitment to its underlying principles, the implementation of teacher education programmes that follow the 'reflection in action' principle is still restricted to individual institutions. One of the principal questions to answer is:

- How could levels and characteristics of reflective practice be first incorporated and evaluated in a teacher education programme – if it is feasible at all?

One set of requirements has been recommended for pre-service programmes, but they could justifiably be regarded as a (not exhaustive) list of guiding principles for any kind of teacher education scheme. (WS 21/1997, p. 32.)

Coursework requirements	**Field practice appropriate to coursework**
Reorganise curriculum and syllabus to cater for needs of developing autonomous learning by: • Changing the manner of instruction; • Offering problem-posing input; • Setting assignments requiring the interpretative use of knowledge; • Setting interdisciplinary assignments which call for reflection in a wider educational context.	• Reflective observation • Reflective practice • Team teaching

4.2 Organised reflection

Whilst acknowledging the relevance of reflective practices to teacher education the process of 'translating them' into general educational and institutional terms is still in its early stages. 'Reflection in Action' will not become a universally accepted and advocated approach overnight. Fortunately though, a number of its principles are already being promoted in the introduction of fairly easily applicable tools of reflection and in the institutionalisation of classroom-based research in a number of contexts. (WS 2/1995, WS 21/1997 & WS 1/1999)

4.2.1 Effective tools for reflection

The following tools have been identified as the most widely applied and most effective ones and have been referred to in almost every related workshop document:

- *Portfolios*: they may support coursework or the practicum and have been found particularly useful and meaningful instruments in professional and personal development and for research purposes; (WS 6/1996 & WS 1/1999)
- *Dialogue Journals/Diaries*: they encourage communication between student teacher/teacher and teacher educator, encouraging both sides to ask questions, identify problem situations and share insights; (WS 21/1997 & WS 1/1999)

- *Principled Observation Schedules*: peer- and self-observation tasks and instruments seem to have become commonly used in all forms of teacher education, they help to raise awareness and understanding of underlying principles of teaching and professional decision-making. (WS 6/95, WS 21/1997 & WS 1/1999)

4.2.2 Reflective cycles, classroom-based research, action research

Learning cycles adapted to various kinds of teacher education contexts are becoming standard practice and are beginning to comprise an important element of reflection on a larger scale as part of classroom-based or action research. Data collected by workshop moderators indicate that such research projects are gaining considerable ground at both pre-service and in-service levels. (WS 6/1996, WS 7/1996 & WS 1/1999)

4.3 Practicum revisited

Pre-service curricula and procedures which include an increasing practicum element have been spreading rapidly all over Europe. One key element of these programmes is an extended practicum (teaching practice, teaching experience), which, in many national and institutional contexts, has proved its professional value especially in the early stages of teacher development.

Experts participating at the teacher education workshop of the 3rd Colloquy expressed their firm conviction that such practice-oriented schemes need investigating and the results and analyses of the possible applicability of that experience to other teacher education contexts will have to be examined. (cf. Wallace, 1999/b; Rádai, *The One-Year Teaching Experience Scheme at the Centre for English Teacher Training, Budapest*, 1999.)

5. Follow-up activities

One of the main criteria of successful ECML workshops is whether by the end of the allocated period groups of participants have been able to identify a number of clearly defined international networking projects to follow-up the work they have completed together. The workshop documents, unfortunately, present very few concrete, well-documented projects. Some of the most elaborately designed projects were initiated by Workshop 2/98 ("Piloting the CEF in Teacher Training"). But, despite the clear aims, context and methods, only one of the original five projects had been completed by Spring 1999. This was:

Project 2: "Developing [an awareness of] Learner Strategies in Modern Languages'

Learning" (Aim: to produce a self-learning guide for Learner Strategies; Context: tutors, mentors working with students and student teachers + teachers working with pupils; Main Method: case studies of experiential 'systematic teaching cycles' of participants in their own contexts; Participants Involved: 10 representing 9 countries. Co-ordinator: Ms Veronica Harris, v.harris@gold.ac.uk).

A very concrete product of networking resulting from an ECML workshop (WS 21/1997) is the "trans-regional teacher education newsletter" called *School Experience,* which is edited and published in Hungary but has both contributors and readers in several central and eastern European countries. Originally it had been a Hungarian newsletter for school-based mentors but a number of participants of the workshop on reflective approaches felt that there was a need to share local experience in an international forum for teacher educators. Currently the newsletter (established in 1998) has five regional editors in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Romania and Slovakia.

Editors: Zoltán Poór (poorz@almos.vein.hu) and Tamás Kiss (kisst@nyl.bgytf.hu); homepage: http:/www.schoolexperience.matav.hu

6. Comments and recommendations for future activities

Some of the recommendations in the following sections were drawn up during or after the respective events; others express the views of the compiler of the collection.

6.1 Searching for concrete issues in teacher education

Most workshop titles deal with teacher education/training in general; thus, a certain degree of conflicting interests and needs of participants representing pre- and in-service teacher education can clearly be felt in the workshop documents. These – sometimes insurmountable – differences clearly hindered the moderators' efforts to focus on specific and, at the same time, generally relevant and applicable themes.

Suggestion

- When the activities of the ECML are selected, priority should be given to proposals which aim at exploring themes having a direct bearing on the design and implementation of teacher education programmes, thus giving participants an opportunity to effectively disseminate the outcome of the activities.

6.1.1 The missing link: pre-service teacher education

In the first three years of the ECML the workshops which were included in the annual

programme were selected from the submitted proposals. The fact that concrete themes related to pre-service teacher education have hardly been dealt with at the ECML so far is due to the lack of proposals in this area.

One of the key reasons for this absence may be that, generally, pre-service teacher education represents schemes which reflect national educational policies, philosophies and, in particular, higher educational policies. National idiosyncrasies, the strength of certain lobbies within the higher education system and traditions are all factors which strongly influence pre-service teacher-education curricula and which, in some cases, inhibit change. Regardless of whether the forms of training are in line with modern insights, they often cannot be influenced fundamentally. It seems likely that the farthest the ECML workshops can reach out is to give participants the opportunity to sample practices of other countries' institutions, reflect on and evaluate them against their own practices and decide on the levels of the applicability of these in their own context.

Suggestions

- With regard to the new Medium-Term Programme of the ECML, both the Council of Europe and the Centre could explicitly express their intention that pre-service teacher education will be one of its priority themes in the next three years and that smaller- and larger-scale (even at the level of intergovernmental co-operation) activities will be initiated and supported.
- One component of pre-service programmes, the diversity of which makes comparison extremely difficult, is the teaching practice student teachers are expected to carry out to obtain their teaching qualification. An international (ECML, Council of Europe, EU) study could usefully survey current practices and experience, which may be followed by suggestions to cater for the needs of the more open job market in an integrated Europe.

6.1.1.1 The odd-one-out: lower primary specialists in demand

Every national educational government which has already introduced or intends to introduce the first foreign language at the lowest grades has to clearly identify the effects of this decision on its system of pre-service teacher education: first and foremost a sufficient number of teachers with tailor-made qualifications need to be educated at tertiary level (see *3.4 Educating Lower Primary Specialists: Exploiting Cross Curricular Issues*). Workshop reports (WS 2/1995 & WS 1/1998) and other professional documents indicate that such decisions have been or are being made in a number of countries.

Suggestions

- Teacher education for lower primary foreign language teaching seems to be a

very concrete and important theme for future ECML programmes and for co-operation between member states. Teacher education schemes with several years of professional experience behind them could be compared with programmes of lesser experience. Experience gained from teacher education programmes catering for bilingual education needs to be explored and adapted to fully exploit the cross-curricular potential for the training of lower primary specialists.

6.2 The preferred topic: in-service teacher education

In-service teacher education is less politically and educationally sensitive, the area offers more choice even in national contexts and is more cost-effective than pre-service training, since it focuses on people who are already, to some extent, committed to a profession that some student teachers will never enter. However, the results of all data-collection on in-service policies and programmes present such a diversified picture that it is difficult for both participants attending workshops and readers of workshop documents to gain much more than snapshots of a huge variety of principles and practices at a fairly superficial level. These have focused on:

- training models and formats;
- effective presentation skills and styles;
- course design: content and methodology.

6.2.1 Rewarding participation in in-service programmes

The types of rewards and levels of remuneration – if any – for participating in in-service programmes vary from country to country, so it is very difficult to identify any generally accepted systems in Europe. (WS 7/1996) Yet, the motivating power of such external incentives cannot be underestimated even for teachers who take part in in-service programmes primarily driven by their commitment to professional growth (see *3.8.1 Motivation and Incentives*).

Suggestion

- Without large-scale participation of foreign language teachers in in-service programmes there is no chance for individual and professional development, growth and ultimately change to take place. The ECML could commission a comprehensive study of incentives offered to participants of in-service training activities in the countries of the Council of Europe, to identify the rationale behind the different systems, draw up a kind of SWOT (Strength–Weaknesses–Opportunities–Threats) analysis of them. The results could then be made available for educational decision-makers.

6.3 Applying the Common European Framework of Reference to teacher education

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEF) and its two user guides for Teacher Training are – surprisingly – hardly ever mentioned in the reports or follow-up communication (except for WS 2/1998). This phenomenon is not easy to explain, but it seems that this crucial document has so far mainly been consulted by national policy makers in education (e.g. in the creation of examination systems) and its philosophy is not easily applicable to teacher education contexts.

Suggestion

- Reasons for and consequences of this phenomenon need further investigation.

6.3.1 Improving the user guides for teacher trainers (Educators)

The two user guides are not referred to, even in the report of Workshop 2/1998, which dealt specifically with the CEF. In their current form these guides do not provide teacher educators with tangible, easily identifiable principles that can be translated into the terminology of teacher education programme design and implementation.

Suggestion

- When the final version of the CEF is published, the redesigned user guides need to take the concrete needs and terminology of teacher educators into consideration and an international survey of responses to the draft document, which represents the diverse contexts within the Council of Europe countries, needs to precede its publication.

References

Bolitho, R. *Workshop No. 7/1996: Some Key Issues in INSETT*, Graz: ECML. 1996, 26-33.

Fullan, M. (1991) *The New Meaning of Educational Change*. London: Cassell.

Hajer, M. *Workshop No. 15/1996: Languages and Learning in Multilingual Schools – Creating a Network for a Teacher Training Curriculum*, Graz: ECML. 1998.

Malderez, A. *Workshop No. 7/199:. Thinking about Groups - Some Notes.* Graz: ECML. 1996. 34-35.

Nalesso, M. (1997) Teacher competences for a linguistic and cultural education towards mobility in Europe. In Fink, B. (ed.) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved? (Proceedings of the 2nd colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, 13-15 February 1997*). Strasbourg: Council of Europe. 166–171.

Rádai, P. (1999). The One-Year Teaching Experience Scheme at the Centre for English Teacher Training, Budapest. In *Proceedings of the 3rd Annual Colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, 8-9 December 1998*. (Forthcoming)

Schön, D. A. (1987*) Educating the Reflective Practitioner: Towards a New Design for Teaching and Learning in the Profession*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Stros, M. *Workshop No. 6/1995: Understanding Teacher Development for Primary Schools*. Graz: ECML, 1996.

Szesztay, M. *Workshop No. 1/1999: Promoting Reflective Teaching Through Classroom Research in Pre-service Teacher Education*. Graz: ECML, 1999.

Trebbi, T. (1997) Self-directed learning and the autonomy of the learner: The case for diversification in school language classes. In Fink, B. (ed.) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved? (Proceedings of the 2nd colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, 13-15 February 1997*). Strasbourg: Council of Europe. 184-189.

Underhill, A. (1990) Training, Development and Teacher Education. *IATEFL Teacher Development Newsletter,* 12, 4.

Underhill, A. (1994) Series Editor's Preface to *The Teacher Development Series*. In Scrivener, J. (1994) *Learning Teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann

Wallace, M. (1999a) Death of Method. *Plenary talk at the annual IATEFL conference, Edinburgh, UK.*

Wallace, M. (1999b) Teacher training and the changing role of the language teacher. *Proposal for the 3rd Annual Colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages*.

Wallace, M. (1991) *Training Foreign Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Information and communication media/technologies

Guy Arquembourg

1. Introduction

In the course of the years 1996, 1997 and 1998 (from January 23, 1996 to September 17, 1998), the **European Centre for Modern Languages** hosted six workshops in Graz devoted to *the use of information and communication media and technology for teaching and learning foreign languages.*

The choice of topics of these workshops indicates the technological evolution over the last few years, since it addressed successively the use of audiovisual materials, computer tools and editing products, authoring languages and the Internet. It likewise, and rightly, accorded a role to a more global vision of the function of the media and of the complementary nature of these tools.

The objective of this summary is to evaluate the training courses that were the subject matter of the reports listed below, together with the totality of the activities that they have generated:

[Workshop (number/year): coordinators and co-animators]

Audiovisuel et Enseignement des Langues. Stratégies et pratiques de lecture, d'exploitation et de production de vidéogrammes (Trad. Audiovisual Media and Language Teaching. Strategies and methods of understanding, using and producing videos) (1/1996) : Jean Noël Rey, Jean-Claude Beaudoin, Henri Contassot

Computers in the Foreign Language Classroom (2/1996) : Lienhard Legenhausen, Stefan Gabel, Christian Lacourière, Dieter Wolff

Einsatz von Videoaufzechnungen in der Lehrerausbildung. Using Videotaping in Teacher Training (9/1996) : Katalin Boocz-Barna, Katalin Balassa

Multimedia and Hypermedia in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching : Nature, Role, Impact (10/1996) : Gilberte Furstenberg, Guy Arquembourg, Kurt Fendt

Action-Oriented Media Education in Foreign Language Teaching (12/96) : Nora Koczian, Peter Magyarics

Médias, Multimédias et Formation, Diversification des Ressources et Contextes d'Apprentissage (Media, Multimedia and Education, Diversification of Learning Resources and Contexts) (19/1996) : Marie-José Barbot, Laurence Bonnafous, Christine Develotte, Thierry Lancien

Audiovisuel et Enseignement des Langues Vivantes. Phase II – Expérimentation et Evaluation des Pratiques (Audiovisual Material and the Teaching of Modern Languages. Stage II –Testing and Evaluating Methods) (5/1997) : Jean Noël Rey, Elspeth Broady, Lis Kornum

From the Authentic Video Document to Multimedia Hypertext. How to design and use specific pedagogical materials for language teaching and learning (15/1997) : Guy Arquembourg, Milan Hausner, Irmeli Kaustio, Violeta Tsoneva

The Internet as a communication tool in the modern language classroom. Developing strategies for effective implementation of the Internet as a communication and information tool (3/1998) : Klaus Conrad, Milan Hausner, Waltraud Schill, Dionisos Vavougios

The Use of Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL) in Vocationally Oriented Language Learning (VOLL) (13/1998) : Anthony Fitzpatrick, Bernard Moro, Bernd Rüschoff

1.1 Documentation

The European Centre for Modern Languages publishes a complete documentation of its activities. Each of the workshops is the subject matter of a report edited by the coordinator at the end of the training.

Each report sets out the objectives and summarises the course of the workshop:

- Conferences and presentations by the coordinators;
- Contributions by the participants, discussions;
- Description of the projects and reports of the work-group activities.

It contains:

- A summary of the workshop by the coordinator
- An evaluation of the workshop by the coordinator and by the participants
- The reports by the trainees and co-animators
- The recommendations and resolutions for the follow-up activities

An appendix may contain:

- The articles and documents used
- Subsequent reports by the participants
- Bibliography

1.2 Dissemination

The vocation of the European Centre for Modern Languages is to promote the distribution of theories and encourage the practise resulting from the work carried out in the workshops. Representatives of the member states participating at these workshops are thus entrusted with a mission: at the end of the training their role is to advise, organise follow-up activities, even going as far as to help the establishment and development of structures in their own countries.

The extent and quality of dissemination thus depends on the dynamism of the representatives of the member states and their desire to participate in the development and propagation of the themes addressed in the workshops. The European Centre for Modern Languages insists on the importance of this involvement and provides its institutional and, if necessary financial, support for the dissemination activities that result from the workshops. These activities are also dealt with in reports that can be consulted at the Centre.

With respect to the activities dealt with in the present summary, it appears clear that the desire to promote dissemination activities was an aspect that dominated the organisation, in particular, of the follow-up workshops, the purpose of which was to encourage distribution and improve the documentation. Nevertheless, it can be assumed that many activities cannot be evaluated or published by the Centre insofar as it has not received the results.

2. Information and communication media and technology – Definitions

The interest in the use of what will henceforth be referred to as *information and communication technologies* (ICT) for the teaching and learning of modern languages is not a new phenomenon. Ever since the influence exerted on behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics by sound recordings (the audio-oral method), and to a less extent by CALL (*programmed learning*), the history of applied linguistics, educational psychology and the teaching of languages has been closely linked to the development of these technologies. However, the acceleration of this development and the multiplication of aids and tools has led to a certain confusion *at the work face* that requires further explanation.

Thus, although the question of the exploitation of foreign language television programmes as recommended within the framework of the communicative approach is now considered a rearguard action, there is general awareness of the confusion that still reigns in the classroom thanks precisely to the problems that are caused by the methods of the communicative approach. This explains the choice of workshops dedicated to the use of television and video and the use of the term "media", which distinguishes these methods from the introduction of the new instruments known as *information and communication tools*.

The term "media", which thus refers to the use of analogue audiovisual material, is associated with the term "multimedia", which refers to the combination of digital data in the form of text+image+sound, as well as the computer-based administration of the written word, audiovisual material and communication. On this point, it should be pointed out that in some reports the term "*multimedia*" is used alternately to describe an aid (CD-ROM) or to refer to the ICT (cf. Workshop 19/1996 – Marie-José Barbot).

The term "*hypertext*", frequently associated with the term "multimedia" ("hypermedia"), refers to a non-linear structure (network) comprising elements "associated by a system of links that can be partially visualised on the screen by clicking on a verbal or iconic sign" (definition by Marie-José Barbot – 19/1996, p. 11). It should, however, be pointed out that the two terms refer to distinct ideas: A hypertext may be made up entirely of text while a multimedia document may have a strictly linear structure.

The term "*information and communication technologies*" (ICT) provides a suitable name for the totality of the tools and techniques that allow the handling of digital information and/or communication by means of a network consisting of computers connected by telephone link.

3. Media and ICT at the European Centre for Modern Languages

The interest generated by the use of the media and ICT for the teaching of languages is considerable, since it was the motive for the organisation of 10 workshops from January 1996 to September 1998 whose working topics were closely linked to technological developments.

3.1 Cultural diversity: the spirit of the ECML

These workshops, mostly led by multicultural expert teams, welcomed representatives from all the member states – from the North to the South and from the East to the West of Europe – primarily providing an opportunity to confront and to compare very

varying concepts of the role that should be attributed to these technologies in teaching and learning.

