

Teaching Indonesian in Australia

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1. Introduction

Numbers of Indonesian language learners in Australia are very low, although Indonesia's importance to Australia is as great as ever. The Rudd government and the Wesley report promised new initiatives and funding for Asian languages in schools, TAFEs and universities, but there has been no substantive progress. It is time to look back on 50 years of Indonesian language teaching in Australia, to avoid the mistakes of the past, and build on the successes.

In the 50-plus years that Indonesian has been taught in Australian universities there have been some marked shifts in the ways that it has been taught. The last big project in materials development for the tertiary level was the TIFL project (Teaching Indonesian as a Foreign Language project) in 1992-1995. There are some signs of a new methodological shift/emphasis in the school systems with a new emphasis on IcLL (Intercultural Language Learning), and it is high time vibrant new materials were developed for the universities. This article maps the shifts in teaching approaches from the first Australian texts of 1965, and re-assesses the current usefulness of materials from the TIFL project.

The story of the first 50 years of Indonesian language teaching in Australia is told here through the texts and methodologies that teachers used in the classroom because these artefacts reveal a number of striking facts. First, the sheer number: over 60 texts were produced in Australia in the first forty years, from the late 1950s to the 1990s. This is a remarkable achievement, a great flowering of initiative and talent. Unfortunately most of them are now long-forgotten, out of print, sunk without trace.

Second, waves of dominant methodologies. Indonesian teaching has passed through three clear waves: a grammar-translation phase, from 1958 to 1968 (10 years); an audio-lingual phase, from 1968 to 1988 (20 years); and a combined functional-notional and communicative phase, from 1988 to the present (just over 20 years). Each period had its hegemonic methodology. Few writers tried to go against the trends, though some texts were hybrids, including older techniques as well. But many babies were thrown out in floods of bathwater, and wheels busily reinvented.

¹ The writers of this article have both been involved with the TIFL tertiary Indonesian language teaching materials project. David Reeve headed the project. Julia Read introduced the TIFL materials at the University of Melbourne in 1993, and they were the subject of her doctoral thesis (Read, 2002).

Third, these texts were mostly the work of individuals, rarely teams, no doubt partly from the absence of computers and email. Individual teachers produced materials for class which, as they were accumulated, turned from folders into books. But it was a shame that there was little teamwork, as individual inspiration can only go so far. From the 1990s, materials development increasingly became collaborative – a much needed change.

Fourth, Indonesian language teaching was modelled on methods that came from outside, from other language areas. As in Indonesia too, the status of internationally dominant methodologies overwhelmed local initiative. New methodologies tend to arise first in TESOL,² then colonise the teaching of European languages, then take over Indonesian, then come to an abrupt halt at the steep cliffs of Japanese and Chinese teaching. Grammar-translation, audio-lingual, functional-notional, communicative – all came from outside of Indonesian and outside of Indonesia. The creativity that went into texts development was nowhere matched by methodological creativity. Can we not develop a method for Indonesian that comes out of the nature of Indonesian?

Fifth, all these texts were developed by Indonesians in Australia, or by Australians. There has been no collaboration with other Indonesian-teaching countries, or (much worse) with Indonesia itself. While other languages have thrived with floods of materials from their home countries and cultural institutes – French, German, Italian, Japanese – Indonesia has had virtually no role or supporting presence in the teaching of Indonesian in Australia. Hopefully this will change in the next fifty years.

What follows is a review of the major texts and methodologies, with an emphasis on the earlier decades. These do not tell the whole story of what happened in classes, as teachers always adapted texts with their own good sense about what worked in class. There were overseas texts used as well, particularly the Wolff texts from America, but the focus here is on the wealth of Australian texts.

The three great waves of texts and methodologies took place against a background of boom-and-bust in student numbers. The first boom was from the late 1950s to the mid-1970s, followed by a dozen years of decline, reflected in low production of texts. A second boom began around 1988, with changes in government attitudes, and new materials with new methodologies. But it only lasted 10 years. From 1999 a new decline has occurred, lasting until now. Let us hope that from 2010 a new enthusiasm will be accompanied by new students and new materials, combining the best of past practice with ideas for the future.

2. Grammar-translation teaching and texts, 1950s to 1968

Indonesian teaching in Australia started around 1958 at the universities of Melbourne and Sydney, and in some school systems a few years later. Unfortunately we know little about what materials were used until the first Australian text was published in 1965, T.S. Lie's *Introducing Indonesian*.³ What happened before then? The Dark Ages? The prehistory of Indonesian language teaching? Probably teachers were frantically producing class-notes that would later become books.

² Teaching English to speakers of other languages.

³ Lie 1965.

Jamie Mackie has shed some light, telling that he used Pino's *Bahasa Indonesia*,⁴ that he'd picked up in a bookstore when he was trying to teach himself some Indonesian. T.S Lie's work was a strictly grammar-translation text, though that method was shortly to be superseded.

Grammar translation was such an established method of language teaching that its overthrow and banishment in the 1960s was very much the end of an era, and a shift of major importance. (Some stalwarts never accepted that the era was over, and indeed the decaying remnants of obsolete teaching methods can often be found festering and resentful in dark corners of university language departments). Grammar translation had been a very powerful method of language teaching; first as the traditional method of teaching Latin and Greek in Europe, which had come to be used in teaching 'modern' languages such as French, German and English in the nineteenth century. At its best it produced students with a fine and detailed knowledge of the workings of the formal language, and a subtle capacity to access and to translate great works of literature, hardly skills to be scorned.

The greatest problem was that its most valued and practiced skills were reading and writing. It was not clear when students would listen to the language, much less speak. So it was an appropriate method for students who might never visit the country whose language they were studying, but who sought to access the riches of that society through its novels, poetry, short stories and plays, the 'languages and literatures' tradition.

There was ambivalence about the very idea of introducing Asian languages in Australia. In 1957 the Modern Language Teachers' Association had resolved in a rather non-committal way that 'there was room in Australia for teaching Asian languages'. In 1959 R.G. Casey stated that in his Department of External Affairs, out of 176 diplomatic officers, there were 2 speakers of Indonesian. In 1960 Van Abbe, writing in *Babel*, warned against the rise of Asian languages. He stressed the intellectual rigour of a through study of modern European languages and their grammar. Whereas Indonesian had 'too little formal grammar to be of the kind of educational value for which I have been arguing'⁵

Lie's 1965 text used a traditional grammar-translation format, but a hint of the change to come was Purwanto Danosugondo's *Bahasa Indonesia for Beginners*,⁶ which was highly critical of translation and proposed instead a method based on 'productive patterns'. This latter was a transitional, hybrid text; its philosophy was opposed to grammar translation, but its contents were more traditional.

