

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

**Teachers of additional languages
in New Zealand schools:
A national survey and case studies**

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Applied Linguistics

at Massey University, Manawatu Campus, New Zealand

Adèle Jeannette Scott

2014

Abstract

While languages additional to the language of instruction have long been an established, non-compulsory part of the New Zealand secondary school curriculum, it was only in 2007 that they were given an official place as a learning area in the national curriculum. They do, however, remain non-compulsory. This study aims to investigate the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools, and perceptions of their role, place and identity.

In late 2008, teachers of additional languages at Years 1 to 13 were invited to complete a national online language teachers' survey (NOLT08) (n=317). Two teachers of Spanish and one teacher of Japanese were invited to participate in individual case studies carried out across two school terms in 2010. Data were gathered through interviews and regular entries in a reflective e-log focusing on their situated experiences as teachers of additional languages together with their perceptions of their role and identity.

Results of the NOLT08 survey confirmed that teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools had different levels of qualifications and experiences depending on the sector in which they were teaching. Teacher perceptions of their roles ranged from those who felt supported and considered the teaching of additional languages an integral part of their professional role, to those who were hindered by a lack of agency and confidence in their proficiency, frustrations with multi-level classes, or assessment demands. Important themes to emerge from the case studies include that being a teacher of additional languages requires a commitment of self and an ability to advocate for the learning area. With supportive schools, primary teachers are developing their own understandings of how to incorporate languages inside and outside of the classroom setting.

This study suggests that the place of teaching additional languages in New Zealand schools is far from established or secure. It highlights the challenges to the role and identity of teachers of additional languages, not least of which is the often-tenuous position of the languages learning area in schools.

Dedicated to my nephews, Alexander and Zac

along with my other 'children'

Nicki, Matthew, Emma, Giorgia, Eliza, Sophia, Liam, Amy, Matthew, William, Ellie,
James, Sophie, Sam, Zoe, Caitlin, Anna, Libby, Sean, Kino-chan

May you all discover the joy of learning languages

Acknowledgements

This study has been a part of my life for several years. Anyone who has had contact with me over that time will have had contact with my study. To the many people who have kept me going, I cannot thank you enough.

My heartfelt thanks go to the over 300 teachers who responded to my survey. I am particularly indebted to the three case study teachers who gave so generously of their time and shared so much of their language learning and teaching experiences. Whenever the doctoral journey seemed too difficult, I only had to listen to a few minutes of your interviews to be reminded that your stories were my reason for embarking on this task. Your passion for your craft shone through time and again. To NZALT members, past and present, I am inspired by your dedication to your students and your commitment to ensure their language learning experiences are the best they can be.

My gratitude goes to my supervisors Professor Cynthia White, Dr. Lone Jorgenson, Dr. France Grenaudier-Klijn and Dr. Alison Kearney. Thank you all for your expertise and commitment to supporting me throughout my study. I was truly well-supervised!

Stew, you didn't know what you were getting yourself into but you knew exactly when I needed to hear those three words "you'll be ok". Thank you for being you.

Thanks to my former colleague-friends, at the College of Education, Massey University who encouraged me from the start and kept me sane through the painful times to the end of the PhD tunnel. Friends and workmates in New Zealand, Australia, Japan and the USA who have cheered me on with timely walks, wine, wisdom and wit: Janet, Pete, Nan, Harry, Yvette, Dale, Gunhild, Jan, Margaret, Pete, Dawn, Allan, Philippa (you rock), Jeremy, Tracey-Lynne (my Waikawa wahine), Liam, Stephanie, David, Martin, Bev, Pete, Lynda, Anne, Ally, Aly, Karen, Jayne, Maggie, Carrol, Julie, Julie, Rose, Marti, Gabrielle, Naomi, Gillie, Robyn, Mark, Santi, Marc, Maree, Liz, Helen, Elin, Susan, Jocelyn, Mike, Bryce, Gaile, Jeremy, Jenny, Kay, Viv, Emiko, Junko, Hatsue, Yoshie, Yuka, Yuki, Makoto, Yukari.

To Mum, Kathy (QSM), and Dad, Alex Scott—thank you for your prayers and for instilling in me a love of language learning. Thanks also to big sis Joy, Julian, Alexander and Zac—love you all lots, and to wider family members Jeanette, Colin, Neville, Dot, Geoff, Fiona, Joanne—thanks for being part of my life.

I also acknowledge the management committee of the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education for awarding me a most generous postgraduate scholarship, enabling me to find headspace out of a busy full-time workload to begin this research.

Table of Contents

Chapter One: Teaching and learning additional languages in Aotearoa New Zealand	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Learning languages: A personal journey	3
1.3 Research questions	5
Aim of the study.....	5
Research questions	5
Rationale for the study	5
1.4 Languages of New Zealand	6
The place of te reo Māori.....	6
New Zealand Sign Language.....	7
New Zealand’s obligations towards languages of the Pacific	9
1.5 The cultural and linguistic diversity of the New Zealand population	10
1.6 Languages for travel and trade	11
1.7 Languages in education	12
1.8 Languages in the New Zealand Curriculum	13
1.9 Languages in schools	16
1.10 Support for languages in the curriculum	18
Te reo Māori in English-medium schools.....	18
Pasifika languages	19
Other additional languages.....	20
1.11 The languages policy environment	21
Call for national policy.....	21
School-level policy.....	22
Who is allowed to teach languages?	23
1.12 Summary	23
Chapter Two: Literature review	25
2.1 Introduction	25
2.2 Role and identity	25
2.3 A framework for identity development	28
2.4 Quality teaching as authored by the government and institutions	31
Roles, functions, rights and responsibilities	32
The nature of teaching and learning.....	34

2.5	Quality languages teaching	36
2.6	Professional development and professional learning	39
2.7	Teacher communities	42
2.8	Impact of educational policy on place	43
2.9	Summary	46
Chapter Three: Methodology		47
3.1	Introduction	47
3.2	Research questions	47
3.3	Research paradigm	48
3.4	Mixed-methods research design	49
3.5	Research methods	50
	The NOLT08 survey	50
	Using case study	51
3.6	Data collection phases	53
	Phases One and Two: The National Online Language Teachers' 2008 survey (NOLT08)—a snapshot in time.....	53
	Strategies to ensure a good response rate	54
	Phase Three: Cases—changes over time	56
3.7	Methodological issues	57
	Ethical issues.....	57
3.8	Development of the instruments	59
	NOLT08 survey (Phases One and Two)	59
	Development of the survey questions	59
	Pilot of the NOLT08 survey.....	60
	Semi-structured interviews and e-logs	62
	Unexpected data.....	64
	Summary of data collection tools.....	65
3.9	Data analysis	67
	Analysis of the survey data.....	67
	Analysis of the interview and e-log data.....	68
	Blending the data from Phases Two and Three.....	69
3.10	Data presentation in the thesis	69
3.11	The contexts of the three cases	70
	Introducing Julie, Helen and Eve	71
	The e-log data	73
3.12	Summary	75