The reports produced by the participants indicate the extent to which this opportunity to encounter and to work with colleagues from other countries and other cultures is considered to be important or indeed paramount. Thus the provenance of the leaders of one workshop from one country (France) was criticised more or less vehemently on several occasions (Workshop 1/1996: "the European idea was not supported entirely", Workshop 19/1996: "the seminar was too narrowly restricted to French concepts"…); on the other hand, a large number of representatives, like L.J. Fleury (Workshop 19/1996) felt that this "encounter with other persons responsible for education who are confronted with the same challenges in 28 different countries was of itself sufficient to justify the setting up of such workshops." The majority of the representatives also felt (WORKSHOP 5/1997) that it opened their eyes:

> "It was a marvellous experience to be able to work with people from so many countries, especially from Eastern Europe. It sounds a bit awkward but we seem to have more contact with Western Europeans in Poland than with people who live close to us."

In other words, irrespective of the topics addressed in the workshops, the challenge that this encounter represents is considered as the very expression of the spirit of the Council of Europe and the ECML, as was put by one of the co-leaders of Workshop 5/1997:

> "In my particular case, I hope that concrete results will emerge from the working group which formed to look at teaching the lesser taught languages : Russian, Latvian, Hungarian, Romanian, Finish and Polish. It's a challenge very much in the spirit of the Council of Europe."

3.2 Technological diversity: towards a harmonisation of methods

On the technological level, the participants' comments also repeatedly underline the benefit that they obtained from this confrontation, even if this appreciation was the result of the awareness of the huge disparity between the various levels of equipment and, consequently, methods, of the countries represented, as was expressed somewhat brutally by one participant:

> "Several countries, especially eastern European countries are lacking in any organized approach to IT and multimedia in the classroom. Many countries are understaffed, undertrained and have to make do with obsolete equipment"

Although this opinion, put into words in 1996, expresses a feeling that was undeniably shared by a large number of participants at a time when ICT were still very little used, the reports contain many comments that all the more justify the activities carried out by the ECML in this field:

- Far from generating frustration, this disparity is invariably felt as a challenge by the most "disadvantaged", who claimed that they were stimulated by the activities of the various workshops;
- It is clear that questions concerning technological and methodological teacher training are equally crucial for all;
- The development of equipment and the increase in its performance – specifically in the field of communication – together with the desire to disseminate (undeniably strongest in Eastern Europe) contribute day by day to considerably reducing the differences.

On this point, we quote another comment that echoes the one quoted above and expresses an opinion shared by the majority of the participants:

> "Workshops of this kind are important for various reasons, and the European Centre for Modern Languages has an important role to play. This particular workshop illustrated the seminal effects of having a multicultural meeting place for people working with CALL. The fact that people from so many states and with such a wide spectrum of experience were able to work together with common practical and theoretical tasks was for me the most important aspect of the workshop."

4. Technological development and language teaching

At a time when the teaching and learning of languages, the eternal guinea pig for audiovisual technologies, are beginning to become interested in information and communication technologies, the communicative approach is paradoxically being called into question more and more frequently, and didactic eclecticism seems to have gained the day over any new approach inspired by research in the field of cognitive psychology or by constructivism. As for the authentic audiovisual document that once constituted one of the favourite aids of the communicative approach, it seems to be falling more and more into disfavour.

Moreover, the evolution of ICT over the last few years has clearly had repercussions on research into the teaching and acquisition of languages. The multimedia revolution is even arousing a renewal of interest in theories that were never really applied within the framework of institutional school teaching. Thus the research on computer-assisted

language learning and teaching is today reintroducing ideas of cooperation, collaboration and interaction and bringing back into favour the works of Piaget and Vygotsky.

Such a development in the theoretical context was complete justification for the establishment by the ECML of workshops that would stimulate discussion on the new pedagogical practices that followed the introduction of ICT. Under this heading, the ECML has played a full and apposite role, since the desire to obtain replies to the methodological questions raised by technological development was clearly the main preoccupation of each workshop.

We mentioned above that the topics of these workshops were closely related to the current state of technological developments. This leads us to adopt a diachronic presentation to permit a better approach to both the specific methodological options and the coherence of the totality of the programme.

4.1 1996: from television to multimedia. The search for a new methodology

1996 was the most fertile of years since it saw the establishment of six workshops that provided an approach to audiovisual technologies in their entirety:

4.1.1 The use of audiovisual media (television and video)

Three workshops were dedicated to the use of audiovisual media, the result of two common concerns:

(1) The need to integrate the use of television, which:

- is part of everyday real life of the learners;
- provides valuable resources for the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

(2) The need to find a solution to the methodological difficulties that teachers of foreign languages encounter in the absence of specific training.

"The richness and complexity of the audiovisual media, the poverty of the mediation"
It was in these terms that Jean-Noël Rey introduced the problem of Workshop No. 1/1996 (Audiovisual Media and Language Teaching. Strategies and Methods of Understanding, Using and Producing Videos 1997- Appendix) that he coordinated. Jean-Noël Rey's starting point was the statement that "teachers are happy to make use

of television programmes in a foreign language" (however, we should note that this point is far from being established, even as far as concerns the best equipped countries and institutions), but that:

> "…the approach, to speak generally, is too often restricted to questions relating to the recognition of elements (and of the story line, if dealing with fiction) and the comprehension of dialogues." (1996, p 5)

and thus he bases his approach to the problem "on a number of theoretical and methodological approaches and on methods that provide a reply to the central question of how to present images?" In order to create awareness of the teacher's role as "mediator of the audiovisual", the leaders proposed to treat four issues:

- The understanding and interpretation of the moving image
- Criteria and strategies aimed at establishing an audiovisual corpus for didactic use
- Pedagogic mediation and the production of tools
- Methodology and methods for exploiting videos

Although opinions were shared, and although the overall evaluation was positive, a number of participants expressed reserves about this approach, which they considered too "technical and cinematographic", considering that it did not meet their expectations at the level of the methodology of language teaching:

> "From the point of view of technology application in language education the participants seemed to be more experienced than the co-ordinating group […] If the seminar had intended to focus on teaching modern languages in general a number of other European experts representing the methodology of various languages could have co-ordinated the seminar at a higher level."

This assessment by a participant who nevertheless became involved in the workshop's follow-up activities (Stages 2 and 3 of the project) shows the importance that the participants attached to the role of the ECML as far as concerns language pedagogy and didactics. In the case of this workshop, it is clear that this preoccupation was the cause of the reorganisation that took place within the framework of the continuation of the workshop (Workshop 5/1997: phase II –Testing and Evaluating Methods).

Although Workshop 9/1996 (Katalin Boocz-Barna and Katalin Balassa, *Using Videotaping in Teacher Training*) was also interested in the phenomenon of the perception of images and in the development of observation skills, the emphasis was placed on training in the use of video in the language classroom and even more on the

use of video as a self-evaluation tool within the framework of training ("autoscopy"). While the limits of this method were known to the participants (for instance, for one participant video recording rarely permits the recreation of the atmosphere in the class as a whole), it was nevertheless acknowledged as an important training element.

The third workshop devoted to the use of audiovisual media (12/96, Nora Koczian and Peter Magyarics, *Action-Oriented Media Education in Foreign Language Teaching*) was essentially interested in television, and attempted to respond to the concern expressed by the participants in Workshop 1/1996: How can and should television be used in language teaching. The discussion addressed the impact of television on the learners' lives and on the possibilities of integrating the knowledge acquired in the use of the media into the learning of a foreign language. The awareness that these discussions gave rise to, particularly amongst the representatives from countries unused to these methods, led to a conflict that is well known to teacher trainers: While certain participants would have liked to have seen more examples, others, in contrast, agreed for reasons of creativity with the coordinator's decision not to present "recipes" for the use of authentic documents.

4.1.2 The use of various computer tools and editorial products on CD-ROM

In parallel with this reflection on the use of video and television, the development of computer technology and the emergence amongst the general public of increasingly powerful tools (programmes, applications, …) and CD-ROMs not intended for teaching/learning have given rise to a new need to which the ECML has striven to respond.

As was the case for the workshops devoted to the use of audiovisual media, these workshops attempted to provide methodological solutions to the problem posed by the lack of mastery of the new technological tools and products that are not necessarily intended for learning modern languages but which are nevertheless capable of improving such learning.

In his introduction to the workshop of which he was the coordinator (Workshop 2/1996, *Computers in the Foreign Language Classroom*. 1996, pp. 24-25), Lienhard Legenhausen insists on the social impact of the development of ICT, quoting an article in the German magazine "*Der Spiegel*":

> "Individuals who are capable of accessing information quickly and know how to assess its value, will belong to the upper classes. The proletariat of the new society will consist of those who will use the new media simply for

> entertainment and who are more or less helplessly exposed to the flood of information." ("die dem Informationsgewitter ausgesetzt sind" Der Spiegel 14/93)

On the one hand, this development makes it vital for teachers to obtain information:

> "In order to evaluate chances and risks of the computer in the foreign language classroom, and to be in position to positively influence developments, we should be properly informed."

On the other hand, the learning revolution that it implies ("*Der Spiegel*" 9/1994), and the changes that this revolution is causing as far as concerns the role of the teacher and the traditional relationship between teacher and learner, constitute a major challenge to the teacher:

> "The issue is no longer to disseminate knowledge as such, but it is the knowledge of how to access and acquire information (knowledge). To express it in the terms of cognitive psychologists : what matters is 'procedural knowledge', not 'declarative knowledge'. The so-called process-oriented – with a focus on learning to learn – has already effected this change."

Workshop 2/1996 set itself a task equal to this challenge, since it proposed to the participants an investigation of five fields of the use of computer science:

- Learning programmes (tutorial programmes and authoring programmes)
- Telecommunications
- Concordancers
- Databases
- Word processing

The discussion concentrated on the learner roles implied by the various functions of the computer as presented below:

Data Management	Learner as organizer of learning process
Data (Language) Processing	Learner as researcher
Data Transfer	Learner as communicator in intercultural communicative setting

In this spirit, the participants focused on the different topics and explored the pedagogic potential that is presented by tools such as concordancers (MicroConcord, Longman's Mini-Concordancer), simulation programmes (Granville), hypertext generators (Toolbook) and word processing programmes, and by the Internet.

On the theoretical level, Lienhard Legenhausen reminds us that the function of the computer depends entirely on methodological decisions. This consideration leads to the question of the specific role that can be attributed to the machine. On this point, two concepts appear essential to the report:

- *Communicative interaction*, the importance of which is emphasised particularly in the case of simulation (cf. Wolff: *Computer Simulation in the Foreign Language Classroom: Granville*, 2/96, pp. 86-91).
- *Collaboration*, which Lienhard Legenhausen justifies from a number of points of view (psychology, cognitive psychology, learner psychology, psycho-linguistics, socio-psychology, language acquisition, …), advocating the analysis of the respective roles of the screen and the word processing programme in the case of written production tasks carried out in cooperation (Legenhausen, *Cooperative writing and computer*. 2/96, pp. 86-91).

As we mentioned above, we are aware of the extent to which these ideas interest the community of researchers in the field of computer-assisted language learning and we were all the more convinced by this presentation in the light of facts that the exploration of these theories were subsequently to constitute the main objective of Workshop 5/1997 (Arquembourg, *Designing Multimedia Hyperdocuments. A new means to Teach and Learn Languages?* 1997).

As, however, might have been foreseen by the ambitious programme of the workshop, the variety and wealth of topics addressed inevitably generated a feeling of frustration.

As one participant emphasised:

> "Four and a half days is not a long time for a CALL course because there are so many aspects to cover, and there always has to be a limited choice of subjects to present"

For this participant, the lack of time, aggravated by the insufficiency of the equipment (five workstations for 24 participants, limited access to the Internet) meant that it was not possible to provide the necessary space for pedagogical discussion and didactic considerations:

> "As it is now, users tend to be impressed by certain technological innovations to the extent that the tool itself overshadows the intentions with using it."

We should also note that, although the aim of the workshop was to enable the participants to develop their own evaluation criteria for the application and use of the various technological tools, it is clear from the reports that:

- The analysis tools such as concordances are regarded as being difficult to use.
- The evaluation of programmes said to be learning or tutorial programmes revealed the limits of these products as being a) more suitable for exploration than for practical exercises and b) mainly conceived for Anglo-Saxon consumers (read-only applications) and hence difficult to transfer to other cultural environments.

On the other hand, tools that allow the greater involvement of the teachers and learners seem to have been more attractive to the participants:

- The participants' interest was particularly attracted to the use of the Internet as a learning tool to the extent that they suggested a follow-up workshop on this topic.
- All the participants likewise acknowledged the necessity of providing the teacher with tools to permit him to create his own applications.

However, as far as concerns this latter point, a) the use of the writing tool is only proposed for the teacher, and b) it constitutes a training problem for some participants. We should note that the choice of a programme that is easier to use than Toolbook would without doubt have reassured the less experienced participants and permitted the creation of production strategies by the learners.

We would like to emphasise the importance of this workshop, whose considerable activities are to be continued in the most apposite manner in most of the workshops to come and intended to consider in greater depth the topics dealt with.

4.1.3 The place of the teacher in the innovative material

The multiplication of multimedia applications on CD-ROM and the questions that result, as we have just seen, from the use in the language classroom a) of language learning products and b) of "general public" products (to use the term by Thierry Lancien) led to the idea of proposing a discussion of the role of these tools and the place of the teacher. Consequently, two workshops provided an appreciable supplement, specifically at the theoretical level, to the training courses that preceded them.

The objective clearly defined by Gilberte Furstenberg for Workshop 10/1996 (*Multimedia and Hypermedia in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching: Nature, Role, Impact*) was to evaluate the usefulness of multimedia applications for teaching and for learning, and to provoke pedagogic discussion:

> "explore and assess the ways in which multimedia, as a tool, can change the nature of language learning and generate new types of teaching practices"

The method adopted (presentation of applications developed by the leaders and evaluation of the CD-ROMs by the participants) above all confirmed the various points quoted above: thus one participant felt, without doubt a little severely, that very few products found favour with the participants, most applications being inappropriate for use in the classroom. Indeed, although the participants rapidly understood that the language didactic programmes are essentially accompanying products and as such difficult to use in frontal teaching, and that the use of the CD-ROM in the classroom is not capable of generating interaction and communication in the classroom, what the workshop seems not to have succeeded in showing, unlike Workshop 19/1996, which focused on the same subjects (*Media, Multimedia and Training. Diversification of Learning Resources and Contexts*), is that the "general public" CD-ROMs can provide genuine pedagogic potential.

These findings nevertheless gave rise to productive debate, the conclusions of which are set out in the participants' reports. They also gave rise to an inevitable feeling of frustration that led the participants to invest their energies in the related workshops dedicated to writing with the assistance of an authoring programme (Polygraphe) or to use the Internet, and the leaders to consider setting up two workshops devoted to these topics (Workshop 15/1997 on the use of authoring programmes for teaching and learning, and Workshop 3/1998 on the use of the Internet as a communication tool in the language classroom).

Workshop 19/1996 (*Media, Multimedia and Training, Diversification of Learning Resources and Contexts*) "chose to focus on "general public" multimedia, i.e. products that were not explicitly pedagogic" (C. Develotte, Workshop 19/1996, *Media, Multimedia and Training, Diversification of Learning Resources and Contexts*).While, as Marie-José Barbot, coordinator of the workshop, explained, the objective was also "to provide analysis tools for multimedia, the implications of their use on the learning context and on teacher training", the originality and value of this workshop was to consider the use of general public multimedia in the context of the audiovisual media. I have sufficiently emphasised the need to take into account the complementary nature of audiovisual technological tools (television, video and multimedia) and on the importance of "authentic" documents for language learning (cf. Workshop 15/1997, *From the Authentic Video Document to Multimedia Hypertext. How to design and use specific pedagogical materials for language teaching and learning*) such that there is no need to emphasise the importance of such an approach.

The reports indicate that participants were more sensitive than in the preceding workshop to the potential provided by general public CD-ROMs. Nevertheless, they

criticised the excessively theoretical approach of the workshop, made worse by the insufficiency of the material and the fact that the coordinators made little use of the technological tools. This latter point is not to be neglected in that it merged with criticism of the entirely French composition of the coordinating team and involved a problem of communication:

> "Unfortunately, one problem occurred. Most of the overheads were in only one of the working languages. The coordinator and her co-animators did not use PowerPoint or Uninet in the plenary sessions. The French preferred some old fashion theoretical lectures that did not always fit into our new technologies. Especially the Internet was not satisfactorily demonstrated. There was also a shortage of « hands on » in the workshop."

Nevertheless, this latter workshop still constituted an indispensable complement to the preceding training courses and a basis for serious reflection for subsequent workshops.

4.2 1997 –Testing and evaluating pedagogical methods

The two workshops organised in 1997 were the result, on the one hand, in the field of audiovisual media, of the need to "assess the discussion on a specific terrain" (Workshop 5/97), and on the other hand, in the new context of teaching/learning foreign languages created by a multimedia environment, by the desire on the part of the participants to play a more active role (Workshop 15/97). These two training courses were thus part of the follow-up activities of preceding workshops (1/96 and 10/96 respectively). In this respect, they constituted a practical continuation of the initiation and presentation activities from the preceding year. The topics addressed in the various workshops set up in 1996 were taken up again and developed against a background of the testing and evaluation of the pedagogical methods.

4.2.1 Audiovisual testing exchange

Workshop 5/1997 (Jean-Noël Rey, Audiovisual Media and the Teaching of Modern Languages. Stage II –Testing and Evaluating Methods (*5/1997*) was set up in the field of audiovisual media as a direct continuation of Workshop 1/96. It was based on an exposition and evaluation of the experiments carried out from January 1996 to March 1997 by three research groups set up on the occasion of the preceding workshop (half of the participants in Workshop 1/1996).

> "This work specifically represented an attempt to integrate into language teaching the audiovisual media in the form of modules conceived to facilitate the comprehension of the spoken language and to encourage both oral and written exploitation." (Jean-Noël Rey, Final Report, October 1997, p. 22)

The integration of new participants, apparently, played a positive role since their viewpoint provided the feedback necessary for the evaluation of this work which, in turn, according to Jean-Noël Rey, "inspired the newcomers to take new points of view":

- Application of multimedia to language teaching
- The learning of less common languages
- The use of video at primary school
- Study of the non-verbal element in communication

Despite the reservations expressed at the end of Workshop 1/1996, it is apparent that the restructuring and the involvement of the participants guaranteed the success of this workshop, as can be judged by the reports (cf. Zoltan Poor (Hungary), *Video Applications in Teaching Modern Languages in Eastern and Central Europe*).

A seminar for finalising the projects and products (Stage III) was organised at Trégastel (Côtes d'Armor) in France from October 17 to 24, 1997. Although the reports refer to the difficulties related mainly to problems of compatibility between Mac and PC, they above all emphasise the importance and the quality of the multicultural exchanges that this seminar permitted.

4.2.2 Redefinition of the role of the teacher of modern languages in a multimedia context

Workshop 15/1997 (Guy Arquembourg, From the Authentic Video Document to Multimedia Hypertext. How to design and use specific pedagogical materials for language teaching and learning) was set up, as we have already seen, in reply to the demand by the participants at Workshop 10/1996 who desired an active and creative role in the context of teaching and learning involving the integration of technologies. We should like to point out the particular effort made to achieve a multicultural European composition of the team, capable of responding to the different needs of the participants (Guy Arquembourg, France; Milan Hausner, Czech Republic; Irmeli Kaustio, Finland; Violeta Tsoneva, Bulgaria; and Klaus Conrad, Malta).