From 1965-68 six Indonesian language texts were published in Australia, mostly associated with universities in Melbourne and Sydney. From Melbourne in came J. P. Sarumpaet's *The Structure of Bahasa Indonesia*,⁷ and Sarumpaet and Mackie's *Introduction to Bahasa Indonesia*.⁸ T.S Lie came from the University of Sydney, as did H. W. Emanuels, whose course for Radio University UNSW was published as *Bahasa Indonesia Sehari-hari*.⁹ The first school text was H. W Emanuels and Vern Turner's *Indonesian for Schools*, Books 1 and 2.¹⁰ Vern Turner, a high school teacher and University of Sydney graduate, had been recommended by

⁴ Pino 1953.

⁵ This paragraph is based on Ozolins 1993: 64, 66, 86.

⁶ Danosugondo 1966.

⁷ Sarumpaet 1966.

⁸ Sarumpaet and Mackie 1966.

⁹ Emanuels 1966.

¹⁰ Emanuels and Turner 1967, 1968.

Emanuel. Purwanto came to Australia in 1963 with a fresh Masters in linguistics from Illinois. Working with Radio Australia, the Indonesian Embassy, and teaching at UNSW convinced him that new materials were needed.

The core components of a typical grammar-translation lesson were the presentation of a grammatical rule, a study of lists of vocabulary, and a translation exercise. There were occasional comprehension passages. Few were conversations. Vern Turner's texts added interest to the four-square black and white look with line drawings. Their core philosophy was that '...students will learn grammatical forms which will enable them to attain fluency in speaking and writing Bahasa Indonesia.' How later teachers would laugh at such a claim!

In such texts the translation sections could be massive - sometimes more than 70 sentences sat waiting. Sentences often had a quaint, made-up feel:

You are not allowed to climb that high mountain.
 It was not her desire to get married but her parents.
 It is her wish to have eight children when she marries.
 Why is your sweetheart angry at you?
 With whom did you go to the Hotel Samudra?
 Why had grandfather not yet drunk his cold coffee?
 Several horses sleep under the tree.
 Those crocodiles are big and fat.
 Are there clouds in the sky?
 The old goat died the day before yesterday.
 The goat sleeps under the tree beside the horses.
 What a pity! His horse died yesterday.
 He died the day before yesterday.
 The large snake eats the fat fowl.
 Don't annoy that goat; it is sick.
 Very rarely is wickedness like that not punished.
 When the doctor examined the man it was clear that he was dead.
 Mother was speechless to see the mouse on top of the table.
 Suddenly the meow of a cat was heard from the cupboard.
 Take that dead cat as far as possible away from the house!
 In Australia almost every man shaves his face once day.

So much death! And startling ideas could be suggested by consecutive sentences:

Our dog is called Mimpi.
 Although he is still small he can dress himself.

These practice sentences were not taken from real speech, and no-one seriously believed that the students would ever say them. And there lay one of the greatest problems – the distance from speaking and listening. Possibly the best thing to say about these texts is that they were pioneering, expressly written – often at speed – to fill a void. These were a productive 3-4 years, but these grammar-translation texts were soon to be replaced by audio-lingual.

The transition from one methodology to another is usually described in terms of the attractions of one theory over another. But social and technological changes are important too. The advent of wide-bodied planes and cheaper fares in the 1960s marked the start of mass tourism; students were now much more likely to visit the

countries they had studied, to want and need to talk to native speakers. For Southeast Asia, the great wave of interest generated in schools and universities was a product of involvement in the Vietnam war. The stakes were more urgent than a cultivated interest in literature. If students were to visit the countries of Southeast Asia, then they wanted to be able to discuss a range of social and political topics.

Also permitting and causing the shift to audiovisual was the relatively cheap availability of language laboratories. Here was a shift from pen and book, to mouth and machine. In the hours in the language lab, a whole class could be talking their heads off. ‘Talking to a machine!’, said later critics scornfully, pointing to the distance from the strains, tensions and negotiations of real-life conversations. They were right, but that later insight should not obscure what a great change was about to occur.

3. The audio-lingual years, 1968 to 1988

1968 was a threshold year, with a late grammar-translation text, Vern Turner’s *Indonesian for Schools Book Two*,¹¹ and the first and most zealous of the new audio-lingual texts, *Lancar Berbahasa Indonesia (LBI)*, from the Sydney Technical College team of Ichsan, Baker and Lane.¹² *LBI* led the field in an eight-year burst of productivity, which saw three major state-based text series/packages (Hendrata,¹³ Victorian schools; McGarry and Soemaryono,¹⁴ NSW; Partorejo,¹⁵ Queensland) start appearing in the early 1970s. The first new university course, from Yohanni Johns of ANU, was *Langkah Baru Book One*.¹⁶

These were series because they developed into texts for beginners, intermediate and advanced; packages as they came with sets of tapes, slides and flashcards, and sometimes readers and guided composition texts. There were five main readers from familiar names 1968-1975: Sarumpaet and Hendrata; Yohanni Johns; Suwito Santoso and Soemaryono;¹⁷ J. A. Collins;¹⁸ and Ichsan.

1970 to 1972 had triumphs and a problem. The triumphs were an ABC radio program *Learn Indonesian* in two series from 1970, followed by a TV program in 1971. The series were based on *LBI*, adapted by Soemaryono at the University of Sydney. Ten thousand Australians bought the booklets and records to participate. Hard to imagine, 40 years on. The problem was the introduction of new spelling into Indonesian (*Ejaan Yang Disempurnakan*). Publishers had to decide whether to reissue texts in the new spelling. The state-based series had established markets and jumped the hurdle, but the pioneering *LBI* failed at the jump.

In 1968 *LBI* had proclaimed itself to be unique, as ‘the first textbook on Bahasa Indonesia completely geared to the aural-oral method of learning’. Its account of teaching methodology was dramatic:

¹¹ Turner 1968.

¹² Ichsan et al. 1968.

¹³ Hendrata 1969.

¹⁴ McGarry and Soemaronono 1970.

¹⁵ Partoredjo 1975.

¹⁶ Johns 1975.

¹⁷ Santoso and Soemaryono 1969.

¹⁸ Collins and Syafei 1973; Collins 1976.

Ever since the French Revolution in 1789 set the pattern for violent and radical reform of social evils, modern man has come to the realisation that, if he did not like his particular world, he was at liberty to change it.

There was for the first time a student text and a teacher's edition, the latter containing a detailed and elaborate exposition of classroom technique. One element:

Pattern practices aim to establish speech habits by presenting meaningful units in contexts rather than concentrating on individual sentences so often taught out of context and unrelated to normal speech behaviour.