Chapter Four: Who is teaching languages in New Zealand schools? Results

from the NOLT08 survey	77
4.1 Introduction	77
4.2 School context	78
School background: School type, decile ratings and size	78
Official languages of New Zealand.....	81
4.3 Participant background: Gender, age, ethnicity, mother tongue	82
Ethnicity	83
Mother tongue.....	84
Relationship between mother tongue, ethnicity and subjects taught	85
4.4 Qualifications and teacher registration	86
Teaching qualifications	87
Other tertiary qualifications.....	88
Teacher registration	88
4.5 Length of time teaching and current position	89
Length of time teaching.....	89
Current position	89
Classroom teacher (n=138).....	91
Head of Department/Assistant Head of Department (n=102)	92
Assistant Principal/Deputy Principal (n=14).....	92
Principal/Teaching Principal (n=6).....	92
Language teacher from outside the school (n=6)	92
Other (n=14)	93
4.6 Language teaching background and proficiency	94
Year levels taught.....	94
Languages taught.....	94
Language teacher profiles.....	96
Chinese	97
French.....	97
German	97
Japanese.....	98
Latin.....	98
Te reo Māori.....	98
Samoan	99
Spanish	99
Reported proficiency in languages being taught.....	99
How main language learnt.....	101

Professional learning opportunities in second language teaching and pedagogy	102
Teaching languages in other countries	103
4.7 Choosing to be a teacher of additional languages	104
Reasons for teaching languages	104
Future intentions	105
Stay in teaching (n=197)	105
Leave teaching (n=41)	105
Have a career break and then go back to teaching (n=26)	106
Intending to retire	106
Subjects taught—other than languages	106
4.8 Language programmes	107
Configuration of classes	107
Additional comments	110
Multi-level classes	110
Timetable clashes	111
Several teachers taking the same class	111
Multiple qualifications	112
Correspondence School	112
4.9 Perceptions of own knowledge and skills	112
4.10 Discussion: Snapshot of the language-teaching context	113
Summary of NOLT08 survey results	113
Comparisons with the general teaching population	114
Choice to teach languages	115
Multi-level	116
4.11 Summary	118

Chapter Five: Julie: Secondary Japanese language specialist, beginning

primary teacher	119
5.1 Introducing Julie	119
5.2 Julie's professional learning journey	120
Becoming a teacher of languages	120
Compulsory languages at Whero High School	121
Languages offered	121
5.3 Challenges at school level	122
The challenge of changing context	122
Religious education context	123
Teacher's aide does not support students in the Japanese classes	123

	The benefits and disadvantages of trainee teachers	124
	Mixed-level classes	124
	Fluctuating numbers: moving between languages	125
	Lack of funding for professional development	126
5.4	Challenges related to the New Zealand educational policy environment ..	127
	Preparing for the visit from the Education Review Office	128
	Languages exempt and excluded	129
5.5	Affordances to professional learning.....	130
	Collaborative dialogue	130
	Reciprocity	131
	Time to reflect—a private dialogue	133
5.6	Julie’s beliefs about language teaching	134
	Should all teachers teach languages at primary school?	134
	The role of the primary languages classroom	135
	Julie’s Japanese classroom	135
	Pedagogical decisions about Japanese/beliefs about Japanese teaching	136
	Planning with the students in mind.....	138
5.7	Summary.....	139
Chapter Six: Helen: Primary specialist, beginning language teacher		141
6.1	Introducing Helen.....	141
6.2	Helen the language learner	142
	Helen’s choice of language	142
	The impact of seeing others succeed.....	144
	Limited language.....	144
	Modelling language learning.....	145
6.3	Helen the language teacher	145
	Language teaching pivotal	145
	Using Spanish for classroom routines	146
6.4	Teaching successes.....	148
	Spontaneous use of Spanish.....	148
6.5	Helen the team leader	149
6.6	Challenges related to the New Zealand educational policy environment ..	149
	Crowded curriculum.....	149
	Frustrations: Too much emphasis on literacy and numeracy.....	150
6.7	Helen’s beliefs about language teaching.....	152
	More than this is a waste	152

Students as users of language.....	153
Using Spanish 'outside a Spanish cultural context'	154
6.8 Summary	154
Chapter Seven: Eve: Learner-teacher of Spanish	155
7.1 Introducing Eve	155
7.2 Eve's language learning journey.....	156
Studying by distance.....	156
Lack of confidence	157
Language learning strategies	157
Ups and downs.....	158
7.3 Eve the language teacher.....	158
Tutoring	159
Itinerant teaching.....	160
Lead teaching.....	161
7.4 Summary	162
Chapter Eight: Helen and Eve: A synergetic relationship.....	165
8.1 Overlapping roles	165
8.2 Sharing expertise: The beginning of the Spanish programme	166
8.3 Feeding off each other	167
8.4 Comfortable in each other's company	168
8.5 Shared beliefs about language teaching and learning.....	169
Not every teacher should have to teach languages	169
Principals play a key role in deciding who teaches languages.....	170
Essential knowledge and skills for primary school teachers.....	171
Language programmes need to be purposeful.....	171
On being in a female-dominated profession	172
Being voted off the island.....	173
8.6 Living and breathing Spanish: The school camp like no other.....	173
Integrating Spanish language into the camp.....	173
Participant-observer	177
8.7 Networking with the wider language teaching community	178
Expectations for conference.....	179
Planning what to attend	180
8.8 Seizing the moments together	181
Flexibility of the primary school curriculum	182

8.9	Summary	183
8.10	Conclusion of case studies	184
Chapter Nine: What does it mean to be a teacher of additional languages in		
New Zealand schools?		
9.1	Introduction	187
9.2	What is the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in	
	New Zealand schools?.....	188
	Different teaching contexts call for different teaching approaches	193
	Primary teachers are generalist not specialist teachers.....	194
	Generally, primary teachers do not choose to teach languages	196
9.3	How do teachers perceive their role as teachers of additional languages,	
	and how does this impact on their identity?	196
	Teachers perceive their role differently depending on their context.....	197
	Teachers’ beliefs about how the languages curriculum should be enacted—using	
	additional languages as a tool for communication.....	199
	Language teaching and learning beyond the classroom—an investment of self	202
9.4	What is the place of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand	
	schools?	203
	The place of languages as determined at government and policy level.....	203
	The New Zealand Curriculum mandates seven out of eight learning areas for	
	implementation in schools	203
	Professional development for teachers of additional languages available for some	
	teachers.....	204
	Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) and universities’ initial teacher education	
	courses have little room for languages content and pedagogy courses	204
	The New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA): Literacy in English is valued,	
	contributions from additional languages are not.....	205
	Education Review Office (ERO) rarely visits languages classrooms.....	205
	The place of languages as determined at school level	205
	Teachers as advocates for languages in schools	205
	Undervaluing of additional languages.....	206
	Class sizes and the timetable	206
	The place of languages as determined at classroom level	207
	Access to languages is not equitable	207
	Not all teachers chose to teach an additional language, nor were they confident in	
	their ability to do so.....	208