The aim of the workshop was to generate a discussion on the future of the communicative approach and on the concentration on the learner, while insisting on the dual need:

- to preserve the teacher's autonomy and to encourage him to play an active role while using the huge possibilities provided particularly a) by authoring programmes and b) by the Internet;

- to use the school textbook, television, multimedia, Internet, … coherently while profiting from the specific nature of the complementary tools for teaching and learning the language (grammar and culture) and for facilitating communication.

The novelty of this workshop was the encouragement of the use of an authoring programme by the teacher as well as by the learner in situations based on constructivist theories of collaborative learning (Deutsch 1949, Vygotsky 1978, Slavin 1983).

As co-ordinator of this workshop, I insisted on the importance of what I call the heuristic role of audiovisual technologies, and in particular of hypermedia, in the creation of language awareness:

> "Multimedia hypersystems now provide the learner with a double opportunity to explore the language (written/oral) while assisting him/her with visual data (pictures, video sequences) likely to facilitate the process of awareness. They allow the teacher/designer to direct the learner's attention in order to make him/her notice forms. They are based on a heuristic approach which encourages the learner to reflect on the relation between meaning and form as well as on the difference between the target language and his/her own language". (Arquembourg, 1997)

It was in this spirit that the leaders presented a certain number of applications developed on the basis of easy-to-use authoring programmes (Polygraph, PowerPoint, Teleste Partner Tools, Internet Odyssey and Hyperstudio for Macintosh). The accent was on:

- The usefulness of these tools for the development by the teacher of tasks within the framework of frontal teaching and tutored or even autonomous learning.
- The creation of multimedia hyper-documents by the learners
- The various roles that these strategies imply for the teacher (from teacher to "language advisor").
- The coherence of the pedagogical approaches that integrate didactic and authentic documents and make use of a wide variety of aids and technological tools.

These pedagogical and methodological considerations were developed and discussed at the theoretical level within the framework of the communications provided by the leaders. The articles published by the latter were distributed to the participants together with an exhaustive thematic bibliography (works in English and French) prepared by

the coordinator (cf. Appendices). All this data is to be found on the CD-ROM that was produced at the conclusion of the training course.

At the practical level, the participants were given the task of evaluating, in groups, the authoring programmes presented by creating an application within the framework of a pedagogical project of their choice that integrated didactic (textbooks) or authentic (TV, press, …) aids. One group devoted itself to the creation of a pedagogical application using the resources of the web with the assistance of the *Frontpage* computer programme. Although certain participants regretted having to choose a single computer programme, the group nevertheless realised that these tools provided similar possibilities and that the choice of the computer programme was less important than the definition of the pedagogical objectives justifying their use. The presentation-summary of the work, carried out on the last day by the reporter from each of the groups, enabled a demonstration of the particular features and any possible weaknesses of the various programmes. Most of this work can be found on the CD-ROM, which has been made available to the ECML.

The participants almost unanimously appreciated the balance between theory and practice, and their comments underline the interest of an approach that encourages the teacher to enrich the traditional language course through the addition of materials that he has developed, while recognising the importance of a "technological culture" that permits the teacher to profit from the benefits provided by ICT:

> "As teachers commonly supplement their course books with home-made material made from sources such as newspapers, television etc. it is relevant that they know how to exploit the advantages offered by the computer."

(While at the same time regretting the perverse effect of the presentations that encouraged the participants to produce a "finished" document to the detriment of the exploration of the potentials of the computer programmes.)

The presentation of the potential of the Internet and the remarkable work carried out by the "Frontpage" group that Klaus Conrad (Malta) agreed to lead convinced the participants of the benefits of using the resources made available on the web for the preparation of pedagogical materials. As a result, Klaus Conrad agreed to organise a workshop dedicated to the use of the Internet in the language classroom.

4.3 1998 – New communication tools and new teaching/learning strategies

The emergence and the development of the Internet and of remote communication tools have clearly given rise to a need to which the leaders of the preceding workshops

attempted to respond. During 1998, the ECML hosted two workshops dedicated to the use of the new communication tools, in particular the Internet, as a means of improving the teaching and learning of modern languages.

4.3.1 For a dynamic use of the Internet

Workshop 3/1998 (The Internet as a communication tool in the modern language classroom. Developing strategies for effective implementation of the Internet as a communication and information tool. Klaus Conrad) insisted on the need to introduce and encourage the use of the Internet in the language classroom, and aimed at initiating the participants in the use of electronic mail and web authoring tools.

This workshop fell within the framework of the structure of Workshops 19/1996 and 15/1997 (described above), to which it represented a continuation, and was itself followed by a workshop (7/1999: Information and Communication Technologies and the Internet in the Process of Teaching and Learning Reading and Writing in the F.L. Classroom, coordinated by Waltraud Schill). It should be noted that this snowball effect was due to the desire of certain participants to become involved beyond the workshop: Klaus Conrad (Malta), coordinator, and Milan Hausner (Czech Republic), co-animator, had both participated at the first workshop and acted as co-leaders at the second. Waltraud Schill (Austria) and Dionissius Vavougios (Greece) had become involved as participants in the "Frontpage" project of Workshop 15/1997. The constitution of this multicultural team was made possible by the establishment of a network as a result of Workshop 10/1996 (cf. Chapter 5).

The pedagogical concerns that dominated the set up of this workshop were as a result very close to those of the preceding workshop:

- to initiate the participants in the use of authoring programmes to enable the teacher and the learner to draft hypertexts and create web pages.
- to combine the use of the Internet with that of traditional media.

In the definition of the objectives, the coordinators also insisted in the dynamic use of the Internet, too frequently considered as a mere source of information, and in particular on the opportunities provided in the communication sector. To this purpose, the focus was placed on the practical and concrete aspect, namely the creation, by various groups, of a website and the development of a project involving teachers, students, and ICT instructors from different countries of Europe who were committed to applying themselves to a cooperation in the future.

The comments by the participants show that this workshop largely met their expectations. Reflecting a view shared by all the participants, one participant

acknowledged that, although she decided to participate in this workshop because of her experience in the field of the use of the ICT in distance teaching, this use had been limited to a "static" use, "an old exercise in a new (IT) coat". While regretting that there was insufficient time to apply the project at the level of direct communication, she emphasised the pedagogic interest of a group project such as the one in which she participated within the framework of the workshop:

> "Making a website in the language classroom is a good way to use the foreign language. A website may not be 'direct communication' but it opens up opportunities for communication! Pupils can make a website about a topic and 'ask for' reaction on this topic from pupils from other countries. The preparation of such a website leads to also communication as students have to work in groups and communicate with each other. It is not one way, teacher-pupil traffic."

The importance of the potential offered to teachers through the use of the Internet did not escape the attention of the participants who, after experiencing the opportunities of on-line communication (free electronic messaging service (hotmail), forum (ICQ chats)), were eager to apply these methods with their students.

> "The relevance of this workshop to my daily work as a teacher can hardly be overstated. The immense potential of this medium in the teaching of English as a foreign language is self-evident. It offers a unique chance to use the language for real in authentic situations, in communicative interaction with students from other parts of the world."

Within the framework of the workshop, the participants were initiated in web page creation. Nevertheless, these pages were conceived on an experimental site made available (provisionally) by Microsoft (http://195.12.193.78). Consequently, they can no longer be consulted and the project can no longer be pursued under this form. It is to be regretted, particularly with respect to dissemination, that these pages are not on the ECML site.

4.3.2 Towards new methodological concepts

Workshop 13/1998 (*The Use of Technology Enhanced Language Learning [TELL] in Vocationally Oriented Language Learning [VOLL]*, Anthony Fitzpatrick) also decided to involve the participants in productive activities, including the creation of web pages. However, this course was part of the VOLL (Vocationally Oriented Language Learning) workshops organised since 1991, and it was therefore from this specific point of view that Anthony Fitzpatrick intended to evaluate the use of the new media.

> "It has become more and more evident that proficiency in modern languages forms an important element of a more general competence necessary for working successfully in modern industry and commerce. A competence which enables employees to work together and communicate with colleagues in different countries and move freely across national boundaries." (1998, p.2)

For Bernd Rüschoff, the development of information technologies and its effects on our society constitute a major challenge for teaching and learning. If, as he suggests by reference to Pierre Lévy, we are developing into a "knowledge society" where information is omnipresent and more accessible than ever, this information must be processed if it is to be translated into knowledge. This inevitably leads to a questioning of the use of new technologies whose potential is far from being fully exploited within the framework of the teaching and the learning of languages:

> "… traditional skills of information gathering and storing as well as the mere learning of facts will no longer be sufficient in order to live, work and learn in the coming centuries. Consequently, the ultimate aim of teaching and learning will be to assist learners in their need to develop strategies of knowledge retrieval, production and dissemination." (1998, p. 11)

This point of view explains the resolutely cognitive-constructivist approach of the workshop as is displayed clearly on the theoretical level in the article by Bernd Rüschoff (1998, Appendix 1, p. 11-28). Under the pretext of proposing a number of "reflections on the new concepts of language learning methodology related to the new technologies in what is now being called the post-communicative age" (our translation), Bernd Rüschoff clearly redefines the fundamental notions of learner autonomy, authentic materials, learning strategies,… and proposes a typology of computer programmes, didactic programmes and authoring programmes… ! We can only subscribe to this presentation that echoes the approach advocated in Workshop 15/1997 as far as concerns the need for a redefinition of teaching/learning strategies and concepts, and consequently of the roles of the learner and of the teacher:

> "Focus should no longer be on the development of teaching materials, the terms learnware and learning materials need to be the guiding principle of materials' development, particularly in view of the fact that the core competence of 'learning to learn' is an important issue when discussing pedagogical, teaching and learning concepts for the future… Learners need to be regarded as partners in a process of learning not as mere recipients of instruction or tuition in the traditional sense. And teachers must redefine their role as that of an advisor and moderator or facilitator of learning, as has been pointed out repeatedly over the past years." (1998, p. 12-13)

The methodological approach advocated by Bernd Rüschoff within the framework of vocationally oriented language learning (VOLL) corresponds entirely with the concerns that we expressed previously (15/1997). The methodological principles that he proposes, and in particular the integration of technology in a "multi-modal" learning environment, correspond item for item with those that we had set out.

In the field of professional methods, it goes without saying, as Bernd Rüschoff emphasises, that mastery of the procedural skills is essential. If technologies are to facilitate acquisition, it is vital that they are used in terms of their specific nature and their potential. It is in this context that Bernd Rüschoff suggests that the use of traditional language learning programmes (CALL) should be reconsidered and attention given to those tools capable of facilitating the learning process (TELL) within the framework of constructivist methods. As most important of these tools, he advocates, as we had done within the framework of Workshop 15/1997, the use of authoring programmes for teaching and learning in the same terms ("easy-to-use" authoring material) for the same objectives: "for the creation of tasks which focus more on strategy building and a development of language awareness" (cf. Arquembourg, 1996), and this within the framework of cognitive-constructivist learning strategies, a reminder of our own work in this field (cf. Arquembourg, 1996, 1997):

> "…learners are encouraged to use the system as a tool to put together their own multimedia and hypertext dossiers in the context of learning projects." (Bernd Rüschoff , 1998, p.19)

The website created within the framework of the workshop shows, at the practical level, the importance and the quality of the contributions by Bernard Moro, who initiated a group for creating web pages and then the creation of a site, and by Andreas Lund, whose group created a virtual environment ("pedagogic labyrinth"). The reports by these leaders show that the technical difficulties and the resulting lack of time did not permit a deeper pedagogical discussion to the extent that they would have desired: Andreas Lund emphasises the need for a discussion on the role of the teacher ("the teacher as interface") and regrets that this essential question did not receive the treatment it deserved:

> "I would say that the group succeeded in making a rich environment, but that we did not succeed to the same extent in illuminating the complex role of 'the teacher as interface' […] Still, I am convinced that this question should be addressed over and over again. Teachers all over the world will find themselves in learning environments that demand new skills, new ideas, new didactics." (1998, p.37)

Once again, this concern is allied with ours. It is not an exaggeration to think that all the training courses made available in the field of ICT will remain to no avail if they do not lead to a redefinition of teaching concepts and the role of the teacher. Given the vocation of the ECML, this question should be a major element in the policies for future training.

Moreover, if, as Andreas Lund comments, the workshop at least enabled a group to reflect on its own teaching methods, another vital question still remains. The existence of the GRAZVOLL site, which can be accessed from the home page of the International Certificate Conference site (http://www.icc-europe.com), and its operation confirm the success of the workshop. The coordinators assumed responsibility for completing it and have created links to their own sites (Bernard Moro, http://artic.ac-besancon.fr/lycee_xavier_marmier/ and Andreas Lund, http://home.sol.no/~anlun). In addition to the description of the workshop and the work carried out by the different groups, the participants thus have a space for expression and communication. However, Bernard Moro's efforts to keep the site alive unfortunately seem to have been to no avail: to date, there is no trace of visits to the site by the very persons who created it.

5. Beyond the workshop: the follow-up activities

Such a finding might give rise to a certain degree of scepticism, all the more in the light of the fact that, as all the workshop coordinators and co-animators are aware, it is difficult to maintain lasting contact with the participants following a workshop. Nevertheless, it is possible to consider that, paradoxically, this form of contact is not necessarily useful or indeed desirable since it does not necessarily imply a will to propagate the skills acquired during the training course. It is precisely this transfer that constitutes dissemination, and it is without doubt preferable to see the participants create their own website at the end of the workshop.

It goes without saying that in the absence of contact it is difficult to evaluate the importance and the quality of this dissemination. As a means of measuring the impact of the training courses and the dynamism that they are capable of generating, the only tools at our disposal are the reports and other documents addressed to the ECML and any correspondence sent to the leaders of the workshops following the training courses.

The documents addressed to the ECML essentially relate to the decentralised follow-up activities organised within the framework of the training and financed by the ECML. This is the case, for instance, for the modules set up following Workshop 1/1996 which allowed the participants to regroup at different locations to focus on specific projects (English, French and Russian) in order to prepare the second workshop (5/1997). These

activities helped to "weld" the groups together and, according to the report, to set up a network (coordinated by Marianne de Wolf, Netherlands).

Other documents report on conferences, seminars, experiments and even training courses for teacher trainers set up by the participants in their various countries. Practically all of them were produced by participants from eastern Europe and, depending on the case, requested the support of the ECML or presented reports on the development of the conditions of technology use. This correspondence, just like the correspondence addressed to me following the workshops, shows, whatever the context and the difficulties encountered, a dynamism and a real desire to invest efforts. One participant invites the reader to visit the website he has created, and other reports on progress achieved:

> "We've just bought Windows NT server and now we have a real computer classroom with 8 computers in a network and we have an access to Internet. We work with students (ages 7 to 18) and also adults. Children ages 10 – 15 have joined the Kiflink project – Kidcafé School Internet and now they have keypals in more than 10 countries around the world […] All this work was initiated by the European Centre for Modern Languages."

The participants have become involved in a variety of projects depending on the workshops in which they participated. Thus, following Workshop 19/1996, the participants divided into four working parties on specific projects:

- the setting up of a self-instruction centre
- the production of an Internet user guide for language teachers
- the production of standards for the pedagogic exploitation of multimedia
- the intercultural approach in the teaching of languages by multimedia

Information concerning the state of these projects today would be very useful to the ECML.

The continuations of the first workshops devoted to the use of authoring programmes and the Internet (2/1996, 10/1996) are more easily traced since, as we have seen, these workshops led various participants and leaders to set up other training courses (15/1997, 3/1998 and even, more recently, 7/1999: *Information and Communication Technologies and the Internet in the Process of Teaching and Learning Reading and Writing in the F.L. Classroom*, coordinated by Waltraud Schill, who herself had participated at the preceding workshops).

At the same time, these links and this coherence were made possible by the establishment of a network at the initiative of Klaus Conrad (Malta) and Milan Hausner

(Czech Republic) following Workshop 10/1996. The server made available to the participants by Klaus Conrad on the site http://www.matlanet.omnes.net/citeduc/ecml/ allowed considerable exchange of information between the participants. In addition to the hosting of the web pages for the ECML, links were also established to other sites such as:

- http://web.mit.edu/fendt/Public/WWW/Europarat/Workshop96.html: created by Kurt Fendt (co-leader of Workshop 10/1996)
- http://www.cml.plym.ac.uk/research/ (David Bickerton, RAPIDO Project)

As we have already shown, these exchanges facilitated the organisation of subsequent workshops, which in turn encouraged certain participants to create their own web pages or indeed their own sites. It is important that the latter inform the ECML of these initiatives. This is the case, for instance, for Vassilis Hartzoulakis, who suggests visiting the site http://users.forthnet.gr/ath/vasdor/index.html created following Workshop 3/1998. A link to this workshop allows his students to participate in the project in which he is involved. Another link concerns a second project conducted in collaboration with Violeta Tsoneva (Bulgaria) within the framework de I*EARN (http://www.iearn.org/iearn/Chattanooga98.html).

Although as a result of various changes, some of these sites are no longer accessible, it is nevertheless possible to measure generally the degree of involvement and initiative on the part of the participants in the follow-up activities initiated by the ECML.

6. Discussions and recommendations

While all the workshops, as we have seen, proceeded according to a coherent progression dictated by the needs related to the rapid and recent development of information and communication technologies, it should also be noted that the connections between the problems indicated common concerns with respect to the pedagogic implications of ICT on the communicative approach and on the idea of learner-focus, as well as on the role of the teacher.

Starting from the common hypothesis that the communication and information technologies now provide a range of resources and tools that can only enrich the teaching and learning of foreign languages, each of the workshops insisted on the need to make the teacher of the foreign language autonomous by allowing him to acquire the technical and methodological mastery of these tools.

An important role was obviously given, in all the training courses, to the observation and analysis of processes and to the evaluation of tools and products with the aim of:

- developing evaluation criteria for these products and applications;
- defining the learning mechanisms and specific strategies for using tools and media

All the workshops gave priority to practical group activities, and the majority insisted on the need to engage participants in production work (videos, multimedia hypertexts, web pages, …).

Although these activities were proposed as a response to a need that had been clearly expressed by the participants, they are nevertheless based on the hypothesis that practical application allows:

- the validity and feasibility of the theories (language awareness, learning by doing, inter-activity, cooperation,…) to be tested in an ICT-assisted teaching/learning context.
- the participants to become aware of the pedagogical implications of the use of ICT in teaching/learning situations.
- the role of the teacher to be questioned.

In each workshop, the exchange of experiences was encouraged and indeed organised (during the training course or as part of the follow-up) in order to initiate European projects or to create networks suitable for exchanges and dissemination, and to provoke institutional decisions.

All the workshops held from 1996 to 1998 thus undeniably responded to a dual technical and methodological expectation, related directly to the technological developments of recent years. The earnestness with which the participants followed the courses and their involvement in the follow-up activities justify our assumption that the objectives corresponding to the hypotheses expressed above were generally achieved. It is true that, in their reports, the participants invariably regret the shortage of time. It can be considered that this feeling of frustration is inevitable, and indeed positive kin that it most frequently concerns expectations at the level of pedagogical discussion. However, it will have to be taken into account, since the rapid development of technologies, far from facilitating the task of the teacher, demands new skills as well as adaptability.

Thus, without doubting the judgement of foreign language teachers or their capacity to integrate a variety of technological tools, the diachronic organisation of the workshops emphasises to a certain extent the trend effect that is produced by the development of communication technologies. In the age of the digital, the Internet and planetary communication, there is a real temptation, deliberate or not, open or not, to consider the use in the language classroom of television and video as out of date.