A hint of the elaborate and prescriptive classroom practices:

Then model the sequence four or five times from different positions in the classroom while the students turn their books face down so that they may concentrate solely on your voice. Do not allow them to follow you with their eyes around the classroom.

Here were the key elements: pattern practices; speech habits; meaningful units in context; articles with thematic titles – e.g., 'An Outing', 'An Accident', 'Entertainment', 'Going Shopping'; the 20 'dialogue sentences' comprising the core of each unit; the visual aids; more realistic formats; the shift from writing and translating to imitating and transforming oral cues; native speaker recordings as models; and always the tapes to be used in the classroom and language laboratory – the golden age of the language lab.

The later text series were not as rigorous as *LBI*, the high point of orthodoxy. Those later texts followed the dominant audio-lingual methodology, but were hybrid, including several types of classroom exercises from older methodologies, syncretically adopting anything that worked in class. This was a victory of commonsense over ideology, marked in Partorejo, with his 'integrated approach', but present in others too.

These series, and over a dozen smaller texts from individual teachers or schools, deserve greater attention, but there is only room here for a few general points:

- They contained much material on Indonesian culture, through dialogues and particularly through dozens of readings (*bacaan*). Students learned a great deal about Indonesian culture in a way that has disappeared from more recent texts.
- These texts were lavish in their use of line drawings as aids for memorising dialogues, explaining vocabulary, structure and grammar points, as stimuli for conversation and composition, and making texts lively and attractive. What a shame so much work and talent has sunk, unretrieved!
- The texts had a richness of classroom exercises, including an elaborate technique for the exploitation of dialogues, covering and uncovering the text, listening, repeating, chanting as whole-class, or by groups and individuals. There were reading passages with comprehensions, and exercises of at least

seven types: substitution, transformation, fill-in, complete, matching, true/false and scrambled sentences; there were special notes and remarks, songs and games.

- These texts envisaged the task of the Australian student as learning about Indonesia, not learning how to discuss Australia in Indonesian. Several texts took the new idea of building their book around Australian visitors to Indonesia. But when Tom Johnson of the Australian Dairy Company meets business colleagues in Surabaya, they discuss the history of Majapahit rather than business (Sumaryono, Book Three, 1974).
- Although fresher elements were appearing, the old didactic high-literature tradition remained. Some of the readers had a high literature feel, with the exclusion of daily life. When daily life was covered, it was the village and its folktales. Collins' *Bunga Rampai*¹⁹ looked to the future, drawn from Indonesian press articles, rather serious. And Sumaryono Book Three made much use of real-life material from magazines and newspapers, including cartoons, anecdotes, advertisements, jokes and articles. The debates on realia are 35 years old.

Thus ended the first great wave of Australian texts, 1965 to 1975, encompassing two major methodologies. Student numbers declined thereafter, eroding the publishers' market. The boom from the early 1960s to the mid 1970s was followed by a trough, with a sprinkling of new texts, mostly readers of a language and literature type, but no methodological breakthroughs.

There was little before 1988, besides the Philips record set *Bahasa Indonesia* – late 1970s, Sarumpaet's reference work *Modern Usage in Bahasa Indonesia*,²⁰ Lonely Planet's *Indonesian Phrasebook* – 1984, and seven readers from Collins, Marian Dakeyne, Achdiat K Miharja, John Pello²¹ and Adrian Clynes. One hopeful sign was the magazine for Indonesian teachers *Pelangi* from 1985, but the editor's call for a vigorous debate on methodology met little response.

4. The communicative years, from 1988

Methodological innovation did not come until 1988, when Ian White started publishing his notional-functional text series, *Bahasa Tentangaku*.²² This method had come earlier for other languages in Australia, and the 1980s saw new lively texts for Italian, German, French and Japanese. Low student demand postponed such initiatives for Indonesian, so that the new methodologies of functional-notional and communicative language teaching occurred side-by-side from around 1988.

This was a period of enthusiasm for language study at the government level, shown in the National Policy on Languages in 1987,²³ followed by state policies and state education department initiatives, plus the vital enthusiasm of the federal Labor government for four key Asian Languages: Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and

¹⁹ Collins 1977.

²⁰ Sarumpaet 1980

²¹ Pello 1980.

²² White 1988.

²³ Lo Bianco 1987.

Korean. In retrospect the lack of Hindi seems a particular oversight, but many teachers will remember, fondly and with nostalgia, the strong governmental support for Asian language study, and the lively debates within the country over Australia's 'Asian identity' and future in Asia.

The Ingleson report on Asian Languages in Higher Education appeared in 1989,²⁴ setting ambitious targets, unfortunately never met during the boom period of 1988 to 1998. Thereafter Indonesian language enrolments started a new bust.

Teachers started talking of themselves as student-centred and meeting student needs. But what had really happened was that for the first time language teachers were allowed to use the photocopiers, previously reserved for administrative staff only (as usual). Lack of access to easy methods of duplication had made teachers reliant on published texts, as they faced intoxication and addiction from the smells of spirit stencils (usually hidden in airless spaces under stairs), or permanently red and black skin and clothes from the smears of Gestetner stencils. Access to photocopiers transformed what teachers could do, as they could now select, from banks of material, what they wanted to present to the class, from what source, and in what order.

A delightfully coloured text series for schools *Ayo!*²⁵ was published from 1991, based on the successful versions for Italian, German, French and Japanese, and new readers appeared from 1988: McGarry and Sumaryono, Partorejo, George Quinn, McGarry and Winarto,²⁶ plus the *Ayo!* readers. But after much planning activity in education departments, reflected in the All Guidelines,²⁷ LOTE kits and the National Indonesian Language Curriculum Project, it was banks of material that were emphasised. The two main banks were the Suara Siswa²⁸ materials for schools, and the TIFL Project²⁹ (1992-1996) for universities, both adopting communicative methodology.

Functional-notional methodology demonstrated a shift from language form to language use. Functions were defined by asking 'what does the speaker want to do?' The answers to this question, almost always ending in '-ing', were the functions, such as 'agreeing', 'apologising', 'asking for'. A further question elicited the particular 'notions' that the function was about. The key factor in teaching and textwriting was to ask what function was needed, and then to choose between the easier and more difficult ways in which that function might be realised in real life.

This methodology has produced a single major text series in Australia, Ian J. White's *Bahasa Tetanggaku*, with three course books, including student workbooks and sets of cassettes, in 1988-1994. The functional-notional approach has taken hold in teachers' minds, in the current communicative phase, providing an alternative approach for selecting what language and structures to choose for class.