9.5 Conclusions: How understandings of role and place contribute to the development of the language teacher identity	208
A model for next steps and recommendations for future research	209
Contributions to research and limitations of this study	213
Closing words—Take heart.....	216
References.....	217
Appendices.....	233
Appendix A: Phase One: Information sheet: Key stakeholders.....	233
Appendix B: Phase One: Interview schedule: Key stakeholders	235
Appendix C: Phase One: Consent form: Key stakeholders.....	237
Appendix D: Phase Two: Advertisement: Invitation to participate in NOLT08 survey	238
Appendix E: Phase Two: Information for respondents: From NOLT08 survey.....	240
Appendix F: National Online Language Teachers’ survey	243
Appendix G: Phase Three: Information sheet: Case study participants.....	264
Appendix H: Phase Three: Interview schedule: Case study participants	266
Appendix I: Phase Three: Consent form, interviews and audio recording: Case study participants	268
Appendix J: Phase Three: Authority for release of transcripts: Case study participants	269
Appendix K: Phase Three: Confidentiality agreement: Transcriber.....	270
Appendix L: Phase Three: Case study data collection: Timeframe and codes ...	271
Appendix M: Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Approval letters 2008 and 2010.....	272
Appendix N: Countries where respondents have taught English or other languages	274
Appendix O: Respondents’ reported knowledge and skills.....	275
Appendix P: Achievement Objectives: <i>Learning Languages</i>	276

List of Tables

Table 1:	Effective pedagogies for additional language classrooms in New Zealand	38
Table 2:	Research questions linked to data collection methods and types	66
Table 3:	Demographic data of the three cases	72
Table 4:	School type	79
Table 5:	School decile	80
Table 6:	School size	80
Table 7:	How the official languages of New Zealand are taught in schools	82
Table 8:	Proportion of teachers by gender and age	83
Table 9:	Mother tongue	84
Table 10:	Highest qualification in teaching	87
Table 11:	Highest tertiary qualification that is not a teaching qualification	88
Table 12:	Length of time teaching	89
Table 13:	Current position and gender	90
Table 14:	Teachers in each sector by main language taught	94
Table 15:	Languages taught in 2008	96
Table 16:	Reported proficiency in main language taught in 2008	100
Table 17:	How teachers learnt their main language	101
Table 18:	Professional learning opportunities	102
Table 19:	How teachers came to teach additional languages	104
Table 20:	Aspirations for the next five years	105
Table 21:	Subjects other than languages taught by teachers in the secondary sector	107
Table 22:	Year levels and number of classes taught	108
Table 23:	Number of weeks of instruction in a year	108
Table 24:	Number of teaching sessions per week	109
Table 25:	Length of teaching sessions	109
Table 26:	Number of students in a class	110
Table 27:	Whose class, type of class	110
Table 28:	Multi-level classes by language taught in the secondary school	111
Table 29:	Teacher perceptions of own knowledge and skill in teaching additional languages	113

List of Figures

Figure 1: Language-related curriculum documents and policies 1992-2013.....	15
Figure 2: Gee's (2000) four ways to view identity	28
Figure 3: Teacher identity through the lens of Gee's Institutional-, Discourse- and Affinity-identities	30
Figure 4: Data collection phases in this study.....	53
Figure 5: Spread of participants by region.....	81
Figure 6: Current position and gender	91
Figure 7: Main language taught by sector.....	95
Figure 8: Helen's classroom whiteboard and students' display of Spanish phrases..	147
Figure 9: The merging of Helen and Eve's professional lives.....	165
Figure 10: Figure 2 revisited.....	209
Figure 11: Institutional-identity vs Affinity-identity	210

Chapter One:

Teaching and learning additional languages in Aotearoa New Zealand

1.1 Introduction

Teaching and learning languages additional to the language of instruction in Aotearoa¹ New Zealand has never been a compulsory part of the school curriculum. A revision, however, of the national curriculum for schools led to the establishment of a learning area dedicated to the learning of languages other than English being included for the first time, joining the other seven existing learning areas². This revised *New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium teaching and learning in Years 1-13*³, was released on 6 November, 2007 (Ministry of Education, 2007c).

For teachers in the primary sector (teaching at Years 1 to 8) who are considered generalist rather than specialist teachers, this new learning area provides a challenge with regard to implementation (Scott, 2008). In many situations, this challenge is three-fold: firstly, these teachers often have little or no content knowledge (proficiency in the target language); secondly, they have limited pedagogical knowledge specific to language teaching (experience of second language acquisition and teaching methodologies) and thirdly, the pace of their language learning often is only just ahead of their students'. This situation flies in the face of the Ministry of Education's goals regarding quality teaching:

for every student to achieve to their potential we need teachers with appropriately high expectations and knowledge of their learners, up-to-date

¹ Aotearoa is the name given to New Zealand by the indigenous people of the land, the Māori. It is often translated to mean "the land of the long white cloud".

² The eight learning areas in the New Zealand Curriculum are English, the arts, health and physical education, learning languages, mathematics and statistics, science, social sciences, and technology (Ministry of Education, 2007c, pp. 7, 17).

³ Compulsory schooling in New Zealand is from age five to age 16, beginning with primary schooling from Years 0 to 8 (typically age five to 12) and secondary schooling from Years 9 to 13 (typically age 13 to 17). Some variations exist with some schools catering for all year levels (including The Correspondence School—Te Aho o Te Kura Pounamu which provides distance education from early childhood level to Year 13 <http://www.correspondence.school.nz/>) and others offering a selection (Years 7 and 8 (intermediate schools); Years 7 to 10 (middle schools) or even Years 7 to 13).

knowledge of their subject and the strategies to teach and assess for optimum learning. (Ministry of Education, n.d.-a (Education Counts))

Over recent years the New Zealand government has been increasing the support for language learning programmes and their teachers, particularly in regard to the support Years 7 and 8 (11-12 years old). Resourcing and professional development support from the Ministry of Education has targeted five languages—Chinese, French, German, Japanese and Spanish. Three evaluative studies of Ministry of Education-funded professional development programmes (Ellis, Loewen, & Hacker, 2005; Gibbs & Holt, 2003; Scott & Butler, 2007a) shed light on the effectiveness of this support and on areas for further intervention. The quality of delivery (covering teacher knowledge and second language proficiency, teacher beliefs, attributions and effectiveness), identified as an area for further development by Gibbs and Holt (2003), was addressed to some extent in the later professional development model as seen in Scott and Butler's evaluation (2007a). These studies provide some data on language teaching programmes in New Zealand schools but draw only from teachers who had access to funded professional development opportunities at specific levels of schooling.