Workshops 19/1996 and 15/7 particularly insisted on the *complementary nature* of the media and on the need to take into account the *diversification of leaning resources and context*. From a pedagogic point of view, it is indeed essential to emphasise the importance of the contributions of all of these tools:

- at a communication level (communication between learners/with the outside world);
- in the context of learner-focusing (group tasks/tutored learning, …).

These considerations naturally lead to two essential points that ought to be included amongst the priorities for future training courses:

(1) The **definition of the role that the foreign language teacher** will increasingly be expected to play in the context of teaching/learning based on the use of a variety of resources and tools. This question, which was raised at a number of workshops, specifically at the workshops cited above, should be the subject matter of particular attention, given the current developments:

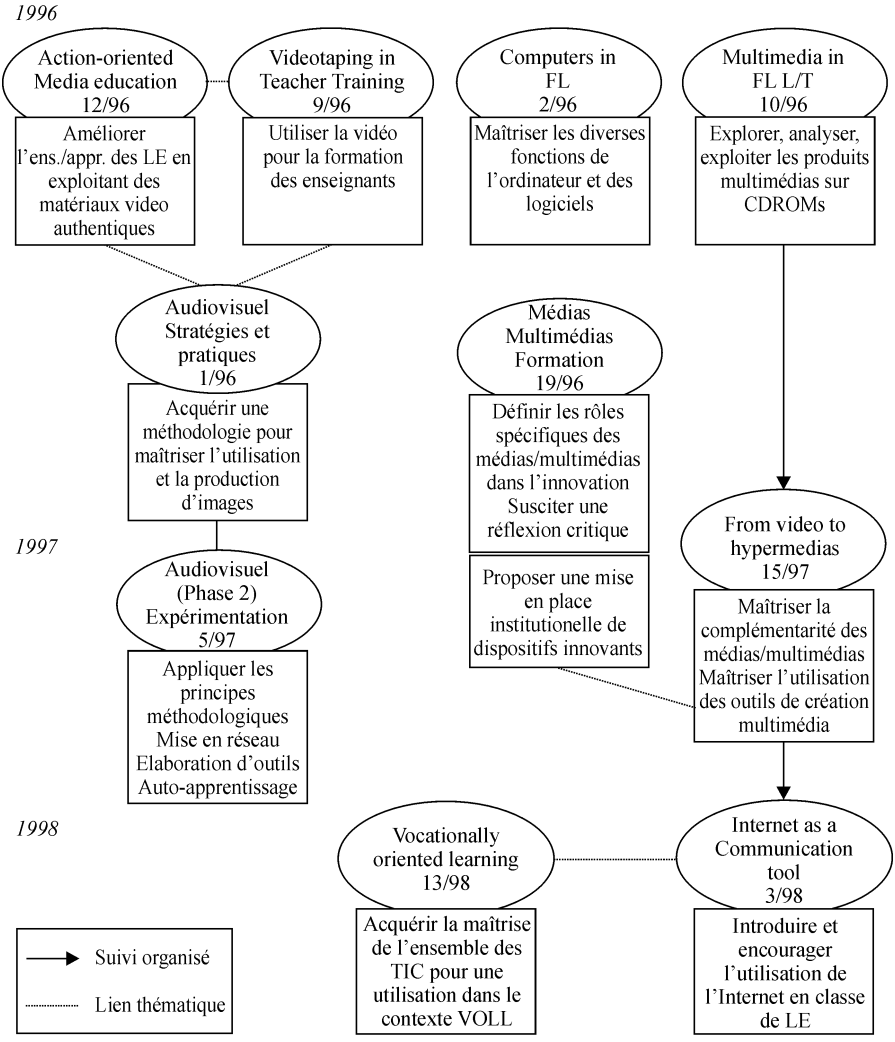
- The **rapid development of multimedia laboratories or rooms and "language centres"** is today posing new questions about the role that learners and teachers of languages will be expected to play in the teaching and learning process. Thus the notions of ***frontal teaching***, ***tutored learning*** and ***autonomous work*** are already generating new needs for training related to the use of multimedia language laboratories.
- The variety of technological tools and the specific nature of the various pedagogic materials from which they derive are making the tasks of the language teacher more and more complex. Training courses on the pedagogical use of these tools, although indispensable, can no longer suffice: in the future, they will need to **integrate a discussion on the conditions of their use in a coherent context** "from the piece of chalk to the computer", according to specific pedagogical strategies, from communication activities to constructivist problems…

(2) At the same time, this reflection should be accompanied by the **implementation of evaluation procedures for ICT-assisted teaching/learning**, rendered necessary by the advanced state of the works carried out at the ECML in the field of educational technologies and the projects initiated within the framework of the various workshops.

Taking into account the increasing use of the Internet and the importance of the ICT, particularly for follow-up work and dissemination, as shown by certain of the examples described above, it would be desirable for the ECML site to present **the achievements**

made in the training course and to propose **links to sites that might have been created following the courses**. At present, it is not possible to know the works carried out in this field within the framework of the workshops, nor to communicate with the participants and leaders of these workshops.

PROGRAMME DES FORMATIONS



(Figure 1)
Liste des ateliers consacrés à l'utilisation des TIC

7. References

Arquembourg, Guy. "Designing Multimedia Hyperdocuments : A new means to teach and learn languages ? " *in New Technology, Better Aviation English Communication and Training ?* Sixth International Aviation English Forum. Centre for Applied Linguistics. Université de Franche Comté. Paris, April 24th-25th 1997

Arquembourg, Guy. "Hypermedia and teacher autonomy. An example of the exploitation of a document televised to the general public, "By car in the tunnel", in *Outils multimédias et stratégies d'apprentissage du Français Langue Etrangère*. Studies collected by Yves Chevalier for Ateliers, University of Lille III. 1996

Arquembourg, Guy. "Video documents and multimedia hypersystems. New means of promoting language awareness". *Association for Language Awareness Third International Conference* (Dublin - July 4-6, 1996)

Arquembourg, Guy. *Workshop N°15/97. Report : From the Authentic Video Document to Multimedia /Hypertext. How to design and use specific pedagogical materials for language teaching and learning.* Graz : ECML,1999.

Barbot, Marie-José. *Workshop No 19/96.* Report: Media, multimedia and training, diversification of learning resources and contexts. Graz : ECML, February 1997.

Bickerton, David & Woodruff, S.W. "The challenge of Hypermedia for Language Learning", University of Glasgow, 1993.

Boocz-Barna, Katalin. "Relevance of problem solving for the decoding of visual information in learning in German as a foreign language teaching" in *Jahrbuch der ungarischen Germanistik*, ELTE, 1995.

Boocz-Barna, Katalin & Balassa, Katalin. *Workshop N°9/96. Report : Einsatz von Videoaufzechnungen in der Lehrerausbildung. Using Videotaping in Teacher Training.* Graz : ECML, September 1996.

Broady, Elspeth. "Old Technology, New Technology : Video makes a Come-Back" in *Compendium on New Technologies in Modern Language Teaching*. Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

Compte, Carmen. "Professor looking for authentic video document … " in *Etudes de linguistique appliquée*, n°58, *Vidéo, didactique et communication* (coordonné par Jean Mouchon), Didier érudition, Paris, April - June 1985

Compte, Carmen. *La vidéo en classe de langue*, Hachette éducation, Paris, 1993, 141 p.

Conrad, Klaus. *Workshop N°3/1998 . Report: The Internet as a communication tool in the modern language classroom. Developing strategies for effective implementation of the internet as a communication and information tool..* Graz : ECML, 1999.

Deutsch, M. "A theory of co-operation and competition" in *Human relations*, 2(2), 129, 1949.

Fitzpatrick, Anthony. *Workshop No°13/1998 . Report: The Use of Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL) in Vocationally Oriented Language Learning (VOLL.)* Graz : ECML, November 1998.

Furstenberg, Gilberte. "When pedagogy encounters technology" in Le Français dans le Monde, n° spécial Recherches etb applications, 1988.

Furstenberg, Gilberte. *Workshop N°13/1998 . Report: Multimedia and Hypermedia in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching : Nature, Role, Impact.* Graz : ECML, June 1996.

Ginet, Alain (Ed). From the language laboratory to the multimedia classroom, Nathan, Paris, 1997.

Jones, G. "Designing a new self-access centre" in *English Studies, 10*, The British Council, London, 1993.

Koczian, Nora & Magyarics, Peter. *Workshop N°12/1996 . Report: Action-Oriented Media Education in Foreign Language Teaching.* Graz : ECML, April 1997.

Kramsch, Claire. *Context and Culture in Language Teaching*. Oxford: O.U.P. 1993.

Lancien, Thierry. The video document in the language classroom, CLE international, Paris, 1993.

Lancien, Thierry. "Current problems in the use of audiovisual media in foreign lanugage learning" in *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* No.° 94, Didier Erudition, April – June 1994.

Lancien, Thierry. The television news. Construction of information and interpretation skills, coll. CREDIF essais, ed. Didier, Paris 1995

Legenhausen, Lienhard. *Workshop N°2/1996 : Computers in the Foreign Language Classroom.* Graz : ECML, June 1996.

Legenhausen, Lienhard & Wolff, Dieter. “Working with concordances” in Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht (Vol. 4), October 1991 (24-29)

Legenhausen, Lienhard & Wolff, Dieter. "STORYBOARD and communicative Language Learning : Results of the Dusseldorf CALL project" in Swarz, M.L. & Yasdani, M. (Eds) *Intelligent Tutoring Systems for Foreign Language Learning : the Bridge to International Communication*. Berlin : Springer, 1992 (9-24).

Linard, Monique. Machine and Man. Learning with new technologies, Editions Universitaires, Paris, 1990.

Little, David & Brammerts, Helmut (Ed). *A guide to language learning in tandem via the Internet*. CLCS Occasional Paper n°46, 1996.

Oudart, Pierre (Coord.). “Multimedia, networks and training” in *Le Français dans le monde*, n° spécial Recherches et applications, July 1997.

Papert, Seymour. Discovering the child and the machine. Rethinking school in the age of the computer Dunod "Société", 1994.

Porcher, Louis. *Télévision, culture, éducation*, A. Colin, 1994.

Rey, Jean Noël. *Atelier N°19/96. Rapport : Audiovisuel et Enseignement des Langues. Stratégies et pratiques de lecture, d’exploitation et de production de vidéogrammes.* Graz : ECML, April 1996 (Trad. *Audiovisual Media and Language Teaching. Strategies and methods of understanding, using and producing videos.* Graz : ECML, September 1996).

Rey, Jean Noël. *Workshop 5/97, Final report: Audiovisual media and the teaching of modern languages. Stage II – experiments and evaluation of methods.* Graz: ECML, October 1997

Rüschoff, Bernd. "The 'Intelligence' of Intelligently Programmed Adaptive CALL Materials for Self-Study" in *System* 14, 1986.

Slavin, R. *Cooperative Learning*. New York: Longman 1983.

Vygotsky L.S. *Thought and languag*e, MIT Press, Cambridge, 1962, (trad. *Pensée et langage*, Messidor, Paris, 1985).

Appendix

Workshop	Title	Problems addressed
Use of audiovisual tools		
N°1/96 Jean Noël Rey	Strategies and methods of understanding, using and producing videos	Methodological and cultural difficulties The lack of mastery of – data processing grammar – and triangular interaction. Foreign language TV = precious resources, but: – selective use (news, adverts), – generalising approach
N°5/97 (Phase 2) Jean Noël Rey	(Stage II – Testing and evaluating methods)	Expérimentation et évaluation de pratiques pédagogiques
N°9/96 Katalin Boocz-Barna Katalin Balassa	Using videotaping in teacher training	How to train teachers to the use of video in language classes The use of video in teacher-training sessions
N°12/96 Nora Koczian Peter Magyarics	Action-oriented media education in foreign language teaching	Status of modern media: – Natural part of the lives of learners – Experience gained from TV – Model for interpreting events = challenge for schools (real life/classroom)
Use of computer tools		
N°10/96 Gilberte Furstenberg	Multimedia and hypermedia in foreign language learning and teaching: nature, role, impact	Dedicated to participants who have little exposure to this new technology
N°2/96 Lienhard Legenhausen	Computers in the foreign language classroom	Need to introduce the use of the various tools into the FL classrooms
Use of new media		
N°19/96 Marie-Josée Barbot	Media, multimedia and training Diversification of learning resources and	New information and communication technologies: high stakes for language learning, but:

Workshop	Title	Problems addressed
	contexts	– lack of critical reflection on the place and role of new information and communication technologies; – lack of reflection
N°5/97 Guy Arquembourg	From the authentic video document to multimedia hypertext How to design and use specific pedagogical materials for language teaching and learning	Lack of interest for editing products on CD-ROM evaluated as being unsatisfactory; Need to use technologies to create pedagogical materials; Risk of a loss of interest in authentic video documents
Use of the Internet		
N°3/98 Klaus Conrad	The internet as a communication tool in the modern language classroom Developing strategies for effective implementation of the internet as a communication and information tool	Necessity to introduce and encourage the use of the Internet in FL classrooms. Enable the participants to master the use of e-mail, ICQ and WEB authoring tools
N°13/98 Anthony Fitzpatrick	The use of technology enhanced language learning (TELL) in vocationally oriented language learning	Necessity of a general competence enabling employees to work together and communicate with colleagues in different countries and move freely across national boundaries

Intercultural awareness

Anne-Brit Fenner

1. Introduction

The aim of this thematic collection is to present the work initiated on intercultural awareness by the European Centre for Modern Languages through workshops and activities linked to these. This will be discussed under the following headings: definitions, key issues, initiated projects, comments and recommendations made by facilitators and participants.

The procedures, discussions and results of each workshop have been documented in reports, the aim of which is to summarise the work and outcome of the workshop as well as further actions which are envisaged by the co-ordinating team and/or the participants.

Cultural/intercultural awareness has been one of the central issues in the work of the ECML from 1995 onwards. A series of workshops have been held on the topic, some of which have been a follow-up of New Style Workshop 13 A and 13 B initiated by the Council of Europe in this field. Most workshops have focused upon cultural/intercultural awareness related to other topics, such as language awareness, learner autonomy, multiculturalism, multilingual education, materials design and curriculum development. The main sources of material for this thematic collection are a number of workshop reports and additional material submitted by co-ordinators, reports on network groups, proceedings of the 2nd colloquy of the ECML and some recent ECML publications which are the result of networking groups.

1.1 List of workshops

The following pages give an overview of ECML workshops and subsequent activities in the field of cultural/intercultural awareness that have taken place at the European Centre for Modern Languages within the period of 1995-98:

(Number of workshop/year/title/co-ordinators and co-facilitators)

Teacher Training for Multicultural and Multilingual Education (2/1995): Hans-Jürgen Krumm, Gisela Baumgratz, Michael Byram, Michael Legutke.

Languages and Learning in Multilingual Schools – Creating a Network for a Teacher Training Curriculum (15/1996): Maaike Hajer, Josef Huber, Hans Reich.

Language and Cultural Awareness in Language Learning/Teaching for the Development of Learner Autonomy, 'Awareness for Autonomy: The Missing Links' (3/1997): Michael Byram, Antoinette Camilleri, Josef Huber.

Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence in Foreign Language Teaching: Curriculum Planning and Policy (13/1997): Michael Byram, Christopher Wightwick, Colin Williams, Leah Davcheva.

Réaliser et conduire un projet éducatif européen (16/97): Eva Kelemen, Tamás Lajos, Anna Butašova, Eckhart Hötzel.

Establishing Principles and Guidelines for Publishers and Authors of FL Textbooks in the Context of the Aims of the ECML (17/97): David Newby, Olga Afanasyeva, Anne-Brit Fenner, Julja Komarova, Natalya Kuznetsova, Ruxandra Popovici

Fremdsprachendidaktik für Grenzregionen (19/1997): Albert Raasch, Ruud Halink, Armand Zimmer.

The Specifications of Objectives for Learner Autonomy and Cultural Awareness within Syllabus Development at Secondary Level (5/1998): Antoinette Camilleri, David Newby, Berta Kogoj, Albane Cain.

Methods for Facilitating Communicative Competence in a Multicultural Society (7/98): David Newby, Dževahira Arslanagić, Rod Bolitho, Mireille Cheval, Renate Faistauer, Christian Lavenne, Adila Pašalič-Kreso

1.2 ECML publications on cultural/intercultural awareness

Byram, M. and Tost Planet, M. (Eds.) (2000) *Social Identity and the European Dimension: Intercultural Competence Through Foreign Language Learning.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fenner, A-B. and Newby, D. (2000) *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fenner, A-B. (Ed.) (2000) *Cultural Awareness and Language Awareness Based on Dialogic Interaction with Texts in Foreign Language Learning.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

2. Intercultural awareness – Definitions

It can be seen from the above workshop titles that only one workshop uses the term 'intercultural' (Workshop 13/97). In the others a variety of terms are used in connection with culture: Multicultural and Multilingual Education, Language and Cultural Awareness, Intercultural Communicative Competence, Cultural and Intercultural Awareness, each of which reflects a different orientation to this complex topic. It is necessary, therefore, first to give consideration to some basic terms and to explain the different ways of looking at the subject of intercultural awareness, the term used in this résumé.

2.1 The four 'savoirs'

Most of the work conducted on intercultural awareness at the ECML is based on Michael Byram's definition of the four 'savoirs'. At Workshop 3/97, where a model of intercultural competence is drawn up, he presented and explained them in detail as follows (Workshop Report, p. 5):

- savoir: knowledge of self and other, knowledge of interaction
- savoir comprendre: skills - interpret and relate
- savoir-être: attitudes - relativising self, valuing other
- savoir apprendre/faire: skills - discover and/or interact

These 'savoirs' are often referred to in later workshops and also form part of the classification adopted by the Common European Framework of Reference where they have been developed further. This is how the 'savoirs' are presented in the 2001 edition of the Framework (p11 & 101ff):

- savoir - declarative knowledge, which includes: knowledge of the world, sociocultural knowledge, intercultural awareness
- savoir faire - skills and know-how, which includes practical skills and know-how and intercultural skills and know-how
- savoir être - 'existential competence'
- savoir apprendre - ability to learn

Knowledge about the foreign culture has always been required when learning a new language. Aims and objectives for developing skills for interacting with the foreign culture have also been part of curricula in most European countries since the introduction of a communicative approach to language learning, as they are essential to developing communicative competence. The focus on the third category, savoir-être, has increased during the 1990s, and is important when we talk about intercultural

awareness. It is therefore interesting that the 2001 edition of the Framework includes intercultural awareness in the first category, 'savoir' or knowledge, and still has a separate 'existential competence'. Hopefully this will lead to an increased focus upon intercultural awareness, although it is more difficult to implement in teaching programmes than the other components, because it is not something that can be taught and it is hard to assess. It does, therefore, cause a problem that it now appears in a category with components that *can* be taught. Teachers as well as learners might revert to the old misconception that developing intercultural awareness will be an automatic result of gaining cultural knowledge rather than a learning process that requires conscious reflection upon such knowledge. Developing awareness is an aspect of foreign language learning which the learner has to take charge of himself. Teachers are, however, of vital importance when it comes to organising learning situations and mediating the individual's learning processes in order for the learner to develop intercultural awareness.