In White's texts, the contents page for each 'topic' is laid out on a grid, displaying language functions, and grammar points. One good example is the language functions for Chapter Four, on 'shopping':

Colours
Asking about price
Identifying objects

²⁴ Asian Studies Council 1989.

²⁵ Taylor and Sedunary 1991.

²⁶ McGarry and Winarto 1990.

²⁷ Scarino et al. 1991.

²⁸ National Indonesian Language Curriculum Project 1993.

²⁹ *Vide* Read 2002.

Expressing surprise and shock
 Bargaining: Offering a price
 Refusing a price
 Agreeing on a price
 Describing quality
 Comparing two objects
 Comparing more than two objects
 Indicating wants and needs
 Transport
 Personal language: my chores.

Functional-notional ideas provided a new element in communicative developments from the late 1980s. Communicative methodology is dealt with at greater length in the second half of this article. Everybody calls themselves ‘communicative’ now.

5. Moving into TIFL, within a communicative framework

The Brown and McKay report³⁰ stated that the material available for teaching Indonesian was ‘thoroughly outdated’. Suara Siswa and TIFL were meant to meet this problem. As part of the preparation for TIFL, a study of the earlier texts described above was undertaken in 1991, to compile an index of what already existed. This was to be treated as a resource (not throwing out the baby, not reinventing the wheel), so that the new materials would build on what existed. Unfortunately there was not enough time or energy to send around that index to existing materials, but some of the criticisms of existing texts are given below. Apart from methodological outdatedness, we concluded of the texts published since 1965 that:

- a. The texts are too childish in orientation, to the exclusion of most of adult life.
- b. There is a narrowness of emotional range, a general ‘niceness’ of tone, far from any of the strong emotions.
- c. Those transactions that do not involve children involve tourists; there is little for the ‘Asia-literate’ Australian professionals who go to Indonesia to transact their business.
- d. There is almost no material on Australia in the material produced in Australia, so that students may go to Indonesia well-prepared to converse about the *keris* or *Borobudur*, but unprepared to discuss their own society.
- e. There is an avoidance of any sensitive social issue in Australian or Indonesian society, so that students may well be enabled to discuss all topics except those that really interest them.
- f. Despite the various cuttings from newspapers, there is a great lack of real-life advertisements, printed handouts and leaflets, official forms, product labels and instructions.

³⁰ Brown and McKay 1991.

- g. The grammar is taught point by point rather than being related to actual use and to particular functions; there is a general tendency to have grammar divided up into little parcels, articles each the same length, with no regard as to whether any one grammar item may have dozens of uses or only a few.
- h. The materials are inauthentic, written to illustrate grammar points (this does not mean that they are not useful, but they are not enough).
- i. The exercises are work than can be done by students on their own, and don't lend themselves to communication.
- j. There is almost no concern with register and other sociolinguistic issues; the language is pitched at no particular social situation; there is little to prepare even the casual visitor for Jakarta.
- k. There is a lack of authentic writing tasks.
- l. The audio material is designed for the language lab, which few teachers now wish to use as much as in the 1970s, if at all.³¹

With the methodological insights provided by communicative methodology, and a wish to overcome the problems described above, the TIFL project set to work in 1992.

6. TIFL: an innovation in Indonesian language teaching

'I've never seen or used anything at all like the TIFL [materials], so I think – you open the workbook and you think, wow, this is fun! I mean, there's fun and humour – I think this looks interesting – look at the cartoons – look, there's some real Indonesian material! So it's the realism, I think. It's not an artificially created kind of textbook.' Jan Lingard³²

The Teaching Indonesian as a Foreign Language (TIFL) Tertiary Curriculum Materials Project was set up by the Asian Studies Council and coordinated by David Reeve (1992-1995). The principal Australian participants in the project team were drawn from the Sydney Consortium for Indonesian and Malay Studies (SCIMS). The TIFL tertiary curriculum materials ought to be recognised as one of the most important developments in Indonesian language teaching in recent times in Australian universities, if not the world. However, the TIFL materials are less well known than they should be, due to the incoming Howard government's refusal to honor the Keating government's original commitment to publish them.³³

As indicated above, the desire for improved teaching materials suitable for teaching Indonesian in universities arose from a profound sense of frustration which was current among Indonesianists, arising from the inadequacy of available teaching resources. The inspiration for the concept of a new focus in Indonesian language teaching came mainly from two policy documents, the *National Strategy for the Study*

³¹ Reeve 1991: 2.

³² Interview TT5, Read 2002: 496.

³³ Read 2002: 157.

of *Asia in Australia*³⁴ and *Asia in Australian Higher Education*.³⁵ This meant that the expected outcomes were somewhat different from past materials. The TIFL materials aimed to provide Indonesian language skills for Australian professionals who would visit Indonesia and work in Indonesia. Instead of being focused on Indonesia, in these materials the complex relationship between Australia and Indonesia provided much of the central focus. Whereas previously the aim had been preparation for research, these materials placed prime importance on communicative skills.

The TIFL materials comprise a huge and varied package of the most wide-ranging and comprehensive instructional materials that have ever been produced for tertiary Indonesian, surpassing the Cornell University materials.³⁶ They were also highly innovative materials for tertiary level, because they were designed for the communicative approach, now the basis of the contemporary paradigm of second and foreign language teaching, but in 1992 largely unknown in foreign language departments in Australian universities.

7. Theoretical underpinnings of the TIFL materials

The basis of communicative competence theory is the understanding that there is a sociocultural dimension of language knowledge that relates to the communicative aspects of language (Hymes 1970), which means that as well as phonology, vocabulary and grammar, language learners need to acquire sociolinguistic competence – e.g., knowledge of appropriateness of language to sociocultural context, and of cohesion and coherence in discourse – to be able to use language to interact with other people.³⁷

Based on this theory, a body of pedagogic procedures developed, particularly in TESOL, which has been in the vanguard of developments in language pedagogy. A focus on not just the forms of language but its functions is an outstanding characteristic of communicative language teaching in comparison with earlier language teaching. Because learners must devise strategies for relating function to form, they must be provided with ample opportunities to use the language themselves for communicative purposes.³⁸ Opportunities for verbal action are thus essential.