The types of teaching programmes that are supported are also of interest. In my Master of Arts thesis (Lilly, 2001), critical factors were identified by teachers and principals in schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8. These factors acknowledged the importance of commitment from the principal, availability of appropriate resources and opportunities for teacher professional development and support. Also highlighted was the wide range of programme offerings. This previous study however, was limited to the teaching of Japanese at the two levels (Years 7 and 8).

There is a dearth of data regarding language teaching and learning in New Zealand schools with the exception of annual school roll returns to the Ministry of Education, which now include information on numbers of schools offering different languages and numbers of students studying languages at different year levels. The present study adds to the data about programmes that are offered in a range of languages and increases the understanding of the language-teaching context in New Zealand schools through examining how language teachers perceive their role, their place and ultimately their identity. The findings will help inform teachers, teacher educators, principals and policy

makers about how the new learning area in the curriculum is being implemented, and provide benchmark data for further studies.

Historical and political influences on the teaching and learning of languages in New Zealand schools are the focus of this chapter. The study gives consideration to New Zealand's official languages, its relationship with the languages of its closest neighbours as well as the way various government policies have highlighted the importance of languages in the wider New Zealand context. The context is one that has impacted and continues to impact on those who are the subjects of this study, namely the teachers of languages in New Zealand schools. Firstly however, I have provided a brief explanation of the inspiration for this study.

1.2 Learning languages: A personal journey

I was born into a family that appreciated languages. In 1924, at the age of 20, my grandmother was one of the first New Zealand women to gain a Masters degree in Classics and Language. She also received a scholarship to study at the University of the Sorbonne in Paris, before returning to New Zealand to teach Latin and French at a Wellington high school. Her daughter, Aunt Jeanette, pursued studies in medieval French and eventually became a Professor at Purdue University. Meanwhile, my parents were among the first students at Massey University to study Japanese in the 1960s. Not long after having started primary school, my sister and I were taken to Japan where we spent three years immersed in Japanese life while our parents carried out missionary work. Through this experience I developed a curiosity for languages and a few years after our return from Japan I joined the 'academic class' at secondary school where the expectation was that at least one language would be studied. Japanese was not available so I studied French and Latin, and was later permitted to begin Japanese via the Correspondence School in my third year. Although my grandmother had retired from teaching French several decades previously, she was only too willing to help with my French, giving me plenty of listening and speaking practice along with advice about my pronunciation and grammar. I continued with my study of Japanese and French at university and, as classmates struggled to learn vocabulary and recognise language patterns, I realised how fortunate I was to have had the opportunity to learn a language at a young age.

Initially rejected for entry into teacher training in the mid 1980s after being told that Japanese was going out of fashion and there were no places for teachers of languages at Teachers College, I moved to Japan to undertake postgraduate study. Perseverance however, paid off on my return, and I went on to become a qualified secondary school teacher teaching Japanese and French at a New Zealand secondary school for six years. I quickly realised that my head of department worked the longest hours of any staff member and was the go-to person for all questions relating to grammar or word use. Although she was the teacher of Latin and later Spanish, teachers from across the school, including those in the English department, frequently sought her understanding of semantics, syntax or morphology. I also witnessed her vigilance in promoting the learning of languages at the school when other colleagues would dismiss their importance. Likewise, she regularly communicated the benefits of the learning of additional languages to the students.

Many years later, during my time on the executive of the national body of the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers I realised that there were many teachers of additional languages who, like my former head of department, had a strong passion for the teaching and learning of additional languages but who were constantly being knocked back by their local situations. This made me even more determined to ensure that every student in New Zealand, whether in the primary, secondary or tertiary education sector, should have the opportunity to learn an additional language. This vision I sought to pass on to my teacher trainee students—in my role as a teacher educator—repeatedly encouraging them to see themselves as promoters of language learning beyond the classroom walls. As a researcher, I was also acutely aware that major studies on teacher practice in the education sector frequently only targeted main subjects taught in schools and yet the findings often were generalised to all classroom settings. Without empirical studies the anecdotal stories heard time and again at gatherings of teachers of languages would hold little weight in the national policy arena. The current study then, is the next stage of my journey.

1.3 Research questions

Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to find out who the teachers of languages are and provide a comprehensive picture of languages teaching in the New Zealand school setting. The study includes capturing teachers'

- demographic information (age, gender, school context);
- academic and professional background (qualifications, teaching experience); and their
- own knowledge, skills and beliefs about languages teaching and learning in relation to the classes they teach.

Research questions

This study addresses the following three questions:

- What is the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools?
- How do teachers perceive their *role* as teachers of additional languages, and how does this impact on their *identity*?
- What is the *place* of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools?

The three research questions are important, as they give a place in research to those who are called upon to plan for and deliver the learning associated with the newest learning area of the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c).

Rationale for the study

The impetus for the study is to provide a voice for the teachers of additional languages across all levels of schooling in New Zealand. The three research questions underpin the collection of empirical data via an online survey. The findings from the survey may help to determine the current and future professional needs of teachers of languages, the kinds of support schools may require and whether the backgrounds of those teaching at different levels of the curriculum require different approaches to these needs. The research questions also guide an in-depth qualitative study of three teachers. It is these

teachers' perceptions of their roles and identities as language teachers that will be explored and discussed. Insights from the teachers' voices from both sets of data will help to clarify the place of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools.

1.4 Languages of New Zealand

English, spoken by 96.1% of the New Zealand population of just over 4.2 million people (Statistics New Zealand, 2013b) is by far the most commonly used language in the country. However, it is only given de facto official language status (Ministry of Education, 2007c). When New Zealand was colonised in the mid-1800s all English laws were adopted. Specifically in 1841 the laws of New South Wales were extended to cover the islands of New Zealand (Public Ordinance June 3, 1841). English was the official language of England and all her 'possessions'. In other words, English became the official language of New Zealand by default. The two de jure (by law in New Zealand) languages are te reo Māori⁴ (Māori Language Act, 1987) and New Zealand Sign Language (New Zealand Sign Language Act, 2006). Following a brief background to these two languages, the importance of the languages of the Pacific to New Zealand are then considered.