2.2 Cultural or intercultural?

Although only one workshop includes the term 'intercultural' in its title (Workshop 13/97), this does not necessarily indicate that the other workshops deal with cultural awareness as something different from intercultural awareness. As early as 1995 the term 'intercultural' is used during the workshop which is specifically related to intercultural communicative competence (Workshop 2/1995: 9). Although the workshop report refers to 'developing strategies that enable learners to explore the target culture' (p. 8), a sentence which suggests that an interrelationship between the two cultures is not given emphasis, Michael Byram's contribution during the workshop clearly deals with such an interrelationship.

In many ways the development from the term 'cultural' to 'intercultural' shows a development of the view of culture in FLL, away from a focus solely on the foreign culture towards regarding it as an interrelationship between two cultures: one's own and the other. This development is in some ways reflected in the workshops which this thematic collection deals with, although the titles do not indicate this.

Another dimension to the topic is found in a study related to the development of the *Common European Framework of Reference*, in which the authors challenge the assumption that the ultimate aim of language learners is to become indistinguishable from native users:

> '… language learners should not be trained as *ersatz,* native speakers, but should develop as intercultural personalities, bringing the two cultures into relation and becoming more mature and complex people as a result'. (Byram, M., Zarate, G. and Neuner, G. 1997)

This dimension derives from the view that in order for learners to step back and reflect on a culture different to their own, they have to be aware of the culture of which they are an integral part. Awareness of differences as well as of similarities between the native culture and the target culture is of vital importance for developing intercultural awareness. The fact that the above quotation talks about personal development is indicative of some of the aims of foreign language learning: that it aims at something more than producing proficient speakers of the target language. Seeing intercultural awareness as an integral part of learning a foreign language indicates that one of many aims is the development and enrichment of the student's personality: This is a dynamic process, as stated by Fenner in the report of Workshop 17/97 (p 25):

> 'While learning a foreign language, the learner will bring his own culture into the communication process with the foreign culture, whether it is in reading a foreign text or in speaking to a representative of that particular language community. With regard to intercultural awareness this must be seen as an interdependent relationship between cultures which constitutes an enrichment for "self" as well as the "other".'

In Workshop 3/97 Michael Byram introduces the concept 'intercultural speaker' or 'locuteur culturelle' in order to describe FL learners as 'interlocutors involved in intercultural communication and action' (p. 4). He states the importance of developing critical thinking 'about one's own and other cultures and their taken-for-granted values and practices' (Workshop Report 3/97: 10)

In her contribution to Workshop 7/98 'Perspectives on cultural awareness in education in Bosnia and Herzegovina' Marina Katnić-Bakarsić also stresses the intercultural dimension in a quote from the Common European Framework:

> 'Knowledge, awareness and understanding of the relation (similarities and distinctive differences) between the "world of origin" and the "world of target community" produce an intercultural awareness. It is of course important to note that intercultural awareness includes an awareness of the regional and social diversity of both worlds.' (Workshop 7/98: 29)

The last sentence underlines the fact that each culture is diverse and thus it points to a frequent misconception by learners of foreign languages: that both target and mother tongue cultures are uniform entities. Such a misconception is often the basis for stereotyped views of the foreign culture.

Katnić-Bakarsić's contribution states an additional important issue when dealing with intercultural awareness:

> '… Cultural Awareness does not imply uncritical acceptance of the other's culture. It is not an idealistic, idyllic state of mind: on the contrary, Cultural Awareness implies an open and critical attitude towards one's own culture and towards the culture of others, without stereotypes.' (Workshop 7/98: 31).

Although the term 'intercultural' means 'between cultures', the term must not be understood as not belonging to either. It might be seen as a term in many ways parallel to 'interlanguage', where 'inter' involves both our own language and the foreign language, or in this case, our own as well as the foreign culture. Our own culture is already an integrated part of our identity by the time we start learning a foreign language. To be aware of our own culture means that as learners we can and should make use of the knowledge of both cultures in the learning process. The realisation that both cultures are dynamic forces rather than static entities is part of the process of developing intercultural awareness.

The term 'Other', or 'Otherness', has frequently been used in the workshops on intercultural competence. These are philosophical and psychological concepts (Zarate, Cain, Fenner) and do not necessarily refer to a speaker of a foreign language or a member of a different language community. In philosophy they also refer to the stranger within ourselves (Ricoeur 1992, Kristeva 1991, Falzon/Foucault 1998, and others). They are, however, useful terms as far as intercultural awareness is concerned, because our emotional reactions in encounters with the foreign culture are often similar to our reactions to encounters with what Kristeva calls 'the stranger within ourselves'. As learners of a foreign language, we have to become aware of these reactions and attitudes, which Foucault defines as the attitudes of the oppressor. In order to become familiar with the unknown, i.e. to communicate with the Other, a willingness for personal change is required; prejudice and stereotyped views have to be overcome.

It is a fallacy when teachers believe that learning a foreign language in itself enhances tolerance. Stereotypes and stereotyping of the 'Other' are obstacles in foreign language learning and intercultural awareness can only be developed fully if these stereotypes are made visible and worked on at a conscious level through various processes, like interpreting, relating, comparing, completing etc. (Workshop 3/97, Camilleri 2000.) This is a matter which has been dealt with in some of the workshops (Workshop 5/1998) and some of the publications. (Byram, Neuner & Zarate 1997, Byram 2000, Fenner & Newby 2000)

2.3 Awareness

Cultural knowledge and cultural competence, which are defined as aspects of communicative competence, can be taught as part of FL courses. Awareness, however, is not a skill which can be taught; it has to be developed by the learner him/herself.

Most of the workshops deal with intercultural *awareness* rather than competence. While cultural competence is a skill - what Byram calls 'savoir faire' - awareness is a metacognitive term referring to attitude: 'savoir être' (Workshop 3/97). It is a process of reflection which is based on understanding and which in Ricoeur's words 'extends our existence' (Ricoeur 1969: 11)

Awareness is defined by Antoinette Camilleri as follows :

> 'Awareness is the ability:
>
> - to step back and reflect
> - to honestly evaluate what you are doing, and
> - to do so in a rich, collaborative, problem-solving environment.' (Workshop 5/98: 25)

Awareness is not of course limited to cultural awareness but can apply to other aspects of language learning, such as 'language awareness', 'awareness of one's own learning styles and strategies' etc. Its relevance to our topic implies a more learner-oriented view of learning about, interpreting and understanding culture than was the case in traditional teaching, where it was often presented as a series of facts about a different culture which were to be learnt as items of knowledge by the learner, as opposed to the gradual development of an ability to reflect on, and evaluate manifestations of one's own as well as another culture.

In Workshop 3/97 Josef Huber refers to awareness as the 'missing link' in FL learning (p. 2) and defines it as 'a meta-cognitive reflection on language, culture and learning processes:

> '…it is only awareness that, in connection with cultural phenomena, can lead from a rather superficial attitude and perception often attributed to tourists to a semblance of understanding of what another culture is really about.' (p. 11)

Developing intercultural awareness is not a teaching method, but a learning process, and, as stated in some of the workshops, a life-long process. It is, however, a process with fairly specific aims, as will be seen in the following section.

2.4 Aims of cultural awareness

There is no single aim of developing cultural awareness in the framework of foreign language teaching and learning and underlying this aspect of learning may be a variety of aims. Referring to the advisory group working on the Welsh Curriculum, Michael

Byram states that "Cultural awareness should lead learners to:

- Appreciate the similarities and differences between their own and cultures of the communities/countries where the target language is spoken
- Identify with the experience and perspective of people in the countries and communities where the target language is spoken
- Use this knowledge to develop a more objective view of their own customs and ways of thinking"

In recent years there has been a broadening of the aims of cultural awareness to include all three of these areas. In particular, a wider acceptance of the general educational aims of developing tolerance and understanding have led to a stronger focus being placed on the category of savoir-être. This emphasis is clearly apparent in the introduction to the theme of workshop 5/98, where Antoinette Camilleri quotes from the conclusions and recommendations of New Style Workshop 13B (Malta 1996: 147) on what is needed to incorporate intercultural awareness into our teaching:

> 'In addition to the development of the learners' communicative competence, modern language programmes in schools should aim at developing their progressive independence of thought and action combined with social responsibility, as well as their acceptance of and respect for the cultures of other peoples… Acceptance should be based on knowledge, understanding and appreciation. This aim involves analysing, and where appropriate, questioning the learners' own culture as well as the culture of others.'

It is not easy to incorporate this view of intercultural awareness into our teaching. In her survey article on Cultural Awareness, Fenner sums up the dilemma:

> 'It is a fallacy to believe that we can reach a point where we will be able to understand 'the other' completely. We do not even understand ourselves and our own culture to such an extent. But in the foreign language classroom it is important to open up for a variety of encounters with the foreign culture and provide possibilities for reflecting individually and in a social context upon these encounters. This also means reflecting upon the multiplicity of meaning that exists in any culture and which can be made potentially available through various types of texts'. (Fenner & Newby 2000)

3. Key issues

In the workshops cultural awareness are treated in different contexts. This section of the thematic collection will, through presentation and discussion, focus upon specific

aspects of cultural awareness according to the various contexts that emerge from the workshops, from papers delivered by co-ordinators and from the publications which have been the result of networking groups.

3.1 Intercultural awareness and multilingual education

Workshop 2/1995 was the first to focus on multilingualism and a multicultural Europe. Being able to speak more than one foreign language is claimed to be a key component of European identity and a precondition for a European future. Inherent in the definition of Europe as a multilingual society is the necessity to be aware of its facets as a multicultural society and to include this awareness in teacher training programmes. In order to develop individual and social multilingualism and multiculturalism, a systematic approach is needed and neighbouring languages and cultures should be given more focus. In his in-put session Hans-Jörg Krumm suggests that partial competence in many languages could replace the aims of a comprehensive communicative competence in just a few. The workshop also gives examples of various approaches to developing cultural awareness in a European context.

Workshop 15/96 also focuses on the fact 'that all countries in Europe are faced with the gradual evolution towards multilingual societies', a trend which 'is reflected in the schools' (Workshop Report, p. 4). The workshop input looks into the status of various languages as well as existing language conflicts before concluding by calling for a change in educational policy, stated by Josef Huber:

> 'The future will have to think along different lines: the multilingual and multicultural challenge goes beyond additional courses in additional languages; it goes beyond bilingual education and it asks for a change in direction in language education policy based on quality vs. quantity and the development of meta-communicative competence.' (Workshop Report: p. 14)

In many ways this quotation sums up the main tenor of the workshops which concentrated on the issue of multilingualism and multiculturalism, whether they deal with communicative competence, teacher training, curriculum design, exchange programmes, or setting up European networks.

One of the workshops on multicultural issues deserves, however, to be mentioned specifically: Workshop 7/98 which was held in Sarajevo as part of an assistance programme for Bosnia and Herzegovina. This particular workshop can serve as an example of how sensitive multicultural issues can be and how important it is to take 'into account learning cultures, local conditions and the background of interculturality' (Workshop Report: p. 3). The following statement by Hans-Jörg Krumm in Workshop Report 19/97 underlines the responsibility of the individual in this respect:

> "Immer deutlicher wird die Notwendigkeit sichtbar, dass der Einzelne sich mit dem Fremden, dem Anderen auseinandersetzen muss, mit ihm kommuniziert, mit ihm kooperiert, sich in fremde Kulturen integriert." (p. 4)

3.2 Intercultural awareness and language awareness

Intercultural awareness and language awareness cannot be separated, as they are two aspects of the same phenomenon. Language is always an expression of culture. Communication takes place in a cultural context, and both speaker and listener are cultural beings. The level of their communicative competence is therefore dependent on cultural awareness as much as on linguistic awareness.

As stated earlier in this paper, Workshop 3/97 sees awareness as the 'missing link' in education, and Josef Huber's input states the importance of language awareness being introduced into the educational system, not only in foreign language learning, but also in L1 teaching.

The relationship between L1 and FL teaching and learning is a research area where much work remains to be done. If we accept Byram's term 'the intercultural speaker', we have to focus on awareness of not only our own culture, but also of our own language and the relationship between this and the foreign language. Meta-cognitive reflection on language is a prerequisite for developing intercultural awareness.

3.3 Intercultural awareness and learner autonomy

Since the initial New style Workshops 13 A and 13 B, autonomy has been linked to cultural and language awareness, a link which has been maintained in subsequent workshops. (Workshops 3/97, 17/97 and 5/98) When these topics have been linked, co-ordinators have treated each topic separately and have left it up to the participants to link them in practical work and networks following the workshops. Even when both topics have been part of a workshop, co-ordinators have tended to treat each topic separately and left it up to the participants to establish connections between them in practical work and networks following the workshops.

As stated previously, Josef Huber points out in Workshop 3/97 that the link between the two is awareness. Developing awareness of learning can assist the development of intercultural awareness. In order to fully understand the foreign culture, it is necessary to have knowledge and awareness of one's own. One of the central aspects of learner autonomy is to become aware of what we already know and from there decide what the next step in the learning process is. This individual meta-cognitive reflection is also required in the process of developing intercultural awareness. Because awareness

cannot be taught, but is something the learner has to take charge of him/herself, principles of autonomous learning can be helpful in the mediation process which is necessary for developing intercultural awareness within the educational system.

3.4 Intercultural awareness and teacher training

As can be seen from the list of workshop titles at the beginning of this thematic collection, many workshops are concerned with some aspect of teacher training. If the work carried out during and after the workshops is to have any influence on teaching and learning, it needs to be specified as aims and objectives in teacher training programmes. Although it is a slow process, the best way of changing classroom teaching is by incorporating innovative ideas into pre-service and in-service training, and pre-service teacher training seems to lead to the most effective changes in a long-term perspective.

Several projects set up after the workshops dealt with in this paper are intended to influence teacher training. In most countries it takes time to change educational policies, and it is important that participants at workshops are teacher trainers and curriculum developers who can influence these policies.

The move from a content based and skills based cultural curriculum to one which also includes aims for developing intercultural awareness requires a change in both attitude and approach to teaching foreign languages. Meta-cognitive reflection has to gain a more prominent place in teacher training programmes, not only as an aim for foreign language learners, but also as an aim for teachers and teacher trainers.

3.5 Intercultural awareness and curriculum development

Although many of the workshops have focused upon the implementation of cultural awareness into foreign language curricula in schools as well as in teacher training programmes, Workshop 5/1998 in Malta is the only one specifically aimed at syllabus development and curriculum design. During the workshop all the participants presented aspects of their national curriculum at secondary level and group discussions were conducted on syllabus design, based on input from the co-ordinators about general foreign language syllabus design as well as about specific intercultural projects carried out.

There is no doubt that the ECML workshops on intercultural awareness and the work carried out by the Modern Languages Division of the Council of Europe have influenced European curriculum developers in this particular field, but in many countries the traditional view of culture as a body of knowledge, to which is added

requirements of socio-cultural competence, is prevalent. Articles submitted to the ECML by Pauli Kaikkonnen point out a different approach to developing an aspect of cultural awareness in curricula by stressing the importance of intercultural learning in the whole curriculum, not only in foreign language learning syllabi. (Kaikkonen 1996)

In many ways it is difficult to include awareness in a curriculum, especially if the curriculum consists of detailed syllabi for foreign languages. Awareness is also difficult to assess in examinations. As classroom teaching is greatly influenced by examinations, work on intercultural awareness is to a large extent ignored in the classroom. At the moment valuable work is being carried out by the Modern Languages Division of the Council of Europe as far as assessment of cultural competence and awareness is concerned. Because of the influence on all teaching by exams and assessment, criteria for assessment is of vital importance in order to establish intercultural awareness as an integral part of foreign language learning and not only as a wishful by-product of teaching and learning the language.

3.6 Intercultural awareness and materials design

Several workshops on cultural awareness have touched upon materials design when focusing on examples of how to develop learners' awareness of their own and the foreign culture. One such example was Leah Davcheva's presentation of the Bulgarian project in Workshop 13/97. This project, supported by the British Council, proves how successfully a network of teachers can develop a complete syllabus on cultural competence. An interesting fact, pointed out by Davcheva, is that during the project the participating teachers realised that the initial specification lacked an intercultural aspect and this was added during its development (Workshop Report: p.31).

Workshop 17/1997 in St Petersburg was focused solely on developing teaching materials for foreign language learning. The participants were mainly textbook authors and publishers. As most textbook writers have been or are teachers, the teaching profession was also widely represented. The purpose in bringing together textbook authors was to ensure that the outcomes of the workshop would influence materials production to some extent, as textbooks exert a strong influence on classroom teaching.

In the course of the workshop a set of guidelines were worked out by the participants concerning the three central issues in focus: authenticity, learner autonomy and cultural awareness. These were later published as principles and guidelines for teachers and materials designers along with annotated examples from a large selection of European textbooks. These served as examples of how these principles can be implemented in foreign language learning (Fenner & Newby 2000).

4. Initiated projects

One of the foremost aims of the ECML is to initiate follow-up activities after a workshop. By preparing the ground for such activities the ECML wishes to stimulate further discussion and development of the workshop topics among representatives of the member states. Dissemination activities are also regularly documented although the Centre very much depends on the participants' co-operation in this respect. Only if the outcomes of post-workshop activities are submitted to the Centre are they of benefit to interested persons or future workshop co-ordinators and participants.

Although a number of networks were set up after each of the workshops mentioned in this report, relatively few have materialised in the form of specific activities and publications. Feedback, however, shows that the workshops have influenced participants' teaching of various aspects of culture in the institutions where they work. In cases where participants have been teacher trainers, materials designers or curriculum developers, one must also assume from the feedback that training programmes, textbooks, curricula and syllabi in some respects have been influenced by new ways of thinking about culture and intercultural awareness in foreign language teaching.

Quite a few exchange programmes between schools and institutions of higher education have also emerged from the workshops, initiated by individual participants. Participants at university level have also submitted articles on intercultural awareness to international journals (Kaikkonen 1996 and 1997, Kaikkonen and Kohonen 1996). Considering the number of participants in all the workshops, there seem, however, to be relatively few projects which have survived the initial enthusiasm.

A large project was initiated by Michael Byram and Manuel Tost Planet after Workshop 7/1995 and a follow-up workshop in 1997 (Workshop 9/1997), supported by the Modern Languages Division of the Council of Europe. Although reports from these workshops are not included in this thematic collection, the project needs to be mentioned. Networks set up after the workshops resulted in a comprehensive publication: Byram, M. and M. Tost Planet (Eds.) *Social Identity and the European Dimension: Intercultural Competence Through Foreign Language Learning*. Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing (2000). The publication contains articles on teaching modules, teacher training modules and a section on methods and principles. A large number of people were involved in the experiments which resulted in the book.

After Workshop 17/1997 in St Petersburg, which was designed for textbook writers and publishers, the following publication was a tangible result: Fenner, A-B. and Newby, D. *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles*

of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness. Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing (2000). This publication presents a number of examples from European FLL textbooks based on principles of authenticity, cultural awareness and learner autonomy, developed by the participants during the workshop.

During Workshop 5/1998 in Malta for curriculum developers a number of networks were set up, but only one seemed to survive to produce an assessable outcome in the form of a publication on intercultural awareness: Fenner, A-B. (Ed.) *Cultural Awareness and Language Awareness Based on Dialogic Interaction with Texts in Foreign Language Learning*. Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing (2000). The articles in this publication focus on various types of intercultural dialogue and discuss intercultural awareness and language awareness from the point of view of the contributors' national as well as international academic cultures.