There are five main aspects of communicative pedagogy that differ from earlier methodological approaches.³⁹ The first is an emphasis on sociolinguistic appropriateness, the area formerly neglected in language pedagogy. The second aspect is message-focus, which means that pieces of language are treated as carriers of message rather than as exemplars of grammatical structure. On the level of receptive skills, message-focus is manifested in information transfer exercises, where students extract information from a passage (authentic resource materials created as a means of communicating content and not for some pedagogic purpose are preferred) and use it to perform a task, e.g., a reading task might be used to extract information that feeds into another task (success in the task being dependent on understanding the reading). This task-dependency provides immediate feedback to the learner. In productive practice, students are placed in positions where they will want to say something and are provided with the means to say it. Information or opinion gap activities are the

³⁴ Asian Studies Council 1988.

³⁵ Asian Studies Council 1989.

³⁶ Wolff et al. 1986.

³⁷ Canale and Swain 1980.

³⁸ Littlewood 1984.

³⁹ Johnson & Johnson 1998: 69-72.

pre-eminent or archetypal learning activity in communicative pedagogy, based on the rationale that where there is a genuine desire to find out something, then there exists a communicative situation, i.e., one that takes the learners' attention away from practising structures (form-focus) and puts it on getting the message across (message-focus).

The third contribution of the communicative pedagogy is deliberate stimulation of psycho-linguistic processes. Meaningful tasks tap students' own situations, experiences, opinions, feelings and preferences. The tedium of older-style exercises is replaced by genuine information exchange. All the psycholinguistic processes used in communication begin with the user's desire to convey or obtain a message, e.g., the negotiation of meaning that occurs in face-to-face interactions. Psycholinguistics provides the insight that listening is always done for a purpose and that listeners process selectively, not attending equally to every word of a message. Unlike traditional listening comprehension exercises in which the learner is made to focus on each word, information transfer exercises require the learner to attend only to those parts of the message relevant to a task.

Emphasis on risk-taking skills is the fourth contribution of communicative pedagogy mentioned by Johnson & Johnson 1998: 71. In the past, because of the emphasis on thoroughness and the desire to avoid errors, students were characteristically taught to read texts word by word. CLT recognises that this procedure not only fails to help, it positively hinders development of an important communicative skill – that of understanding a message in a linguistic context which is only partially understood. Learners who visit a country where the TL is spoken will need this skill.

Free practice techniques are the fifth contribution. In older approaches, the emphasis was on part practice, not discourse. There was virtually no free production stage or preparation for it. Communicative pedagogy recognises that spoken communication is a complex skill, requiring rapid formulation of utterances which are simultaneously 'right' on several levels, involving far more than the subskill of being grammatically correct. Holistic practice is thus important to allow practice of subskills in combination. The development of free practice techniques is a hallmark of communicative pedagogy and a major contribution to language teaching. These ideas underpinned the development of the TIFL materials.

8. Outstanding features of the TIFL materials

Space permits only a brief description of the most outstanding features of the enormous body of teaching materials produced by the TIFL Project, which include 20 Introductory Themes and 14 Intermediate Themes – covering a two-year program, although the quantity of materials is far greater than could be used in a normal tertiary program.

(a) Group interview videos

A set of 102 group interview video recordings (*Video Wawancara 1-2*) is one of the original features of the TIFL materials which are still in great demand. They were innovative in that a single native speaker interviewer interviews a group of six people. The group includes speakers from a variety of ethnic groups and regional backgrounds, including two Australian learners. Therefore they have a variety of accents and their speech shows some regional variation. The interviewees all have distinct personalities, which adds interest. The same questions are posed to each

interviewee, with slightly different phrasing. Each member of the group replies briefly to the question put to him or her. Although their answers are different, they are structurally fairly similar to each other. Thus useful redundancy is provided to aid learning without the tedium of repetition, and students gain an appreciation of different ways of saying things. Errors made by the two learners in the group can also be observed – an original aspect. By the time they get to the sixth interviewee, students fully comprehend what's being talked about, and if a list of new vocabulary is provided and the interviews are replayed, the students can follow it all entirely. The interviews start with survival topics – e.g., food, a place to live – and go on to the level of abstractions such as ambitions and opinions. They do not contain fast speech or difficult language, especially at the beginning of the series, but they were not scripted, so they are spoken in natural conversational language which occasionally includes some colloquialisms. They are close to being authentic natural interactions, but far more accessible. They are a fresh and extremely useful learning resource.

(b) *Scripted dialogues*

The scripted dialogues are the second main listening resource in the TIFL materials, consisting of 99 audio recordings of dialogues, created by a team of writers and spoken by native speakers. Their purpose is not only to provide listening practice, but to be the main vehicle for modelling and teaching communicative functions and sociocultural and discourse aspects of spoken Indonesian. As mentioned above, learners must also develop strategies for relating these forms or structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time. These scripted dialogues are the first systematic attempt in Australian materials designed for teaching Indonesian to adults to help learners do this – thus another highly innovative feature of the TIFL materials. The result is dialogues that are rich in sociocultural elements, and also lively, vivid and much more confronting than anything previously produced. The procedure for using them is by eliciting meaning, chanting to practise prosodic features, and finally by role-playing, which the students prepare after listening to the dialogues and discussing communicative functions, grammar and sociolinguistic aspects in class.

Although not authentic in the sense of being genuine or spontaneous, the scripted dialogues are strongly *realistic* examples of discourse, exhibiting a considerable range of discourse and sociocultural elements (including moral attitudes, prejudices, superstitions, humour), unlike earlier materials. Although generally brief, they are rich in nuances and cultural overtones, with a vein of humorous observation of human nature, e.g., they contain many examples of playful use of words. Learners always want to be able to express themselves humorously in the target language, but being humorous across cultural boundaries is notoriously difficult – yet highly valuable to be able to do appropriately. The dialogues even teach socioculturally appropriate oral registers by introducing the informal register in proper context and showing how to express politeness in a formal situation. Australians are not just cast in the role of visitors, as in previous materials; they appear in varied roles. For all these reasons the scripted dialogues are excellent teaching resources, and they are the materials most highly valued by students.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ Interviews were conducted with 35 students who had studied using the TIFL materials, in three universities where they formed the basis of the Indonesian curriculum (Read 2002: Section 7.3).

(c) Vocabulary development

Unfortunately space does not permit going into detail about this aspect of the TIFL materials, but the TIFL materials are remarkable for a strong emphasis on vocabulary teaching and learning, an area that was generally neglected in language pedagogy throughout the audio-lingual and for much of the communicative periods. In this the TIFL materials were ahead of their time. Reeve instigated a number of innovative teaching practices, such as students themselves selecting 20 words for the class to learn each week and drilling each other at the start of each lesson; brainstorming and semantic mapping; and communicative crosswords (excellent for practising paraphrasing, an invaluable strategy for learners to acquire which is seldom specifically taught).⁴¹ Creative variations on a number of older techniques, such as explicit vocabulary teaching, learning to use proverbs in sentences, and dictionary exercises, were also used.