The place of te reo Māori

Te reo Māori is the indigenous language of New Zealand, the language of the 'tangata whenua' or the 'people of the land', but it has not always been considered important to maintain. After the arrival of European settlers in New Zealand in the 1800s and the subsequent signing of the Treaty of Waitangi⁵ in 1840, the English language took hold. By the early part of the twentieth century, te reo Māori was actively suppressed in schools. Teachers and Māori parents alike considered English more essential for daily life, and hence English became the language that was emphasised in places of work, leisure and learning. Despite this focus on English, te reo Māori was still being actively used at gatherings of Māori people, in homes, and through Māori literature right up until the Second World War (Ministry for Culture and Heritage, 2013).

⁴ The term 'Māori' can refer to the indigenous people of New Zealand, the Māori people; their language—also referred to as te reo Māori; and to Māori cultural practices—also referred to as tikanga Māori.

⁵ The Treaty of Waitangi, signed in 1840 between the British Crown and Māori chiefs, signified New Zealand's formal constitutional relationship with Britain and is considered New Zealand's founding document.

After the Second World War, many Māori moved away from their rural family settings to the English language-dominated cities for work (Ministry for Culture and Heritage, 2013). Over the following few decades, as the number of speakers of te reo Māori declined, concerned urban-based groups and Māori leaders sought changes, which began the revitalisation of the language. The Waitangi Tribunal established in 1975 by the Treaty of Waitangi Act (1975) was “charged with making recommendations on claims brought by Māori relating to actions or omissions of the Crown that breach the promises made in the Treaty of Waitangi” (Waitangi Tribunal, 2013, para. 1). Among other things, this tribunal determined that te reo Māori “is an essential part of the culture and must be regarded as a valued possession” (1989, p. 20) and consequently recommended to parliament the passing of the Māori Language Act (1987). This Act declared te reo Māori as an official language of New Zealand and allowed for the Māori Language Commission to be set up (Māori Language Commission, n.d.). Such acknowledgement of te reo Māori resulting from “renewed calls from the Māori world for their language to be recognised in the wider New Zealand context, have brought the question of language diversity to the attention of a larger number of New Zealanders” (Waite, 1992a, p. 9).

More recently, the attention paid to te reo Māori is evident in the increase from both Māori and non-Māori people in their knowledge, attitudes and general values about the Māori language (Te Puni Kōkiri, 2010). Since 2000, Te Puni Kōkiri⁶, also known as the Ministry for Māori Development, have conducted regular phone surveys seeking to measure these attitudes. Over the four surveys undertaken between 2000 and 2009, Te Puni Kōkiri (2010) declares that there have been significant gains in positive attitudes towards the Māori language by non-Māori but that there still remains the ongoing challenge to translate these positive attitudes into actions that would support the learning and use of te reo Māori.

New Zealand Sign Language

The same year that New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL) became an official language of New Zealand in 2006 (2006), 24,090 people reported the ability to use NZSL (Statistics New Zealand, 2006a). Deaf Aotearoa New Zealand, a not-for-profit

⁶ Te Puni Kōkiri was established in 1992 under the Ministry of Māori Development Act 1991.

organisation that “promotes the advancement of human rights for Deaf⁷ people” (Deaf Aotearoa New Zealand, n.d), reports that there are some 9,000 people in New Zealand who are culturally Deaf. That is, they use NZSL as a first language and identify with the culture and community associated with NZSL.

In the late nineteenth century however, the use of sign language, or signing, was actively discouraged by the Director of the School for Deaf Mutes, Mr Van Asch (The Cyclopeda Company Limited, 1903). This school, based in the South Island of New Zealand, favoured the use of spoken language and lip-reading only. According to a lecture given by Dr David McKee, Research Director of Deaf Studies Research Unit at Victoria University, Wellington in August 2013, it was not until the 1980s that the government allowed signing in the classroom—albeit an artificial signing system following the English language syntax rather than a representation of the language of deaf New Zealanders.

The New Zealand Sign Language Act (2006) was widely welcomed although its passing did not automatically mean that NZSL would be embraced by government agencies, education communities and the general public of New Zealand. In response to ongoing “enquiries and complaints from deaf people about discrimination they experience trying to access or use NZSL” (Human Rights Commission, 2013, p. 8), the Human Rights Commission conducted an inquiry. The purpose of this inquiry was to examine “the right to education for deaf people and other NZSL users; the right to freedom of expression and opinion including the right to receive and impart information using NZSL interpreter services, and the promotion and maintenance of NZSL as an official language of New Zealand” (p. 9). The resulting report from the inquiry contains 15 recommendations covering resourcing and training in the education and health sectors with a view to reducing the barriers faced by deaf people and other NZSL users. The hope is that by implementation of these recommendations NZSL will be better promoted and protected.

⁷ Deaf Aotearoa New Zealand use an initial capital to distinguish culturally Deaf people from those who might be hard of hearing but do not associate with the Deaf community.

New Zealand's obligations towards languages of the Pacific

Along with te reo Māori, New Zealand Sign Language, and English, New Zealand also has obligations towards speakers of other languages.

The Cook Islands, Niue and Tokelau are all protectorates and are part of the official realm of New Zealand. These three island groups all moved towards some form of self-governance in the last 50 years, but they are not fully independent from New Zealand, with all people from these islands considered citizens of New Zealand. The Cook Islands were initially administered by New Zealand when handed over by Britain in early 1900s. Since 1965, they have been independent of New Zealand but have maintained a relationship of free association. Free association is a status distinct from that of full independence in that it allows the Cook Islands people to maintain New Zealand citizenship, while administering their own affairs. Niue followed in 1974 with a similar arrangement. New Zealand has administrative responsibilities for Tokelau and although it has no administrative presence there, it is considered New Zealand's last colonial territory (Angelo, 2009).

For these three island groups, the close relationship with New Zealand means a heavy reliance on New Zealand for advice and support, including in relation to the implementation of sound educational systems. Niue has completely adopted the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c) as the guiding document for teaching and learning programmes in schools incorporating the National Certificate of Educational Achievement⁸ (NCEA) qualifications at the senior levels of the curriculum. The Cook Islands have based their curriculum framework on New Zealand documents and also encourage students to complete NCEA qualifications. New Zealand funds 90% of the Tokelauan government's budget (New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade; Statistics New Zealand, 2012). The Tokelauan Department of Education (run out of Apia, Samoa, some 500km south of Tokelau) administers its own junior and senior curricula with students at senior levels studying towards university foundation courses through the University of the South Pacific in Fiji (Swain & Ulu, 2010).