5. Comments and recommendations

In the first part of this section general comments from participants will be reported. The second part includes comments and recommendations by the writer of this thematic collection.

5.1 Participants' comments

Participants have given individual feedback on the contents and the organisational efficiency of the workshops, as well as on dissemination activities in their respective countries. In some cases, documents related to the workshop themes, such as articles and bibliographies, have also been submitted to the European Centre for Modern Languages and form part of its documentation of the activities on cultural/intercultural awareness.

Apart from certain technical problems in the first workshop, the participants' comments are overall extremely positive. They are not, however, always very useful for future work in that they often state how much the individual has enjoyed the workshop, but little else. The comments concentrate on different aspects, but, as one would expect, there are two basically conflicting attitudes inherent in the participants' views: some prefer the group discussions and the exchanges of experience which take place there, formally or informally, while others prefer theory which they can link to their practical experience.

It is a difficult task to satisfy both groups, but all the co-ordinators try to do so by organising the workshops so that they contain both theoretical input and discussions based on experience.

In their comments participants sometimes ask for more practical examples for the classroom. As intercultural awareness is not a teaching method, a fact that has been stressed in most of the workshops, it is difficult, or impossible, to present clear instructions for how to work on the topic. One can present examples from classrooms and other educational institutions, and this has been done in some of the workshops, but these are of little value unless they are linked to theoretical reflection. An example of classroom practice or of a successful international exchange cannot be transferred from one institution to another without being adapted to the theoretical framework within which learning and teaching are situated. Aims and objectives in foreign language learning cannot be formulated without a theoretical basis. As far as intercultural awareness is concerned, we are dealing not only with linguistic and pedagogical theory, but also with philosophy, psychology, anthropology, sociology and literary theory. Theoretical input from various perspectives and from experts in different fields of research is consequently necessary in order to promote change. Few teachers and teacher trainers are experts in all these fields.

5.2 Comments and recommendations for future activities

It is sometimes important and useful to work within a group of participants from a variety of professional backgrounds, as exchanges of ideas are inspiring in one's everyday work with foreign language learning and teaching. On the other hand, workshops can be more efficient as far as dissemination and national and international influence are concerned if some of the workshops cater for specific groups. Experts in their own specific field, like curriculum developers, textbook writers, publishers and teacher trainers have, at their various levels of the educational hierarchy, the means to influence education policies more directly than teachers in schools. Having said that, some of the outcomes of the workshops on intercultural awareness which have left visible traces in the form of follow-up workshops or publications are based on experiments in schools rather than research projects influencing curriculum development.

More so than with other central topics which the ECML has focused on, workshops on intercultural competence have, throughout the period we are dealing with here, been based on work done in previous workshops in order to follow up ideas and develop depth, not only width. From the content of the reports, however, it seems as if it has been necessary to start from scratch on certain issues, partly because of a relatively large number of new participants.

Although the ECML has been willing to support networking groups and other follow-up work financially, comparatively little has come out of the large number of networks which have started. Minor research and development programmes with specific aims

over a limited period of time seem to function better than large projects. Some projects could perhaps be more strongly supported and partly financed by national authorities, which do not always involve themselves in other ways than nominating new participants to the various workshops.

Although a lot of work has been carried out in the field of intercultural awareness, a great deal remains to be done. As stated previously in this report, relatively little research has been carried out in the field of cultural and linguistic aspects of the interrelationship between L1 and FL. Studying the mutual influence on the two languages in a FL learning process could provide interesting material on the development of the learners' linguistic and cultural awareness, related to both cultures and both languages.

A secure and permanent place and status for intercultural awareness in foreign language learning has not been established in either national curricula, teacher training, textbooks or the classroom. Within the area of cultural competence, assessment criteria have gradually emerged, partly because it is easier to formulate aims and objectives for a definite skill. To state aims for reflection and awareness is a far more complex matter, but not an impossible task.

6. References

Attard, P. A. (1996) *Language learning for European citizenship. Language and culture awareness in language learning/teaching (L2 and L1) for the development of learner autonomy (age 11-18)* (Report of Council of Europe Workshop 13B). Malta: Council for Cultural Co-operation.

Byram, M. & Zarate, G. (eds.) (1997) *The sociocultural and intercultural dimension of language learning and teaching*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing

Byram, M., Zarate, G., Neuner, G. (1997) *Sociocultural competence in language learning and teaching*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing

Byram, M. and M. Tost Planet (eds.) (2000) *Social Identity and the European Dimension: Intercultural Competence Through Foreign Language Learning*. Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Camilleri, A. (1999) *Introducing Learner Autonomy in Teacher Education.* Graz: ECML/ Council of Europe Publishing

Camilleri, A (2000) "The development of cognitive processes". In Fenner, A-B & D.

Newby: *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Falzon, C. (1998) *Foucault and Social Dialogue. Beyond fragmentation.* London and New York: Routledge.

Fenner, A-B. and Newby, D. (2000) *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy, Cultural Awareness.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fenner, A-B. (ed.) (2000) *Cultural Awareness and Language Awareness Based on Dialogic Interaction with Texts in Foreign Language Learning.* Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing

Fink, B. (ed.) (1998) *Modern language learning and teaching in central and eastern Europe: which diversification and how can it be achieved?* Proceedings of the Second Colloquy of the European Centre for Modern Languages, Graz 1997. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing

Heyworth, F. (1999) *Innovative Approaches to the Set-up and Organisation of Language Education: A preliminary study for the European Centre of Modern Languages, Graz*. Graz: ECML/Council of Europe Publishing.

Itterson, Ad (1997*) 'Intercultural Encounters in Border Regions' Report of Seminar 'Fremdsprachen – Grenzdidaktik'* (March 1997, Brno). *Graz: ECML.*

Kaikkonen, P. (1996) *Intercultural education as an integral part of the school curriculum and teacher education.* In: Niemi, H & Tirri, K. (eds.). 1996. Effectiveness of teacher education. New Challenges and Approaches to Evaluation, 115-126.

Kaikkonen, P. (1997) *Learning a culture and a foreign language at school – aspects of intercultural learning*. In: Language Learning Journal, March 1997, No 15, 1-5.

Kohonen, V. & Kaikkonen, P. (1996) *Exploring new ways of in-service teacher education: an action research project*. In: European Journal of Intercultural Studies, Utrecht 1996.

Kristeva, J. (1991) *Strangers to Ourselves.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Raasch, Albert (1999) *Foreign language teaching for border regions – preliminary study*. Graz: ECML.

Raasch, Albert (ed.) (1999) *Foreign language teaching for border regions. Concepts, Experiences, Suggestions.* Saarbrücken: Universität des Saarlandes.

Ricoeur, P (1969) *Le conflit des interprétations, Essais d'herméneutique*. Paris : Seuil

Ricoeur, P. (1992) *Oneself as Another.* Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.

Council of Europe (2001) *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching assessment*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, Modern Languages Division/Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Early language learning

Peter Doyé

1. Introduction

The purpose of this thematic collection is to inform interested readers – teachers, teacher educators, decision makers, curriculum developers, course writers and researchers – about the activities of the European Centre for Modern Languages in the field of early language learning during the period of 1995 to 2000.

The particular task of this résumé will be to summarize and evaluate these activities and thus make the most important results of the work available to as wide an audience as possible.

With one exception, the survey will focus on workshops which took place after the completion of the extensive project of the Council of Europe "Language Learning for European Citizenship" (1989 – 1996). The activities of the Centre in the field of early language learning can be seen as a sequel and consequence of the work done in that important project, the results of which were presented, discussed and unanimously accepted at its Final Conference in Strasbourg in April 1997. The products of the project strongly and positively influenced the work of the Centre insofar as they furnished a solid basis for all subsequent activities. This fact is clearly reflected in all the reports on the following workshops subsequently initiated and organised by the ECML.

In accordance with the recommendations of the Final Report of the Project Group (Trim 1997) the ECML undertook the task of disseminating information, continuing networking and holding further workshops. In the area of early language learning five workshops were held:

(Title of the workshop; place; number; coordinator; co-facilitators)

Note: The last two workshops have not received an "official" ECML number as they were regional workshops. For the sake of easy reference I have given them the designations 99A and 99B.

Understanding teacher development for primary schools. Graz 6/95. Marina Stros, Gail Ellis, Carol Read.

Towards common principles for European FL curricula for children of 9 to 11. Warsaw 1/97. Ewa Niezgoda, Peter Doyé, Opal Dunn, Stuart Simpson.

Foreign Language Education in Primary Schools – An International Concern to be implemented in National Contexts. Graz 1/98. Maria Felberbauer, Peter Doyé, Hanna Komorowska.

Early Language Learning: From Policy to Practice. Reykjavik. 99A. Jacqueline Fridriksdottir, Audur Torfadottir, Jayne Moon, Randi Lothe Flemmen.

The Introduction of European Languages in Macedonian Primary Schools. Struga 99B. Gilbert Dalgalian, Jean-Marc Caré, Peter Doyé, Lucija Cok.

In our survey we will try to summarize and evaluate these five workshops and all the activities directly linked to them. We will also attempt to excerpt the essential findings and insights gained through the cooperation of the assembled experts.

2. Definition

At the beginning of our survey it seems necessary to clarify what is meant by "Early language learning". In the past a lot of misunderstandings in international discussions have arisen from a lack of agreement about the exact meaning of the central terms used. "Early" is a relative term and has to be defined. Like its equivalents in other languages (French "précoce", German "früh", Italian "precoce") it contains the semantic components of **"**happening or done before the usual time or the time expected" (OALD, p.350). The relativity of the term results from the fact that what is usual or expected depends on the users and on the contexts in which they use it. It is not surprising therefore that at the beginning of all the workshops the participants felt the necessity for definition.

The obvious point of reference was the common practice in most European school systems, where foreign language teaching usually starts or started at the age of 10/11, i.e. at the beginning of secondary education; and as it is the essential characteristic of all reform programmes to change this practice and to begin the teaching of foreign languages before that time, it seems appropriate to mean by "early" any moment or phase before the usual period in traditional practice. Thus it was agreed to use the term with reference to educational institutions that are entrusted with and responsible for the education of children before they enter secondary schools, i.e. primary and pre-primary institutions. Fortunately, the meaning of these two terms had been defined right at the beginning of the previous Modern Languages Project "Language Learning for European Citizenship", so the danger of running into another difficulty could be avoided. The experts of the Council of Europe had come to an agreement about the contents of "primary" as covering the period between 5/6 and 10/11 and "pre-primary" covering the period between 3 and 5/6 years of age (Doyé & Hurrell 1997), - definitions that are now commonly accepted.

To conclude, it is important to mention that the activities of the ECML have so far almost exclusively concentrated on language learning in educational institutions and therefore left aside the issues and problems outside these contexts, e.g. in the family.

Ergo: **Early language learning** in this survey means **Language learning in primary and pre-primary educational institutions.**

Irrespective of these definitions, it has to be stated that all five workshops organized by the ECML dealt almost exclusively with language learning in **primary** institutions and referred only occasionally to language learning in **pre-primary** institutions. In view of the increasing importance of the latter in most European countries, the Centre might consider the possibility of extending its efforts to the issues of language learning in **pre-primary** education.

3. Rationale

Implicitly or explicitly, all the workshops under consideration started their reflections with the basic question of justification: why is it desirable to start foreign language learning and teaching early? Because of the importance of the question and the role it played in the discussions of the five workshops, our survey has to start with a - necessarily – short treatment of this question.

The necessity of teaching at least one foreign language to every European citizen is so obvious that there remains hardly any doubt about its justification. The liberating value of stepping outside one's own culture and one's own language has long been recognized in educational philosophy and the competence to communicate in more than one language has become an accepted postulate of modern educational theory. Therefore all national educational systems in Europe provide the opportunity for their citizens to acquire at least a basic communicative competence in languages other than their own.

But why should such acquisition be of necessity a part of **primary education**? Why should foreign language learning become a constituent element of all European primary school curricula?

The participants of the five workshops were realistic enough to see that - in contrast with the general acceptance of the necessity of offering foreign languages to all pupils - no common agreement has yet been reached in the teaching profession as a whole about the desirability of making foreign language learning a constituent part of the primary school curriculum. Moreover, quite a number of teachers and educationists wish to stick to the older practice of starting foreign language education with the beginning of secondary education.

Therefore any programme for foreign language education at the primary level must contain a clear rationale which comprises the principal theoretical arguments from relevant schools of thinking. Such arguments fall into four categories and stem from four scientific disciplines:

- Developmental psychology
- Neuro-physiology
- Anthropology
- Pedagogy

3.1 Developmental psychology

From the early days of research in our field the programmes of investigation contained a good deal of psychological argumentation. Researchers turned to developmental psychology as the discipline directly concerned with the changes in people's dispositions and behaviour, and wanted to learn what this discipline had to offer.

Arnold Gesell was one of the first psychologists who gave an answer to the question of when to introduce foreign language learning into the school curriculum:

> "The young child below the age of 10 enjoys language experience. He is ready to learn, to listen, to communicate by word of mouth, in playful and dramatic situations. With favorable motivation he is emotionally amenable to a second and even a third language." (Gesell 1956)

While Gesell stressed the **emotional** disposition for foreign language learning, Frances Ilg emphasized the **intellectual** readiness of young children. She described these children as "group-minded, expansive, and receptive. At this age, when expansion and imitation are at their height, the child can under favorable conditions be expected to learn a second language with a rush." (Ilg 1956)

In the decades to follow many educational psychologists have subscribed to Gesell's and Ilg's statements and agreed that there is a critical period in the development of human beings, during which the acquisition of foreign languages is particularly effective. According to their findings, this period lies definitely before the age of 10 (Cohen 1991), and therefore foreign language learning should begin in the primary school. Most participants seem to have relied upon such statements. In at least two of the five workshops the discussions focussed for some time on the question "How Children Learn" and came to conclusions similar to the ones just mentioned (Stros 1995; Fridriksdottir 1999).

However, there is also considerable opposition to this kind of argumentation from psychologists who call it "simplistic". Their counter-argument is this: Human dispositions at a certain age cannot determine by themselves when an ability such as communicative competence in another language is best acquired. They merely have the function of making such an acquisition possible. It is the environment - mainly the educational environment - that is the final decisive factor. A representative of this more critical position is the Swiss psychologist Hans Aebli (Aebli 1974, p. 182).

In recent years Singleton has re-examined the arguments from developmental psychology and has put the different positions in perspective. He comes to the conclusion that the **younger = better** position is only superior to the **older = better** position with a considerable modification, namely**: the younger = the better in the long run.** (Singleton 1989).

3.2 Neuro-physiology

The second argument is similar to the first, but it stems from another discipline. In their famous book "Speech and Brain Mechanism" (1959) Penfield and Roberts postulate a biological time-table for language learning on the basis of their exploration of the human brain.

They report that in cases of injury the human brain of individuals below the age of nine usually recovers completely. The implication of this is clear: the early plasticity of the brain is a capital that has to be exploited for second language learning.

> "For the purpose of language learning the human brain becomes progressively stiff and rigid after the age of nine ... Before the age of nine (...) a child is a specialist in learning to speak." (Penfield and Roberts 1959).

Later research has cast some doubt on this thesis. Van Parreren maintains that the physiological argument is weak, because it does not take into consideration the possibility that the early plasticity can be compensated for by the more highly developed learning strategies of the older child (van Parreren 1976).

His criticism is supported by a number of empirical studies (e.g. Ekstrand 1979). These authors deny the existence of an "optimum age" for beginning the study of a foreign language.

Larsen-Freeman and Long agree that there are "biological constraints on second language acquisition", but they cannot be interpreted in such a way that after the so-called critical period language learning must be ineffective (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1990).

3.3 Anthropology

The anthropological argument has a better foundation than the two preceding ones. It starts from a principal human characteristic: the individual's openness at birth. This openness enables him/her to acquire a great variety of social, cultural and linguistic norms. For the new-born child anything is possible. However, socialisation normally forces the individual into one particular society, culture and language, and during this process of integration and adaptation the original openness gets lost. Habits are developed, reinforced and consolidated and they restrict the potential infiniteness. The originally open human being becomes a monocultural, monolingual person.

There are anthropologists who maintain that it is a basic task of all education to prevent this process of restriction from taking too firm a hold on the child. They argue that this necessary process - a fixation, one might call it - must not go so far as to prevent the individual from experiencing and acknowledging other ways of life, and they believe that foreign language education is a good means to this end. It was a central idea in the work of the German philosopher Wilhelm von Humboldt, who regarded different languages as expressions of different world views, that if human beings needed the capacity of looking at the world from more than one point of view, then the learning of more than one language was required. In recent years Humboldt's followers have taken up this argument and postulated that foreign language study should be used more consistently as a medium for the reconstitution of a pluralistic world view.

This claim is implicitly an argument for an early start of FLE, if one takes into consideration that the fixation process described above is a continuous process and that in all likelihood one can more successfully avoid its negative effects, the earlier one begins working against them.

3.4 Pedagogy

The argument just delineated certainly contains pedagogical aspects, but it is not originally an educational one; and nor are the two others. A valid educational argument must proceed from the present situation of European children and from the task of the school to help them develop the attitudes and competences they need to master this situation. However valid the three preceding arguments might be, the statement that an introduction of foreign language learning into the primary school makes psychological, physiological and anthropological sense is not enough. Such an introduction must be seen to be educationally necessary as well.

A lot has been said and written about this educational necessity and it will therefore suffice to sum up the main ideas and to underpin them with a quotation. The educational logic is this: the world has changed. Children meet members of other

ethnic and speech communities more and more often and have to be prepared for these encounters. Therefore they need communicative competence in another language fairly early. And if, as psychological and physiological findings tell us, they possess the necessary dispositions for the competence needed, then it is an obligation for educators to help them achieve such competence.

A quotation from one of the great early protagonists of FLE in the primary school, H.H. Stern, that was cited again and again during the workshops expresses this logic in all clarity:

> "The acquisition of a foreign language must become part of the basic literacy of the child on a par with reading and writing. It is argued that the traditional point of view of primary education as vernacular education is unrealistic, because even by a narrow definition of bilingualism at least half of the world's population is bilingual; and in any case everyone lives in a world in which many different languages are spoken and therefore it is not defensible to create through education a rigidly monolinguistic setting. If education is to reflect the realities with which we have to live, other languages and other cultures should impinge on children from the earliest stage of formal education." (Stern 1969, 26)

Additional support for the argument has derived from a consideration of the function of primary education. In the educational policy of most European countries, the primary school is considered as an institution that has to lay the foundations of all subsequent learning. National curricula speak of *educación básica, Grundbildung, basis onderwijs* and they all assign the primary school the task of creating a basis upon which further learning can be built. If foreign language teaching is accepted as one of the main subject areas, its foundations must also be laid in the primary school.

4. The key issues

On the basis of a common understanding of the delineated rationale, the participants discussed the specific topics of their respective workshops. But beyond the special concerns of each workshop, a number of key issues appeared again and again, which can be said to represent the essential areas of discussion in the field of early language learning. They are mainly of an organizational and methodological nature and thus represent the commonly accepted state of the art. Educational theory in Europe has reached a stage where the question is no longer **whether**, but **how** foreign languages can be taught and learnt at the primary level.