(d) Communicative activities

One of the most novel aspects of the TIFL materials is the number of communicative activities they offer, a total of 434. TABLE 1 (below) reveals that the TIFL materials contain a great many communicative activities, progressing from more controlled to less controlled forms, providing holistic language practice at sequential levels of complexity. For example, contextualised drills, the simplest and most highly controlled type of communicative activity, occur only at Introductory level. The second least complex activity is the survey, of which there are 36 at Introductory level and only 8 at Intermediate level. There are 25 pair-work conversations at Introductory level and 43 at Intermediate, which range from very simple exchanges and negotiations to quite sophisticated and demanding discussions. Interestingly, however, there are almost as many role-plays at Introductory as at Intermediate level (89 and 113 respectively), reflecting the range of role-play scenarios, which vary from simple to sophisticated. Communicative crosswords, which require relatively sophisticated language because they utilise descriptive language and require the skill of paraphrasing, only occur at Intermediate level (with the exception of one communicative crossword specifically designed for learning names, in Introductory Theme 1).

The creation process involved groups of people brainstorming ideas together. They were circulated for comments and trialled in universities, and any consistently disliked by students or lecturers were discarded. Thus these activities can be relied on as ones students enjoy and that 'work' from an organisational point of view. They are well thought out and well designed, providing a rich, wide range of message-focused and holistic speaking practice activities.

(e) Sociocultural understandings

Sociocultural aspects of the language are very important in teaching Indonesian to Australians, because of the considerable cultural gap between the two societies, and the TIFL materials were ahead of their time in offering IcLL. Sociolinguistic discussions in English of material presented in the 'Cultural Notes' are the main way in which this is done in the TIFL materials, although there are numerous others. The Cultural Notes are a book of excerpts from various writers, in English,

⁴¹ *Ibid.*: Section 6.4.3.

TABLE 1
 NUMBER OF COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES
 IN THE TIFL MATERIALS, BY TYPE

Activity type	Introductory	Intermediate	Total
Barrier game		3	3
Brainstorm a topic	2		2
Communicative crossword	1	15	16
Communicative task	4		4
Contextualised drill	18		18
Exchange written messages		1	1
'Find my friend'	1		1
Group/pair/group information exchange	1		1
Group-work	2	22	24
Guessing game		3	3
Interactive lecture	1	1	2
Interview	4	10	14
Jigsaw	2	4	6
Pair-work	25	43	68
Physical response	5		5
Quiz	2		2
Ranking	2	4	6
Record an answering machine message	2	1	3
Role-play	89	113	202
Rumour game		1	1
Simulation		1	1
Story-telling game		1	1
Survey	36	8	44
Take notes (message-focus)	1		1
Team competition		1	1
Whole-class discussion		4	4
Total	198	236	434

about Indonesian customs, differences between Indonesian and Australian culture and cross-cultural awareness. Topics covered in the materials range very widely, including sociolinguistics, etiquette, geography, history, politics, traditional customs and religions, and include far more sociocultural and sociolinguistic content than could otherwise be included in the first year of a language program, at a more complex

cognitive level than if it were in the target language. Table 2 presents an analysis of the topics covered in one theme, demonstrating the quantity and variety of material contained.

In the theory and practice of teaching culture in language programs, the three dominant paradigms in the past have been to present ‘culture as high culture’ (e.g., literature); ‘culture as area studies’ (i.e., knowledge about the history, geography and institutions of the TL country); and ‘culture as practice’ (i.e., describing cultures in

TABLE 2

TOPICS COVERED IN THEME 13 (CONTACTS AND APPOINTMENTS)

Topics
1. Key value of friendliness
2. Smiling
3. Eye contact
4. Chatting (importance, compulsory topics, topics to avoid)
5. Harmony of feelings (e.g., maintenance of face, avoidance of negative behaviour, acceptable ways to be negative)
6. Social sanctions for breaking culture rules
7. Emotional control (importance of mastery of emotions)
8. Casual meetings – how people behave
9. Hospitality
10. Meals and social visits
11. Farewells
12. Forms of address (e.g., use of kinship terminology)
13. Honorific prefixes
14. Characteristics of informal register (e.g., morphology, word order, pronunciation changes, lexis)
15. Extremely polite formal behaviour (e.g., proper form for proper rank, indirectness, dissemination, avoidance of acts suggesting lack of self-control)
16. Custom of asking for forgiveness for errors one might make
17. Use of go-betweens
18. Importance of not being judgmental
19. Conducting polite conversation
20. Treatment of foreigners

terms of the values and practices that typify them).⁴² As well as these three paradigms, there is the new approach called Intercultural Language Teaching (IcLT).⁴³ The aim of IcLT is to develop a realisation of linguistic and cultural relativity. It implies an acknowledgment and understanding of the links between language and culture as well as an understanding of how communication works across cultures. The integration of culture and language constitutes new teaching content which language teachers need to introduce into their teaching practice. The three essential elements of IcLT are overt teaching of *linguaculture* – by which is meant (a) the links between language and culture; (b) teaching of the target language/culture in counterdistinction to the learners' L1; and (c) development of intercultural competence, i.e., the ability to recognise where and when culture is manifest in cross-cultural encounters, and also the ability to manage an intercultural space where all parties to the encounter are comfortable participants.

TABLE 3
PARADIGMS OF CULTURE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING
AS DISPLAYED IN THE CULTURAL NOTES

Location	Culture as area studies	Culture as practice	IcLT
Introduction		X	X
Theme 1		X	X
Theme 2		X	X
Theme 3		X	X
Theme 4		X	X
Theme 5	X	X	X
Theme 6		X	X
Theme 7	X		
Theme 8	X	X	X
Theme 9	X		
Theme 10		X	X
Theme 11	X	X	X
Theme 12		X	X
Theme 13		X	X
Theme 14	X	X	
Theme 15	X	X	
Theme 16	X	X	X
Theme 17	X	X	X
Theme 18	X	X	X
Theme 19	X	X	
Theme 20	X	X	

⁴² Liddicoat and Crozet 2000: 8-9.

⁴³ Liddicoat and Crozet 2000: 1-18; Lo Bianco et al. 1999.