⁸ NCEA or the National Certificate of Educational Achievement, is the New Zealand qualification offered at three levels—level one, level two, level three—to senior secondary school students generally studying at Years 11, 12 and 13 respectively. <http://www.nzqa.govt.nz/qualifications-standards/qualifications/ncea>

Tokelau, Niue and the Cook Islands have small populations: in 2006 the three atolls of Tokelau had 1411 residents, Niue 1625 residents and, in 2011 the Cook Islands 14,974 residents (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2013). The 2006 New Zealand census revealed that many more identifying with these islands now resided in New Zealand: 7,176 Tokelauans, 23,883 Niueans, and 61,839 Cook Islands Māori people (Statistics New Zealand, 2013a). The languages of these islands are, respectively, gagana Tokelau, vagahau Niue, and Cook Islands Māori, and are considered indigenous languages of the Realm of New Zealand, due to the fact that the majority of speakers of these languages are considered New Zealand citizens. New Zealand has obligations towards protecting and maintaining these languages and their associated cultures, not just on the islands themselves but also within New Zealand (Human Rights Commission, 2008; McCaffery & McFall-McCaffery, 2010; Ministry of Justice & Ministry of Pacific Island Affairs, 2000).

In addition, some 144,138 identifying with the Independent State of Samoa and a further 60,336 with the Kingdom of Tonga are also living in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand, 2013a). While not all these people will be citizens of New Zealand, the number of potential speakers of Gagana Sāmoa and Tongan in New Zealand communities is large enough to have been given support by the Ministry of Education.

1.5 The cultural and linguistic diversity of the New Zealand population

Over a twelve-year period, from 2001-2013, data from the five-yearly New Zealand Census of Population and Dwellings⁹ show a steady increase in the number of New Zealand residents identifying with a range of cultures and languages. At each census, people are asked which ethnicities they identify with and which languages they can use to have a conversation about a lot of everyday things. They can choose more than one ethnicity and more than one language.

Although still making up 74% of the population in 2013, the number of people identifying as New Zealand European had been on the decrease (80% of the population

⁹ The 2011 Census was not held as planned, due to the Christchurch earthquake on 22 February 2011. It was held two years later on 5 March 2013.

in 2001, 67.6% in 2006¹⁰). The next largest ethnic group identified as Māori (14.3% in 2001 and 14.6% in 2006 and 14.9% in 2013). There was an almost 50% increase in the number of people identifying with the Asian ethnic group from the 2001 census to the 2013 census (6.6% of the population in 2001, 9.2% in 2006, and 11.8% in 2013). Those identifying with the Pacific peoples ethnic group has increased to 7.4% of the total population (up from 6.3% in 2001 and 6.5% in 2006). Increases for other ethnic groups were less marked (Statistics New Zealand, 2001, 2006b).

The 1996 Census was the first time that respondents were asked to indicate the languages they speak (Cook, 1997). In 2013, despite around a quarter of the usually resident population being born outside New Zealand, and over 19% identifying as belonging to an ethnic group from either Asia or the Pacific, just 18% of the population could speak more than one language (Statistics New Zealand, 2013b). Compared with earlier census data, this number does show a steady increase from 13.6% of the population in 1996, to 15.8% in 2001 and 17.5% in 2006 (Cook, 1997; Statistics New Zealand, 1996, 2001, 2006b). This is an overall increase in the 17 years between 1996 and 2013 of 56.1%, from 468,711 people in 1996 to 731,685 people in 2006 (Statistics New Zealand, 2006b, 2013b).

As to be expected, ethnicity and language ability are interrelated. Much of the increase in the number of people who can speak more than one language can be attributed to an increase in the migrant population:

New Zealand's changing ethnic composition and the impact of migration within the five years between 2001 and 2006 was reflected in the increasing diversity of languages spoken. (Statistics New Zealand, 2006a)

1.6 Languages for travel and trade

The ability to speak the languages of places we visit and countries we trade with has helped to facilitate both personal and business interactions (Watts, 1992; Watts & Trlin,

¹⁰ At the 2006 census, the New Zealander ethnic group was included as a new category separate from the New Zealand European group and a media campaign accompanied this change. In 2006 11.1% of the population, and in 2013 1.5%, identified themselves as New Zealanders. The 'decrease' in the New Zealand European category between 2001 and 2006 is therefore perhaps less marked than it would appear at first glance.

1999). New Zealanders like to travel abroad. According to the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Development (2009):

New Zealanders have a relatively high propensity to travel abroad, at 46 trips per 100 people in 2008, compared to an international average of 14 trips per 100 people. This is also higher than other island nations, where Australians had a propensity of 28 trips per 100 people, South Koreans at 25 trips per 100 people and Japanese at 13 trips per 100 people. (p. 2)

New Zealanders conduct business with many countries. New Zealand's top five trading partners are Australia, China, the United States, Japan and Korea (The Treasury, 2012). The Royal Society of New Zealand (2013) outlines some of the difficulties in attempting to evaluate the impact of language knowledge on trade. It reports on an attempt to calculate perceived loss of business to the UK economy due to communication barriers. These suggested losses are considered to be upwards of \$18 billion annually (Foreman-Peck, 2008) Newspaper headlines such as *Language barrier hurts exporters* (Meadows, 2013, August 8) have also highlighted the cost to New Zealand trade in recent times due to misunderstandings in communication.

1.7 Languages in education

The increase in the number of multilingual people in New Zealand is in most cases likely to be as a result of immigrant statistics rather than from an increase in the number of people studying other languages; particularly given that when, for the first time in the 1996 census, people were asked to identify languages in which they could “have a conversation about a lot of everyday things” they were instructed not to count languages they could “only have a very limited conversation in e.g. a language you learnt at school for a few years” (Statistics New Zealand, 1996)¹¹. One inference that can be drawn from this statement was that it was considered that one gained limited fluency from any language studied at school. Subsequent census support documents removed this wording. Regardless, school communities do reflect the cultural and linguistic diversity of the wider New Zealand population and they do provide for some study of cultures

¹¹ In later census collections this clarification was removed “as this is a self-complete survey, the meaning of this [‘A conversation about a lot of everyday things’] is open to interpretation” (Statistics New Zealand, 2013b).

and languages. A number of publications and government initiatives highlight the need to cater for this diversity in the classroom in order that students might benefit from an increasing range of inclusive practices (Centre of Excellence for Research in Inclusive Education., 2013; Ministry of Education, 2007c, 2013b). The following section describes the opportunities students in New Zealand primary and secondary schools have within the education system to gain an awareness of and learn about the cultures and languages of people in and beyond New Zealand shores.

Of interest to this study in particular, is the range of languages being studied in New Zealand schools and their place in the curriculum.