The discussion concentrates on six issues that can be expressed in the form of dichotomies, each of which represents a theoretical opposition. In practice, teaching

will often follow a path that lies somewhere between the opposing concepts; but the dichotomies can nevertheless serve as the cornerstones of a framework for the individual approaches and can help teachers in their orientation.

The six dichotomies are:

Integration	vs.	separate subject
Systematic course	vs.	occasional teaching
Language learning	vs.	linguistic and cultural awareness
Communicative competence	vs.	Sensitization
Class teacher	vs.	subject teacher
Part of the core curriculum	vs.	optional activity

4.1 Integration vs. separate subject

This first dichotomy refers to the **position** of the foreign language in the curriculum. Will it be integrated into the existing areas of the curriculum or treated as a separate subject? The advantages of the latter solution are that it provides for a clearly definable linear teaching programme with its own body of contents and its own distinctive objectives. But it has the definite disadvantage of separating the foreign language from all other areas of teaching and thus violating an important principle of primary education: the holistic approach to learning. The numerous adherents of this approach therefore favour the first solution: an integration that allows children to relate the foreign language to concepts about the world that they already possess or are actually acquiring through their mother tongue. This solution enables the teacher to make various connections: between the foreign language and practically all other fields of learning, whether in the area of mathematics, social and environmental studies, expressive arts or the study of the mother tongue. In its strongest version this teaching takes the form of **embedding**, where the foreign language is inserted into the traditional subjects whenever this is appropriate. Thus it is not taught as an additional subject, but as an added dimension of the existing ones.

The participants of the five ECML workshops clearly expressed themselves in favour of the integrative solution.

4.2 Systematic course vs. occasional teaching

As to the **organisation**, there are two alternatives: either to proceed systematically from the basic language items to more special ones, from easy to difficult, from simple to complex or to choose a more occasional approach and to teach the foreign language whenever the opportunity presents itself.

The above-described model of embedding contains the danger that the language is not taught systematically enough. The progression is topic-centred and the acquisition of the language can easily become a by-product. There is no pre-defined body of linguistic content and no built-in progression of vocabulary and grammar. On the other hand, the holistic organisation of teaching in the primary school is a definite asset and does not allow for a dominance of the principles of progression of one particular area of learning.

The obvious way out seems to be a compromise between the two alternatives. Although difficult to achieve, the best solution would be a coordination of content-based and language-based principles of progression. The experiences of bilingual education provide a good example, and certainly primary FLE can profit from an application of the notional - functional approach proposed by the Council of Europe (van Ek 1986), which attempts a logical deduction of the linguistic items to be learnt from the notions and functions that the learner has to acquire.

4.3 Language learning vs. linguistic and cultural awareness

The third dichotomy represents the **function** that FLE in the primary school is to fulfil. Should it be directed at language learning proper or should it serve the purpose of acquiring linguistic and cultural awareness? The advocates of the first alternative argue that a concentration on the essential part of language education, namely the foreign language, would benefit the learners most. The adherents of the second alternative maintain that linguistic and cultural awareness must logically precede language learning, which they would therefore assign to secondary education (see also Hawkins 1981).

In most European countries there is a tendency to combine the two functions and to avoid the promotion of one of the alternatives at the expense of the other. The experts – including those at the ECML workshops - seem to agree that the close relationship between language and culture forbids an exclusion of one of the two and that therefore the function of FLE cannot be the furthering of linguistic skills alone. It should try to contribute to the wider task of **intercultural communicative competence**. This competence has at least three dimensions, a pragmatic, a cognitive and an attitudinal dimension. Byram and Zarate speak of:

- savoir-faire (skills)
- savoir (knowledge)
- savoir-être (attitudes)

and they suggest that any foreign language teaching should comprise these three dimensions (1997). This general proposition applies naturally to FLE at the primary

school in particular (Doyé 1999). In the early projects, primary school teachers concentrated on developing the linguistic competence of their children. They aimed at a certain level of achievement in the basic skills such as listening comprehension and speaking and at a later stage reading comprehension and writing; and if the children were able to produce well-formed utterances in the foreign language and to understand such utterances, this was regarded as satisfactory. Little or no attention was paid to the cognitive and attitudinal dimension. But a better understanding of communicative competence and the changes in the political reality of our modern world have led to a different concept of the purpose of primary FLE.

For many young children contact with members of other cultures is no longer an event that might occur in the distant future, but an immediate possibility in their present-day lives. They actually meet people of a foreign culture with a foreign language and consequently have to learn to cope with the situations arising out of such encounters. The task of the school and of FLE in particular is to help them in their learning, i.e. in the acquisition of the required skills, knowledge and attitudes. Only through this unified approach can primary school teachers make their contribution to the intercultural education of their pupils.

4.4 Communicative competence vs. sensitization

The **aims** of primary FLE must be seen in close connection with the accepted functions of this education. Two opposing options are discussed and practised in different educational systems: the promotion of communicative competence up to a well-defined basic level and the sensitization for language in general and the language(s) to be studied in particular.

The advocates of the first option see primary FLE as the initial stage of a continuous process of learning, the purpose of which is to lay a solid basis for communicative competence. It profits from the readiness of young pupils to engage in various language activities and uses it for the establishment of a narrow solid foundation for future learning. Experiments have shown that – under favourable conditions – this approach can provide tangible results: the young learners acquired considerable basic communicative abilities in speaking and listening and thus gained a lasting superiority with regard to their peers, who started their first foreign language in the secondary school. One of the conditions for this superiority is, of course, **continuity**. The teaching at the secondary level is to be conceived and practised as a second phase of instruction that builds on the achievements in the first. On no account must the pupils be treated as beginners. Wherever, in projects of the past, the primary linguistic experience of the learners was disregarded, this had a strong demotivating effect. Such an effect can only be avoided through close cooperation between the primary and secondary school teachers.

The need for continuity is much smaller with the other option. As the principal aim is to sensitize children for the nature of language and linguistic phenomena in general and not yet to master basic representations in specific languages, there is no necessity for the secondary school to build on any previously acquired competence of the pupils.

The restriction to sensitization and the avoidance of language learning proper has, however, serious disadvantages. It neglects the potential and the readiness of young children for linguistic learning and does not consider the societal desirability for many citizens to acquire basic communicative competence in (at least) one foreign language at an early stage. The majority of the participants of the five ECML workshops therefore favoured communicative competence as the superordinate aim.

4.5 Class teacher vs. subject teacher

In the primary school, a class (or form) teacher is an educator who is responsible for the education of a whole class of pupils and therefore teaches all subjects to them. To put this person in charge of foreign language teaching too has an obvious advantage: she or he can integrate the new area of learning much better into the curriculum than a subject teacher, who meets the children two or three times a week to teach them the foreign language and nothing else. Using the former model it is easier to integrate holistic approaches to learning.

The reason why, in spite of all plausibility, many educational authorities hesitate to apply the class teacher model is that they consider foreign language teaching such a special subject that they do not want to entrust it to persons who might have a good general training, but no special preparation for the highly complex requirements of FLE. Therefore it is common practice in many countries to employ specialist teachers, often from secondary schools, to teach the foreign language. That most of them have no qualification for primary education is considered to be of less importance than a thorough preparation in their particular discipline. But in practice it is not. These specialists often find it difficult to communicate with young children appropriately and to adapt their teaching to the conditions of the primary school. The obvious solution is to organize courses of studies that provide a combination of primary education with foreign language pedagogy. The need is for teachers who are well qualified in both fields. As primary school experts, they are familiar with the conditions and the framework into which, as foreign language experts, they can integrate the language and culture of other countries.

However, a strict application of the class teacher model would mean that all primary school teachers would have to qualify for FLE as well, and serious doubts about the desirability of such an arrangement have been raised. These doubts have led some

critics to adopt the radical consequence conclusion of giving up the idea of an all-round teacher who is competent in all areas of teaching in the primary school and replace it by a more differentiated model. The concept of *moduli didattici* as practised in many Italian primary schools is the result of such reflections (Torchio 1999). A *modulo didattico* consists of a group of three teachers who are assigned to two closely associated classes in which they work as a team. Besides establishing new social relationships between teachers (team teaching) and pupils and teachers (the children can refer to three educators instead of one), the new arrangement offers clear advantages in terms of teacher competence. It intelligently combines the positive qualities of the two original options: the pupils have close contact to a small group of "reference figures" who are together responsible for their educational progress and they profit from the united competence of three teachers who – having intensively studied two subjects each – provide the required expertise in six areas of teaching. In practice, this means that FLE can be introduced into the primary school, even if only one third of the teachers are qualified to teach the foreign language.

4.6 Part of the core curriculum vs. optional activity

The sixth dichotomy is the least controversial of all as the case for including the foreign language(s) in the core curriculum is so strong: if FLE is of such great importance, as suggested above, then it must become part of the core curriculum; if it offers one of the essential educational experiences of primary school children, then it has to be included in the obligatory course of studies of all pupils.

The English word "core" is derived from the Latin word *cor* meaning "heart". Applied to the curriculum, it means those types of experience that are thought to be at the heart of the learning of all children in order to develop the competences required in their society. The logic is clear: intercultural communicative competence is needed for life in modern society. It can be acquired through foreign language education. Therefore this education has to become part of the core curriculum.

This logic is not new. It is inherent in the works of the protagonists of early foreign language learning from the beginning (e.g. Stern 1969) and it is present in all the relevant documents of the 1990s (e.g. Felberbauer & Heindler 1995). The only sustainable argument for making FLE an optional activity is that authorities of any democratic country should leave as many educational decisions to the discretion of the parents as possible. And if they make FLE part of the core curriculum, they – as a rule – also make it compulsory. Then there is no freedom of choice left for the parents. In this case the children have to take part and there is no freedom of choice left to the parents.

This argument deserves respect, but can also quite easily be refuted. There is the danger that parents who underestimate the potential of their children shy away from any optional field of learning. They want their children to concentrate on the "really important subjects" and if FLE does not belong to them, these children do not get the chance to participate. And therefore education authorities who believe in the importance of foreign language education in primary schools will have to make this education an integral part of the curriculum of these schools.

All five workshops pronounced themselves very strongly in favour of the integration of early language learning into the core curriculum of primary schools

5. The particular issues

In contrast with the preceding section, this one will treat the five ECML workshops separately and deal with one aspect of early language learning that was at the centre of the respective workshop or played an important role in it. The reason for this procedure is that since the participants dedicated themselves intensely to this particular aspect of FLE and discussed it in detail, they gained insights that are of particular significance for this survey.

5.1 Workshop 6/95: principles of teacher development for primary schools

This workshop was primarily concerned with an appropriate philosophy of **teacher development**. It used this expression as a cover term for the more controversial ones of **teacher training** and **teacher education.** It took note of the two very different approaches expressed by the two subordinate terms: teacher training conceived as a merely practical undertaking and teacher education as a more comprehensive one which includes a good deal of solid theory as well as practical work. (Stros 1995, 6)

The participants welcomed the recent change from teacher training to teacher education, "which reflects a recognition that effective teaching does not just involve competence in a particular set of behaviours, but also involves higher level cognitive processes". (Stros 1995, 5) They thereby expressed their conviction that future teacher development for FLE would have to include both theoretical knowledge and reflection **and** practical experience. They also devoted part of their work to the optimal relationship between theory and practice in teacher education and came to the conclusion that all decisions depended on the role society attributed to the teaching profession. If the ideal of a good teacher is that of a reflective practitioner, then his or her education has to be "classroom-based" **and** "theory-guided", - no matter whether in specific contexts he or she is seen as a manager of learning, task setter, catalyst, assistant or counsellor (Stros 1995, 6).

A large number of practical consequences from the philosophy outlined above were discussed at workshop 6/95. For instance: one session each was devoted to the particular role of teacher observation, lesson planning and classroom management. (Stros 1995, 10, 11 and 15)

5.2 Workshop 1/98: the structure and content of teacher education

Teacher education was also one of the main concerns of this workshop, although here the discussions concentrated more on its structure and content. As their starting point the participants accepted the often-proclaimed statement that the first condition for the introduction of FLE into the primary school is the availability of suitably qualified teachers. Whether these teachers gain their qualification by an initial course of studies at universities and colleges or through in-service measures or - preferably - via both, is of less importance than an appropriate structure and content of the respective programmes. (Felberbauer 1998, 3)

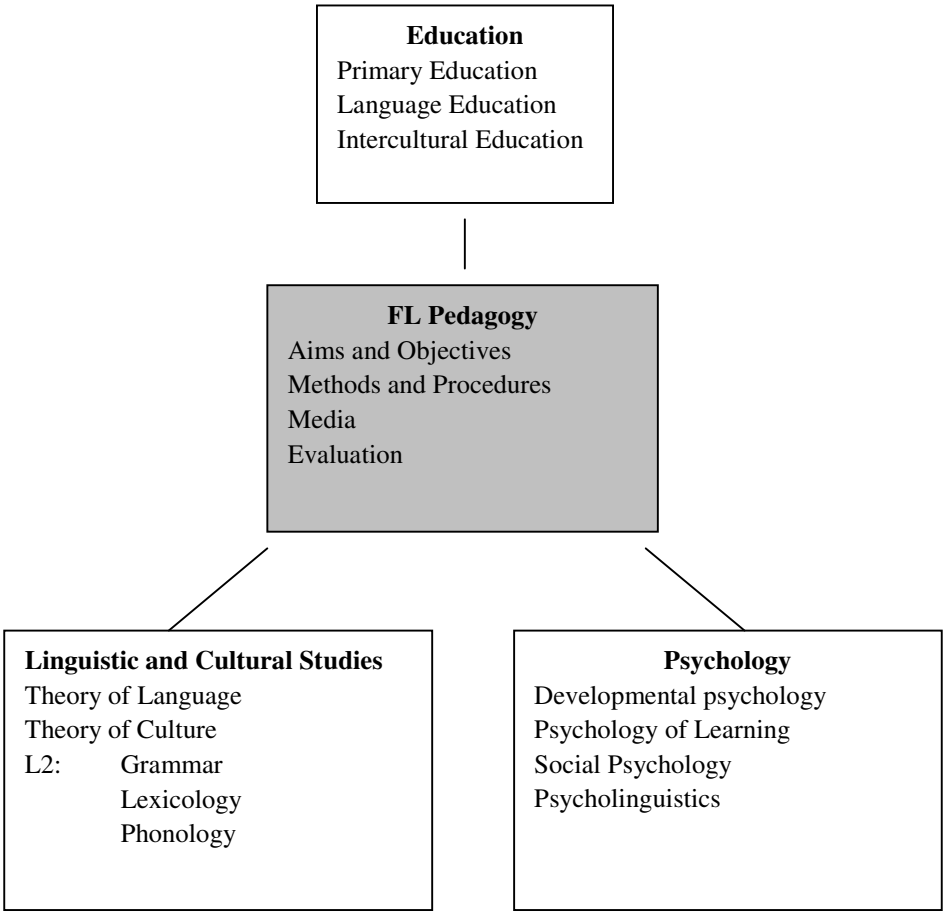
As was stated in section 4.5, the need is for teachers who are **specialists both in primary education and foreign language pedagogy.** As primary school experts, they will be familiar with the conditions and the framework into which, as foreign language experts, they can integrate the culture and language of other countries. To meet the requirements resulting from such a concept, the participants found the well-known Prague Model most suited (Doyé 1999), as it contains all the elements that are regarded as indispensable components of a solid teacher education programme for early foreign language teaching. It comprises four disciplines: Foreign Language Pedagogy, Education, Linguistic and Cultural Studies and Psychology.

In this diagram, **Foreign Language Pedagogy** holds the central position. As the discipline whose immediate concern is the learning and teaching of foreign languages, it deserves to become the focus of studies for persons planning to work in this field. They have to concentrate their professional preparation on an exploration and explanation of the aims and objectives, methods and procedures, resources and media and the forms of evaluation of FL education at the primary level. But Foreign Language Pedagogy is not independent of other disciplines. It needs cooperation with neighbouring sciences that are specifically concerned with:

- educational processes in general,
- the objects of FL learning and teaching
- learner and teacher characteristics.

Therefore these disciplines are placed around FL Pedagogy in our model.

The Prague model



As the learning and teaching of foreign languages is part of a general educational process, FL Pedagogy needs the assistance of **General Education**. Scholars of this discipline develop the basic concepts and fundamental theories of education, which FL teachers also have to study in order to work out a theory of their own educational work – with specifications in the most important aspects: language education and intercultural education. A good knowledge of the objects of FL learning and teaching is also required, of course; these are included in the category headed **Linguistic and Cultural Studies**. It includes theories of language and culture and information about the characteristics of the target language: grammar, lexicology and phonology. It also includes fundamental knowledge of the countries in which the target language is spoken as the mother tongue and about the relationship between home and target

cultures. Last but not least, intending FL teachers need a good knowledge and understanding of the minds and behaviours of the young people they are going to educate; in other words, they have to study **Psychology**. Within the vast field of psychology they should concentrate on the exploration of human development – of child development in particular – on the study of the various forms of learning and on the investigation of children's relationships to other persons, groups of persons and society as a whole. (Felberbauer 1998, 25)

5.3 Workshop 1/97: the intercultural dimension of FLE in the primary school

At this workshop the intercultural aspect of FLE played an important role. It was argued that as any language teaching and learning contained by the very nature of its aims and contents an intercultural dimension, this dimension needs to be taken seriously also at the primary level. The participants subscribed to this point of view and favoured the argumentation described in our section 4.3 (see above). Their conclusion was this:

> "Curricula for primary foreign language teaching must take into account the whole range of components of communicative competence. They cannot be restricted to the promotion of verbal skills, but have to provide an education for a basic intercultural ability. This means that they have to include the intercultural dimension from the outset." (Niezgoda 1997, 11)

But they were also aware of the fact that there is still considerable opposition to the proposed re-orientation. It mainly stems from the fear that the orientation towards intercultural communicative competence which incorporates all three dimensions might go beyond the capacities of primary school children, and that these children might not be capable of developing the intended attitudes and unable to digest the necessary information. This fear was taken seriously, but was ultimately rejected.

The discussion started from Bruner's famous hypothesis "that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development" (1962, 33). Bruner agrees that it is a bold hypothesis, but also emphasizes that no evidence has been presented so far to contradict it. He argues that in most school subjects learners and teachers are concerned with rather wide fields of learning and that in any case the selection and gradation of the actual contents have to be carried out according to the capacities of the learners. For the intercultural education of primary school children this means that the tasks given and the experiences offered must be selected in accordance with the learners' stage of development. They may be cognitively demanding as long as they are concrete; they may be emotionally complex

as long as they are experiential, they may be practically exacting as long as they are systematically arranged. But if these conditions are fulfilled, in other words: if FLE is practised in a **learner-appropriate** manner, the danger that it might overburden the young children, is greatly diminished.

5.4 Workshop 99A: learner-appropriateness

Learner-appropriateness was also one of the central topics of workshop 99A. The participants "identified the characteristics and abilities which children bring to the foreign language learning classroom" and considered "the type of conditions that would need to be created in order for teachers to make use of children's natural capacities" (Fridriksdottir 1999, 3)

With this intention, Workshop 99A focussed on one of the essential conditions for the success of early language learning and teaching. Only if teachers succeed in matching the capacities of the children with the requirements of learning foreign languages, can the tasks of FLE be fulfilled. This is principally a question of making the right choices: in the area of objectives, contents, methods and materials. "Languages and Children: Making the Match" is the title of the well-known handbook by Curtain and Pesola (1994). It expresses best the tasks that lie ahead for all teachers who want to help their children attain a solid intercultural communicative competence.