The Cultural Notes present cultural knowledge from the viewpoint of three of the four older paradigms. The oldest one, ‘culture as high culture’, does not appear. However, ‘culture as area studies’ does appear in several sections, and ‘culture as practice’ appears in nearly every theme of the Cultural Notes. IcLT can be identified in 15 of the 20 Introductory themes. The emerging paradigm of IcLT, which is based on an expanded understanding of the nature of cross-cultural encounters and a deeper understanding of the links between language and culture, is clearly a more expanded and developed approach to teaching cultures in teaching language than the two earlier paradigms that are evident in the TIFL materials. However, this does not mean that earlier approaches no longer have value or cannot contribute to a program of teaching culture in teaching language. For example, the area studies approach, evidenced by the provision of information about the geography, history and institutions of Indonesia, obviously provides essential, though not sufficient, content knowledge related to Indonesian culture. Table 3 (above) displays an analysis of the Cultural Notes in terms of how often and where they embody three of these four approaches to culture in language teaching. In this the TIFL materials were well ahead of contemporary practice at the time they were created. Students spoke highly of the Cultural Notes and several who went to Indonesia took them along to refer to as a guide on their travels.⁴⁴

(f) Grammar materials

Reeve felt that the need to explain grammar and usage meant that there was too much English in most Indonesian course-books. Yet the explanations were useful, and students liked to have something to refer to. His innovative solution was to combine the grammar and usage explanations into a separate reference grammar⁴⁵ and he arranged for Dr James Sneddon to be included in the project team as the senior linguist. The TIFL Project ‘Grammar Notes’ were the result. As well as the TIFL Grammar Notes, Sneddon later wrote the *Indonesian Reference Grammar*⁴⁶ with a grant from DEET through the TIFL project. It was published simultaneously in the US, UK and Australia. This book builds on the work Sneddon had done for the TIFL materials, but is more a more advanced and detailed treatment. It constitutes the most complete description of Indonesian grammar targeted at learners that is available in English, and it contains clear explications of many points that learners need to know. Furthermore, unlike nearly everything that was previously available in English, it is descriptive rather than prescriptive, which represents an enormous advance on previous grammar materials for Indonesian.

The purpose of the Grammar Notes is to explain linguistic items drawn from the teaching material in language that is accessible to students. They contain no exercises for practice. They are meant to be read at home and then discussed in class, with supporting exercises if needed. However, they can be regarded as a pedagogic grammar, rather than purely a reference grammar, because they are intended for the use of learners, and contain information that is designed to explain to English-speaking learners the appropriate way to use Indonesian. For example, the following section is quite clearly directed to inform learners about the illocutionary effects of different ways of expressing that one has lost one’s watch:

⁴⁴ Read 2002: Section 7.3.

⁴⁵ Reeve 1991: 5.

⁴⁶ Sneddon 1996.

9.1 ADVERSATIVE VERBS WITH AFFIX *KE-...AN*

These verbs indicate that the person involved is unpleasantly or negatively affected by the action. The sentence *Jam saya hilang* ‘**My watch is lost**’ makes a neutral statement about what has happened, with no emphasis on its adverse effect on me. However the sentence *Saya kehilangan jam* emphasises the fact of my misfortune. The usual translation is ‘**I’ve lost my watch**’ though a more literal translation would be ‘**I’ve been subjected to the loss of a watch**’.⁴⁷

In general, the descriptions of Indonesian grammar in the Grammar Notes are designed for practical effect: they aim to help learners develop grammatical competence as a component of communicative competence. They are not included for the purpose of linguistic analysis. In other words, the approach to grammar in the TIFL material is that grammar will be acquired naturally and inductively for the most part, with more detailed treatment for the items or entities that learners find difficult to master. The learners’ attention is directed to grammar via the Grammar Notes, but grammatical items are actively taught only as needed to develop communicative competence, not for their own sake. The view was taken that grammar exercises were already plentifully available in older materials if they were needed.

Grammatical competence means knowledge of the language code, including lexical items, rules of morphology and syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology. Early models of communicative competence included grammatical competence.⁴⁸ However, Krashen’s ideas subsequently contributed to a perception that formal instruction in grammar is often inefficient and of limited value to SL success. His Input Hypothesis⁴⁹ amounts to a claim that if L2 learners are exposed to ‘comprehensible input’ and are provided with opportunities to focus on meaning and messages rather than grammatical forms and accuracy, they will be able to acquire morphology and syntax as they comprehend meaning, in much the same way as L1 learners. In other words, L2 acquisition can occur naturally; and if it does, the learner develops an implicit feeling for what is correct.

However, the concept of grammatical consciousness-raising put forward in Rutherford and Sharwood Smith 1988 rests on two characteristics of adult language learning which have been identified by a number of researchers:⁵⁰ (1) that the provision of comprehensible input alone is not sufficient to ensure L2 grammatical accuracy; and (2) that at appropriate times some form of grammatical consciousness-raising is effective in improving such accuracy. The associated pedagogical grammar hypothesis assumes that hypothesis testing on the part of learners is an integral part of their achievement of grammatical competence, and claims that instructional strategies that draw the attention of the learner to structures will tend to result in faster language learning.

Corder 1988: 129-133 suggests that learning grammar is fundamentally an inductive process, but one which can be controlled and facilitated by descriptions and explanations given at the appropriate moment and formulated in a way which is appropriate to the maturity, knowledge and sophistication of the learner. In other words, the teacher’s job is to provide the learners with the right data at the right time and teach them how to learn; that is, help them develop appropriate learning strategies and means of testing their hypotheses. The old controversy about whether to provide

⁴⁷ TIFL Intermediate Grammar Notes, p. 35.

⁴⁸ E.g., Canale and Swain 1980.

⁴⁹ Krashen 1985: 2-3.

⁵⁰ E.g., Bley-Vroman 1988, Corder 1988.

the rule first and then the examples or vice versa is, he suggests, merely a matter of tactics, to which no categorical answer can be given. Giving a rule or description first means directing the learners' attention to the problem, or establishing a readiness for the task; giving the examples or data first means encouraging the learners to develop their own mental set of strategies for dealing with the task. This implies that they must be given the opportunity to make decisions or choices and, consequently, run the risk of making errors.

The Grammar Notes in the TIFL materials function as a grammatical consciousness-raising stimulus. The process described above is very much what can occur in an instructional program based on the TIFL materials: a mixture of (a) exposure to rules and descriptions via the Grammar Notes; (b) inductive learning based on the listening and reading exercises; and (c) focused practice if and when problems become evident. Most of the students who were interviewed spoke highly of the approach to grammar in the TIFL materials and regarded the Grammar Notes as a valuable reference.⁵¹

So far, this article has described the shortcomings of early teaching materials for Indonesian and some of the innovative advances provided by the TIFL project. There were other aspects of the TIFL materials which were less successful. Some of them had great potential but were largely ignored because of flaws, or not taken up because of lack of understanding or misconceptions about how to use them.⁵² On the other hand, the TIFL materials were the first materials in Indonesian to teach reading for gist. Many of the impressive total of 269 reading texts⁵³ (nearly all authentic) may now be out of date and no longer in use; but the principle of reading for gist has been taken up enthusiastically, and is now widely used, to the point where reading intensively has now become a rarity. Should intensive reading retain a place in the curriculum? There are many unanswered questions about the best pedagogy that need consideration.