1.8 Languages in the New Zealand Curriculum

There are two national curricular documents in New Zealand that “set the direction for student learning and provide guidance for schools as they design and review their curriculum” (Ministry of Education, 2007a): *The New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium teaching and learning in years 1-13* (Ministry of Education, 2007c), and *Te Marautanga o Aotearoa* (Ministry of Education, 2010d). The former is for use in English-medium schools, and the latter, written in te reo Māori, is the national curriculum for Māori-medium schools. The English-medium setting is the focus for this study.

As indicated earlier in Section 1.4, New Zealand’s two official languages, te reo Māori and New Zealand Sign Language have special mention within the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 14). These two languages can be present in schools both as the language of instruction and studied additionally to the language of instruction. Furthermore, one of the underpinning principles of the national curriculum acknowledges the Treaty of Waitangi and the bicultural foundations of Aotearoa New Zealand. It goes on to state that within the curriculum “all students have the opportunity to acquire knowledge of te reo Māori me ōna tikanga¹²” (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 9). There is an expectation therefore that all schools will offer such opportunities. How much knowledge students will have the opportunity to acquire is not stated

¹² Tikanga represents the Māori worldview in relation to general behaviour in daily interactions, ways of being and responding to people, the environment and those who have since passed on (Bishop, 2003; Bishop, Berryman, Cavanagh, & Teddy, 2009; Mead, 2003; The Māori Language Commission, 2013).

although comprehensive data have been collected annually since 2004 on Māori language education in Māori and English-medium settings for those who learn Māori as well as for those students who do not learn Māori at all (Ministry of Education, 2012b).

Prior to the launch of the revised New Zealand Curriculum document in 2007 (Ministry of Education, 2007c), the previous document, *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* (Ministry of Education, 1993), positioned the learning of all languages (including the study of English language and literature) within the Language and Languages learning area. It acknowledged that “all students benefit from learning another language from the earliest practicable age” (p. 10), alongside assertions that students would have the opportunity to become proficient in Māori and, if students came to school with a Pacific Islands language or another community language, they would be able to develop and use their own language as an integral part of their schooling (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 10). About the same time, the government document *Education for the 21st Century* (Ministry of Education, 1994) established the key direction to assist education in New Zealand and provide National Education Aims that would set out the basis of education policy development (p. 7). Targets included schools demonstrating ongoing improvement in students’ achievement by 1998 and 2001 in subjects that included “Māori language, and other languages where these languages are offered” (p. 27). The intention was that “by 2001, all students in Forms 1 to 4 [Years 7 to 10] will have opportunities to study a language other than the primary language of instruction”. Throughout the 1990s and into the early 2000s, curricular documents were written to support teachers’ planning for their languages classrooms (Ministry of Education, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 1998a, 2002c, 2002d). Unlike similar documents for other subjects such as Mathematics, English, Science, Social Studies, Physical Education, Technology, and The Arts these languages documents were not gazetted and therefore held the status of guidelines only. An additional document to support schools new to language teaching was also released (Ministry of Education, 2002f). Figure 1 shows the timeline for the development of many of these key documents over the past two decades.

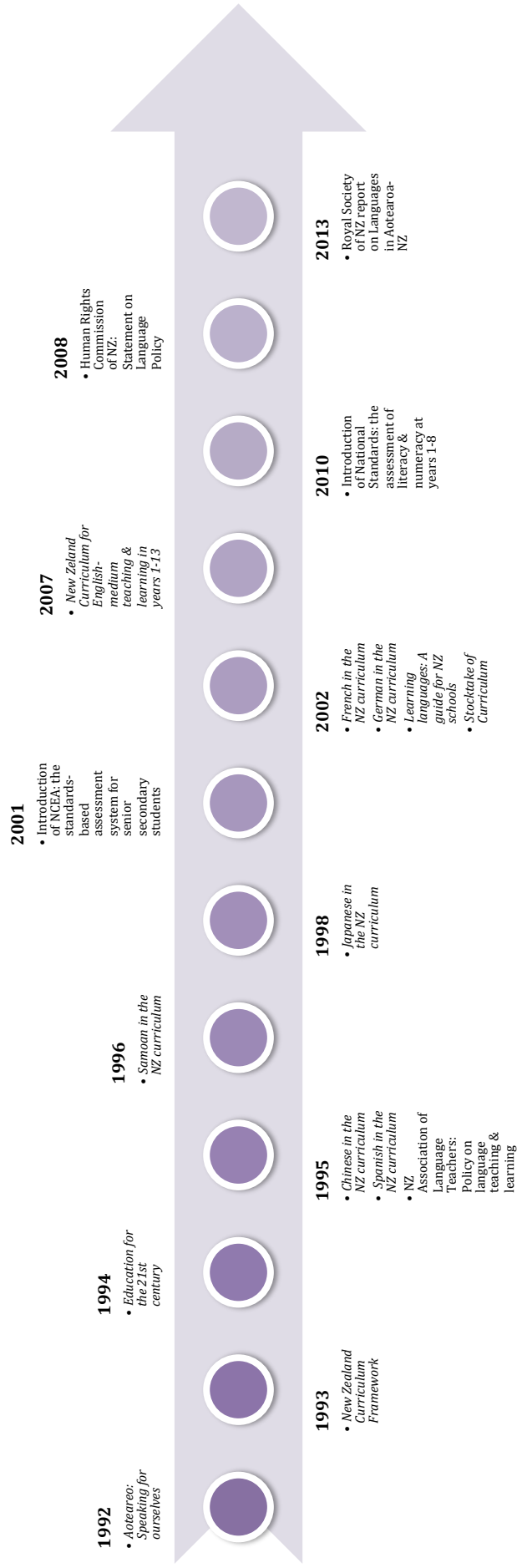


Figure 1: Language-related curriculum documents and policies 1992-2013

However, a stocktake of the New Zealand curriculum by two organisations with international curriculum expertise: the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) UK and the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) (Ministry of Education, 2002b, p. 7), found that these efforts were insufficient, highlighting the need for a 21st century curriculum to include languages more explicitly, making the following recommendation:

The essential learning area Language and Languages/Te Kōrero me ngā Reo should be two separate learning areas—English/te reo Māori and Languages. This separate area would include heritage, community and foreign languages and the learning of English and te reo Māori as second languages. Schools should be required to provide instruction in an additional language for students in years 7 to 10 (except for Māori immersion settings), but it should not be mandatory for all year 7-10 students to learn another language. Generic outcomes for Languages should be developed and included in the revised New Zealand Curriculum Framework and Te Anga Marautanga o Aotearoa. (p. 3)

A new learning area *Learning Languages* was therefore added to the newest national curriculum for schools to provide the opportunity for all students to learn a language other than the language of instruction (Ministry of Education, 2007c). However, despite the seven other learning areas being required to be taught to all students in their first ten years of compulsory schooling, schools only need to be “working towards” offering a programme for languages for students at Years 7-10 (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 44). The choice of which language(s) are offered to students, and how they are supported is left up to individual schools rather than being determined by the government.