But it is a difficult task and needs very careful preparation. The very concept of learner-appropriateness is often misunderstood. In a recent study Kubanek-German has revealed the harmful misinterpretation of this concept in a number of primary foreign language projects (1996). In their endeavour not to overburden the children the teachers go too far and oversimplify their tasks. They want to make the newly introduced subject as palatable and as easy to learn as possible and underestimate the capacities of the young learners. They neglect the cognitive dispositions of primary school children for explicit linguistic information as well as their readiness to occupy themselves with people and objects that are strange and unfamiliar to them, in other words: with foreign cultures. The participants of workshop 99A found Kubanek-German's criticism well-founded. Learner-appropriateness does not mean that only the easily accessible subjects are dealt with, but that the educationally necessary contents are treated in a manner that is adequate to the development of the children.

5.5 Workshop 99B: diversification

This workshop was of an exceptional nature. It was a regional workshop with a very specific purpose and topic which have been described and commented in great detail by Gilbert Dalgalian (see his report). The participants came from one country only: the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. The obvious disadvantage of a lack of

internationality was, however, balanced by the fact that they represented four different target languages: English, French, German, and Russian. (Dalgalian 1999, 1) This constellation turned out to be an advantage insofar as the members of each group felt the need to justify their decision to teach the language of their choice to children in the FYR of Macedonia. This in turn gave rise to the general question of an adequate justification for the teaching of particular languages at the primary level. Although this question did not appear on the official agenda of the workshop, it occupied the minds of especially interested teachers a great deal and was discussed in small groups quite intensely.

Such discussions should be continued. Usually the problem of the choice of particular languages for primary schools is avoided because of its political implications. But it is a genuinely pedagogical problem and deserves to be openly and rationally discussed. The official policy of the Council of Europe aims at **diversification**, but no criteria have been developed that would facilitate the decisions in concrete contexts. Therefore it is traditionally taken for granted that the language to be taught in European primary schools is English; but this need not necessarily become the rule. Of course, there is much to be said for the choice of a global language like English that a great many children in all European countries would speak and understand. However, a decision for English as the second language for everybody also has its drawbacks. This language could easily become a *lingua franca* detached from any cultural roots and thus not be suited for intercultural education. Therefore decision makers should always keep in mind that there are at least three categories of languages from which they can choose: a global language, the language of a neighbouring culture and the language of a minority strongly represented in the respective country.

There was, of course, not enough opportunity nor time to discuss such questions thoroughly. Yet the Struga workshop put the issue on the table, where it waits for further consideration.

6. Recommendations for future activities

In the course of our résumé it became apparent that the activities of the ECML in the first five years of its existence produced a great number of valuable insights into early language learning and teaching, but also left some noticeable gaps. Several important issues have not been dealt with at all and certain others could not be treated with sufficient thoroughness in the workshops. It is the great advantage of a survey like this that such desiderata become obvious. Although it would be asking too much to demand that the Centre develop a complete system which would cover **all** relevant topics of a particular field, it would be highly beneficial, if **the essential issues** of each field could be included in future activities. The leading role which the ECML is beginning to play

in modern language education would be strengthened, if its activities could be systematized further.

This is by no means an appeal to the managers of the ECML only, but also an invitation to potential workshop coordinators. Usually the suggestions for particular workshops come from experts in the field. Such persons could be encouraged to dedicate themselves to the topics that up to now have not received the attention they deserve. Which are these topics?

Certainly the following list of desiderata is to a certain degree subjective, but it is a logical consequence of our résumé and the desirability of the five topics proposed can hardly be denied.

6.1 Language learning in pre-primary educational institutions

As was stated in our introduction, the activities of the ECML have been directed almost exclusively to the primary school so far, and a treatment of language teaching and learning at pre-school institutions is most surely needed.

6.2 Intercultural education

This topic appeared on the agenda of three of the five workshops and attracted a lot of attention from all participants. But it is a topic of great complexity and there is not yet sufficient clarity about its relationship to foreign language learning. If intercultural education is conceived as one of the principal components of all education, then foreign language education can be subsumed under this general heading, as has been proposed several times. But the implications of doing so have not yet been thought out. Not even the otherwise very stringent European Framework of Reference has offered a plausible solution so far, and an initiative on the part of the ECML would be of great help, especially for the primary school.

6.3 Continuity

This is a topic of great urgency. European language teachers and curriculum planners will have to find a solution to the problem of how language learning at the primary level can be linked effectively with that of the secondary level. So far there is very little cooperation between primary and secondary school teachers. Therefore the transition from one system to the other is often difficult. There is common agreement that secondary school teachers should build their foreign language work on the foundations laid in primary schools; but in order to do this they must be well informed about what has been achieved in those schools. Thus this topic is closely connected with the following.

6.4 Evaluation

Only if the teaching and learning at the primary school is properly evaluated, can the secondary school fulfil its obligation to continue the work that has been carried out before. Therefore primary school teachers have to give up their reluctance to formulate clear and precise objectives that are a prerequisite of any valid evaluation. This reluctance usually has its origin in the fear that the setting of such objectives might degrade primary foreign language education to a mere forerunner of secondary education and will destroy its particular child-centred, holistic, playful character. Future methodological research will have to show that this fear is unfounded and that the characteristic approach is very well compatible with clear objectives and consequently with appropriate evaluation.

6.5 Diversification

As stated above, this is a delicate topic because of its political implications. But it needs to be discussed and can be discussed on a rational basis. As the Council of Europe has declared plurilingualism one of its principal aims, it has indirectly facilitated the rational discussion on diversification. If in future (at least) two foreign languages are offered to all young Europeans during their school career - one at the primary and one at the secondary level - then the decision to be made is no longer a question of preference only (which language is preferred to which other?), but a question of priority (which of two selected languages comes first and which second?). And if valid selection criteria are developed, the decisions to be made in particular contexts become less complicated. A workshop with precisely this topic would of great theoretical and practical importance.

7. References

Aebli, Hans. Die geistige Entwicklung als Folge von Anlage, Reifung, Umwelt und Erziehungsbedingungen. In Roth, Heinrich (ed.). *Begabung und Lernen.* Stuttgart: Klett, 1974. 151-191.

Bruner, Jerome. *The Process of Education.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1962.

Byram, Michael and Zarate, Geneviève. *The sociocultural and intercultural dimension of language learning and teaching.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1997.

Cohen, Rachel. Apprendre le plus jeune possible. In Garabédian, M.(ed.). *Enseignement/Apprentissage précoce des langues.* Le Francais dans le Monde. Numéro spécial. 1991.

Curtain, Helena and Pesola, Carol Ann. *Languages and Children – Making the Match.* New York: Longman, 1994.

Dalgalian, Gilbert. *L'introduction des langues européennes au primaire macédonien. Report on Workshop 99B.* Graz: ECML 1999.

Doyé, Peter. *The Intercultural Dimension. Foreign Language Education in the Primary School.* Berlin: Cornelsen, 1999.

Doyé, Peter and Hurrell, Alison (eds.). *Foreign Language Learning in Primary Schools.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1997.

Ekstrand, Lars. *Early bilingualism: Theories and Facts.* Lund: University Press, 1979.

Felberbauer, Maria. *Foreign Language Education in Primary Schools. Report on Workshop 1/98.* Graz: ECML, 1998.

Felberbauer, Maria and Heindler, Dagmar. *Foreign Language Education in Primary Schools. Report on Workshop 8B.* Strasbourg, 1995.

Fridriksdottir, Jacqueline. *Early Language Learning: From Theory to Practice. Report on Workshop 99A.* Graz: ECML 1999.

Gesell, Arnold. *Developmental trends in language behavior.* FL Bulletin 49. 1956. 6-9.

Hawkins, Eric. *Modern Languages in the Curriculum.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981.

Ilg, Francis. *Childhood and second language learning.* FL Bulletin 49. 1956. 1-4.

Kubanek-German, Angelika. *Kindgemäßer Fremdsprachenunterricht. Zur Entwicklung eines Leitbegriffs früh beginnender fremdsprachlicher Lehre.* Katholische Universität Eichstätt, 1994.

Larsen-Freeman, Diane and Long, Michael H.. *An introduction into second language acquisition research.* London and New York: Longman 1990.

Niezgoda, Ewa. *Towards common principles for European FL curricula for children of 9 to 11. Report on Workshop 4/97.* Graz: ECML, 1997.

Penfield, Wilder and Roberts, Lamar. *Speech and Brain Mechanisms.* Princeton: University Press, 1959.

Singleton, David. *Language Acquisition. The Age Factor.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1989.

Stern, H.H. *Languages and the Young School Child.* Oxford: OUP, 1969.

Stros, Marina. *Understanding Teacher Development for Primary Schools. Report on Workshop 6/95.* Graz: ECML 1995.

Torchio, Luigi. Potenzialità educativo-didattiche dell'organizzazione della scuola elementare a moduli. In Riccò, Antonio and Sandfuchs, Uwe (eds.). *Moduli didattici.* Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt, 1999.

van Ek, Jan. *Objectives for foreign language learning.* Volume I: Scope. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1986.

van Parreren, Carel. *The psychological aspects of the early teaching of modern languages.* IRAL 14, 135-142.

8. Bibliography

Recommended reading

Blondin, Christiane et al. (eds.). *Foreign Languages in Primary and Pre-School Education. A Review of Recent Resarch within the European Union.* London: CILT, 1998.

Curtain, Helena and Pesola, Carol Ann. *Languages and Children – Making the Match.* New York: Longman, 1994.

Doyé, Peter. *The Intercultural Dimension. Foreign Language Education in the Primary School.* Berlin: Cornelsen 1999.

Driscoll, Patricia and Frost, David (eds.). *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the Primary School.* London and New York: Routledge, 1999.

Johnstone, Richard. Early language learning. In Byram, Michael (ed.).*Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning.* London and New York: Routledge, 2000.

Met, Myriam (ed.). *Critical Issues in Early Second Language Learning.* New York: Scott Foresman – Addison Wesley, 1998.

Stern, H.H. *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching.* Oxford: OUP, 1987.

Working documents of the Council of Europe

Dalgalian, Gilbert. *L'introduction des langues européennes au primaire macédonien. Report on Workshop 99B.* Graz: ECML, 1999.

Felberbauer, Maria. *Foreign Language Education in Primary Schools. Report on Workshop 1/98.* Graz: ECML, 1998.

Fridriksdottir, Jacqueline. *Early Language Learning: From Theory to Practice. Report on Workshop 99A.* Graz: ECML, 1999.

Niezgoda, Ewa. *Towards common principles for European FL curricula for children of 9 to 11. Report on Workshop 4/97.* Graz: ECML, 1997.

Stros, Marina. *Understanding Teacher Development for Primary Schools, Age 6 – 10. Report on Workshop 6/95.* Graz: ECML, 1995.

Council for Cultural Co-operation (Ed.). *Learning, Teaching, Assessment. A Common European Framework of Reference.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1998.

Council for Cultural Co-operation (Ed.). *European Language Portfolio. Proposals for Development.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1997.

Doyé, Peter and Hurrell, Alison (ed.). *Foreign Language Learning in Primary Schools.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1997.

Additional reading

Apeltauer, Ernst. *Grundlagen des Erst- und Zweitsprachenerwerbs.* Berlin und München: Langenscheidt, 1997.

Baker, Colin. *A Parents' and Teachers' Guide To Bilingualism.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1995.

Byram, Michael (ed.). *Routledge Encycolpedia of Language Teaching and Learning.* London and New York: Routledge, 2000.

Dalgalian, Gilbert. *Enfances Plurilingues.* Paris: L'Harmattan, 2000.

Dunn, Opal. *Help Your Child with a Foreign Language.* London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1995.

Goethe-Institut (Hrsg.). *Nürnberger Empfehlungen zum Fremdsprachenlernen*. Köln: Dürr and Kessler, 1996.

Hagège, C. *L'enfant aux deux langues.* Paris: Odile Iacob, 1996.

Halliwell, Susan. *Teaching English in the Primary Classroom.* London and New York: Longman, 1992.

Hawkins, Eric. *Modern Languages in the Curriculum.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981.

Legutke, Michael and Thomas, Howard. *Process and Experience in the Language Classroom.* London and New York: Longman, 1991.

Piepho, Hans-Eberhard. *Englisch in der Grundschule.* Bochum: Kamp, 1996

Riccò, Antonio and Sandfuchs, Uwe (eds.) *Moduli didattici.* Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt, 1999.

Singleton, David. *Language Acquisition. The Age Factor.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1989.

Sales agents for publications of the Council of Europe
Agents de vente des publications du Conseil de l'Europe

AUSTRALIA/AUSTRALIE
Hunter Publications, 58A, Gipps Street
AUS-3066 COLLINGWOOD, Victoria
Tel.: (61) 3 9417 5361
Fax: (61) 3 9419 7154
E-mail: Sales@hunter-pubs.com.au
http://www.hunter-pubs.com.au

BELGIUM/BELGIQUE
La Librairie européenne SA
50, avenue A. Jonnart
B-1200 BRUXELLES 20
Tel.: (32) 2 734 0281
Fax: (32) 2 735 0860
E-mail: info@libeurop.be
http://www.libeurop.be

Jean de Lannoy
202, avenue du Roi
B-1190 BRUXELLES
Tel.: (32) 2 538 4308
Fax: (32) 2 538 0841
E-mail: jean.de.lannoy@euronet.be
http://www.jean-de-lannoy.be

CANADA
Renouf Publishing Company Limited
5369 Chemin Canotek Road
CDN-OTTAWA, Ontario, K1J 9J3
Tel.: (1) 613 745 2665
Fax: (1) 613 745 7660
E-mail: order.dept@renoufbooks.com
http://www.renoufbooks.com

CZECH REPUBLIC/
RÉPUBLIQUE TCHÈQUE
Suweco Cz Dovoz Tisku Praha
Ceskomoravska 21
CZ-18021 PRAHA 9
Tel.: (420) 2 660 35 364
Fax: (420) 2 683 30 42
E-mail: import@suweco.cz

DENMARK/DANEMARK
GAD Direct
Fiolstaede 31-33
DK-1171 COPENHAGEN K
Tel.: (45) 33 13 72 33
Fax: (45) 33 12 54 94
E-mail: info@gaddirect.dk

FINLAND/FINLANDE
Akateeminen Kirjakauppa
Keskuskatu 1, PO Box 218
FIN-00381 HELSINKI
Tel.: (358) 9 121 41
Fax: (358) 9 121 4450
E-mail: akatilaus@stockmann.fi
http://www.akatilaus.akateeminen.com

FRANCE
La Documentation française
(Diffusion/Vente France entière)
124, rue H. Barbusse
F-93308 AUBERVILLIERS Cedex
Tel.: (33) 01 40 15 70 00
Fax: (33) 01 40 15 68 00
E-mail:
commandes.vel@ladocfrancaise.gouv.fr
http://www.ladocfrancaise.gouv.fr

Librairie Kléber (Vente Strasbourg)
Palais de l'Europe
F-67075 STRASBOURG Cedex
Fax: (33) 03 88 52 91 21
E-mail: librairie.kleber@coe.int

GERMANY/ALLEMAGNE
AUSTRIA/AUTRICHE
UNO Verlag
Am Hofgarten 10
D-53113 BONN
Tel.: (49) 2 28 94 90 20
Fax: (49) 2 28 94 90 222
E-mail: bestellung@uno-verlag.de
http://www.uno-verlag.de

GREECE/GRÈCE
Librairie Kauffmann
28, rue Stadiou
GR-ATHINAI 10564
Tel.: (30) 1 32 22 160
Fax: (30) 1 32 30 320
E-mail: ord@otenet.gr

HUNGARY/HONGRIE
Euro Info Service
Hungexpo Europa Kozpont ter 1
H-1101 BUDAPEST
Tel.: (361) 264 8270
Fax: (361) 264 8271
E-mail: euroinfo@euroinfo.hu
http://www.euroinfo.hu

ITALY/ITALIE
Libreria Commissionaria Sansoni
Via Duca di Calabria 1/1, CP 552
I-50125 FIRENZE
Tel.: (39) 556 4831
Fax: (39) 556 41257
E-mail: licosa@licosa.com
http://www.licosa.com

NETHERLANDS/PAYS-BAS
De Lindeboom Internationale Publikaties
PO Box 202, MA de Ruyterstraat 20 A
NL-7480 AE HAAKSBERGEN
Tel.: (31) 53 574 0004
Fax: (31) 53 572 9296
E-mail: lindeboo@worldonline.nl
http://home-1-worldonline.nl/~lindeboo/

NORWAY/NORVÈGE
Akademika, A/S Universitetsbokhandel
PO Box 84, Blindern
N-0314 OSLO
Tel.: (47) 22 85 30 30
Fax: (47) 23 12 24 20

POLAND/POLOGNE
Główna Księgarnia Naukowa
im. B. Prusa
Krakowskie Przedmiescie 7
PL-00-068 WARSZAWA
Tel.: (48) 29 22 66
Fax: (48) 22 26 64 49
E-mail: inter@internews.com.pl
http://www.internews.com.pl

PORTUGAL
Livraria Portugal
Rua do Carmo, 70
P-1200 LISBOA
Tel.: (351) 13 47 49 82
Fax: (351) 13 47 02 64
E-mail: liv.portugal@mail.telepac.pt

SPAIN/ESPAGNE
Mundi-Prensa Libros SA
Castelló 37
E-28001 MADRID
Tel.: (34) 914 36 37 00
Fax: (34) 915 75 39 98
E-mail: libreria@mundiprensa.es
http://www.mundiprensa.com

SWITZERLAND/SUISSE
BERSY
Route de Monteiller
CH-1965 SAVIESE
Tel.: (41) 27 395 53 33
Fax: (41) 27 395 53 34
E-mail: bersy@bluewin.ch

Adeco – Van Diermen
Chemin du Lacuez 41
CH-1807 BLONAY
Tel.: (41) 21 943 26 73
Fax: (41) 21 943 36 05
E-mail: mvandier@ip-worldcom.ch

UNITED KINGDOM/ROYAUME-UNI
TSO (formerly HMSO)
51 Nine Elms Lane
GB-LONDON SW8 5DR
Tel.: (44) 207 873 8372
Fax: (44) 207 873 8200
E-mail: customer.services@theso.co.uk
http://www.the-stationery-office.co.uk
http://www.itsofficial.net

UNITED STATES and CANADA/
ÉTATS-UNIS et CANADA
Manhattan Publishing Company
468 Albany Post Road, PO Box 850
CROTON-ON-HUDSON,
NY 10520, USA
Tel.: (1) 914 271 5194
Fax: (1) 914 271 5856
E-mail: Info@manhattanpublishing.com
http://www.manhattanpublishing.com

Council of Europe Publishing/Editions du Conseil de l'Europe
F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex
Tel.: (33) 03 88 41 25 81 – Fax: (33) 03 88 41 39 10 – E-mail: publishing@coe.int – Website: http://book.coe.int