9. New influences on language teaching

Other ideas, drawn largely from the theory and pedagogy of education, have begun to influence SL pedagogy since the TIFL materials were conceived, e.g., scaffolding, task-based language teaching and project-based learning. What is common to all these is a paradigm shift from the traditional underpinning of education where learning was upheld as a result of and response to the transmission of authoritarian and coded knowledge. They legitimise learners' experiences by allowing space for learners to participate in the process of knowledge construction. The parallel with the well-known concept of interlanguage⁵⁴ to describe the learner's version of the target language is obvious. The teacher's role is not diminished, but these ways of teaching necessitate teachers using their knowledge and resources to co-produce possible and effective learning projects for and with learners. Learners set their own objectives and time-frame as well as plan their own study goals. They are supported to develop confidence in their ability to direct their own learning, by becoming aware of their own learning preferences. A range of learning experiences are sequenced and students develop reflective thinking upon the experiences along the provided range.

⁵¹ Read 2002: Section 7.3.

⁵² Interviews were conducted with 16 lecturers in Indonesian language who had taught with the TIFL materials, from eight universities in four states/territories (*Ibid*: Section 7.2).

⁵³ *Ibid*: 441 (Table 12).

⁵⁴ Selinker 1972; Richards 1974: 31-54.

Classroom activities include many types of exercises and tasks such as role-plays, simulations, project-based learning, cooperative learning, participatory activities, constructive learning, problem-solving activities, as well as group and pair work, assignments, projects, presentations, discussions, and sharing with the whole class. The curriculum can be a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since learners are closely involved in the decision-making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught. The activities and tasks can be linked to different perspectives on language teaching and learning and may fit more than one student learning style.

(a) *Scaffolding*

Scaffolding (e.g., Hammond 2001) is based on the ideas of Vygotsky,⁵⁵ who developed the idea of the zone of proximal development, the cognitive process in which the ‘spontaneous’ concepts developed by the child or learner can meet the ‘scientific’ concepts of the teacher or adult in a cooperative dialogue. Wood et al. 1976 introduced the term ‘scaffolding’ as a metaphor to capture the nature of support and guidance. The key feature is that teachers, through their sequencing of teaching activities and the quality of their support and guidance, are able to challenge and extend what students are able to do. By participating in such activities students are pushed beyond their current abilities and levels of understanding, and it is then that learning occurs and students are able to internalise new understandings. The ideal learning context is a combination of high challenge and high support, such as can occur in conversational dialogues between the teacher and a class in the target language, e.g., discussing a text, extending a discussion beyond the text to the real world in various ways, discussing aspects of language used in the text, such as alternative ways of saying things, alternative sentence structures, and so forth. Students find such dialogues intensely stimulating and enjoyable, and they are a powerful teaching and learning activity too seldom used in language classrooms. The development of materials designed to be used in such activities, with accompanying notes for teachers on the technique, would be a valuable addition to the pedagogy of Indonesian.

(b) *Task-based language teaching and project-based learning*

Within the communicative language teaching framework, task-based learning and project-based learning approaches integrate language and content learning objectives because use of language and explicit attention to language-related features (e.g., forms, vocabulary, skills) are needed at various points in the exploration of themes. Their point of departure lies in the task-chaining or continuity, in which a collection of instructionally sequenced and integrated tasks all contribute opportunities for learning and practising language.

The task-based language approach⁵⁶ has become a central concept in TESOL in the Asia-Pacific region (as usual, ideas come into foreign language teaching from the powerhouse of TESOL, due to the growth in global English). In Nunan’s definition, ‘A pedagogical task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to

⁵⁵Vygotsky 1973.

⁵⁶ E.g., Ellis 2003; Nunan 2004.

express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end.⁵⁷ What is special about the approach is the way tasks are selected and sequenced to develop higher levels of communicative proficiency. Demands placed on students increase from one phase to the next and skills acquired or practised in one phase are extended in succeeding steps. An important conceptual basis is experiential learning. This takes the learner's immediate personal experience as the point of departure for the learning experience. The active involvement of the learner is therefore central to the task. It is 'learning by doing', in contrast to the traditional 'transmission' approach to education in which the learner acquires knowledge passively from the teacher.⁵⁸

Project-based learning (PBL) is a more elaborate and generally more fully learner-centred type of task-based learning. The earlier tasks involving controlled use of language act as a model providing students with language content to draw on when they come to produce their own language at the later stage. Bridging or motivating activities serve as less controlled activities training part-skill communication that will then be combined into total skills of communicative activities in free-use language activities, namely full-scale projects. Activities include planning; gathering information through reading, listening, interviewing, and observing; groups discussion of information; problem solving (e.g., task allocation); oral and written reporting; and display. Tasks are goal-oriented because all tasks have a specific objective that must be achieved in a given time. Students will encounter holistic chunks of language that will often be beyond their current capacity. Keeping the goals in mind, students concentrate on understanding and conveying meanings so as to complete the goals successfully. Actual samples of student language, or aspects of their interactions with peers during task completion, are analysed and recorded for assessing learning progress. Its prominent characteristics (e.g., processing and making sense of knowledge, use of language as communication, learning a language via content, collaboration with peers and teachers, selection and grading of tasks) make PBL a versatile approach for fully integrating with other language teaching approaches. It is advisable, however, that students who are used to formal and structured teaching should be introduced via preliminary activities, so as to develop receptiveness to more self-directed project work.⁵⁹

10. A new teaching materials initiative is needed

It was the tragedy of the TIFL project that the materials were never properly evaluated after they were produced, nor were they ever properly published. The politicians and bureaucrats who oversaw the project, and then forgot it, have all moved on, but the lecturers in universities are still teaching Indonesian language, still largely without properly designed or well-produced curriculum materials.

We hope that under the Gillard government a new teaching materials initiative for Indonesian language teaching at tertiary level can be mounted. It should begin with a thorough survey of the best developments in the past fifty years. It should be based on a coherent philosophy and a team approach. It should rediscover the best features of the communicative paradigm of language learning, and encompass also new developments such as those that have been mentioned briefly in this article.

⁵⁷ Nunan 2004: 4.

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*

⁵⁹ Fried-Booth 1987.

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