1.9 Languages in schools

As part of the school roll return documentation to the Ministry of Education in July of each year, New Zealand schools with students in Years 9-13 are required to state the numbers of students studying specific subjects, including languages. Since the year 2000, primary schools have also been required to report languages studied. Data are collected for all languages studied: te reo Māori, European languages (French, German,

Spanish), Latin, Asian languages (Mandarin Chinese, Japanese, Korean), languages of the Pacific (Cook Islands Māori, Niuean, Samoan, Tokelauan and Tongan) as well as English. Given that students studying at secondary level (Year 9 and above) are generally in fixed timetabled hours per subject, the data for this sector are relatively straightforward to record. However, primary school data for specific subjects are less straightforward as schools might offer more than one language in any given year to any given class albeit for much shorter periods of time (a few hours over a fortnight, a month or a term). Data for students in Years 1-8 therefore record multiple entries for some students. Notwithstanding, it is clear from these school returns that there has been a shift in the numbers of students studying specific languages, over the last 10-15 years. It is useful to take a look at the range of languages offered in New Zealand schools and to consider some of the reasons behind those languages that have gained popularity over the past two decades.

Traditionally, languages taught in New Zealand schools were strongly influenced by the British educational system with classical languages such as Latin and Greek being taught to the more academic students. Later, European languages were added to broaden the choice to include those languages that could be studied for literary purposes. French and German were frequently studied and, in a small number of schools, Russian was also studied (Byram, Lapkin, Lo Bianco, Met, & Scott, 2010). When Japan became one of New Zealand's most important trading partners in the late 1980s and early 1990s, the learning of Japanese gained popularity. More recently however, Spanish is the language with the fastest uptake of learners followed by Chinese (Mandarin), which although slower to take off, joins the five main languages targeted by the Ministry of Education for funding: Chinese, French, German, Japanese and Spanish (Ministry of Education, 2013a). Community or heritage languages such as those of our closest Pacific neighbours (Cook Islands Māori, Niuean, Tokelauan, Samoan and Tongan) are also funded.

This diverse context brings to the fore the voices of a number of stakeholders who learn, teach and advocate for additional languages. However, not all of these voices speak in unison regarding the way languages are offered in schools. For example, the speakers of and advocates for Niuean, Tokelauan and Cook Islands Māori call for accommodation of their home languages in schools through the provision of bilingual and immersion

programmes (May, 2011; McCaffery & McFall-McCaffery, 2010). This desire to help maintain and promote the languages of the protectorates of New Zealand is much more directed than the goals of another stakeholder, the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT) which exists primarily to support and promote the teaching and learning of all languages other than English (New Zealand Association of Language Teachers, 2014). Both these stakeholder groups, one firmly based within the community, and the other made of members who predominantly teach languages from Europe and Asia, have reason to support increased attention to the teaching of additional languages in schools.

1.10 Support for languages in the curriculum

In English-medium schools, languages programmes have benefited from a range of government-funded policies and initiatives, although not all languages benefit from all policies. All languages—including te reo Māori, New Zealand Sign Language and Pasifika¹³ languages—when taught as languages additional to the language of instruction, fit within the aims and objectives of learning languages in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2009b, n.d.-i). Te reo Māori and Pasifika often do have separate initiatives and these are discussed here first. Policies and initiatives mainly targeted at other additional languages such as Chinese, French, German, Japanese and Spanish (although sometimes also including Samoan) are then discussed.

Te reo Māori in English-medium schools

The principles of the Treaty of Waitangi ensure that te reo Māori and tikanga Māori have a unique place across all learning contexts in New Zealand schools. As outlined in the New Zealand Curriculum, schools need to consider how best to enable opportunities for “Māori students to strengthen their identities, while non-Māori students journey towards shared cultural understandings” as together they learn the language and its associated cultural practices (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 14). Curriculum guidelines, teacher tools, language resources and professional learning opportunities are

¹³ The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Pacific Island Affairs have used the term “Pasifika” for about a decade to denote “people living in New Zealand who have migrated from the Pacific Islands or who identify with the Pacific Islands because of ancestry or heritage” (University of Otago, n.d.).

available for teachers to support their teaching of te reo Māori me ōna tikanga¹⁴ across all year levels (Ministry of Education, n.d.-h). Other school-wide programmes such as *Te Kōtahitanga* and *Ka Hikitea*¹⁵ investigate and implement ways to improve academic achievement of Māori in mainstream schools, using culturally-based solutions (Bishop et al., 2009).

Pasifika languages

With the instigation of the Pasifika Education Plan from 2001 and its ongoing updates and monitoring reports (Ministry of Education, 2013b), the government has also put in place initiatives to address the needs of students from Pasifika backgrounds. These initiatives provide the government-level focus called for by the Human Rights Commission (2008), and researchers (Franken, May, & McComish, 2008; McCaffery & McFall-McCaffery, 2010; Smith, 2004). Since these initiatives have been in place, the numbers of students studying Cook Islands Māori, Niuean, Samoan, Tongan and Tokelaun have increased at primary school level in particular (Ministry of Education, 2013a). The *Language enhancing the achievement of Pasifika* (LEAP) professional learning resource is one such initiative developed for teachers working in mainstream New Zealand classrooms with bilingual Pasifika students (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Support is also offered for teachers of languages of the Pacific region. There are curriculum guidelines and multi-media Learning Languages Series (LLS)¹⁶ resources to support the teaching of Cook Islands Māori, vagahau Niue, and gagana Tokelau in the New Zealand curriculum. A further two Pasifika languages, Tongan and gagana Samoa, are also supported in a similar way.

¹⁴ As mentioned earlier, te reo Māori refers to the language of the indigenous people and tikanga refers to the Māori worldview, although at its most fundamental level tikanga refers to Māori cultural practices. These two terms are frequently used together as “te reo (Māori) me ōna tikanga” acknowledging the inseparability of the language and its associated practices.

¹⁵ Te Kotahitanga is a teacher professional development initiative designed to increase the achievement of Māori students in English-medium secondary schools (Bishop et al., 2009). Ka Hikitea is sets out the Ministry of Education’s strategic approach to achieving educational success for and with Māori (Ministry of Education, 2009a).

¹⁶ The Learning Languages Series (LLS) provides multi-media materials designed for teachers and students who are new to additional language learning. The series is designed for Years 7 and 8 students and supports Levels 1 and 2 achievement objectives in the curriculum for 11 languages: Chinese, Cook Islands Māori, French, German, Japanese, Gagana Sāmoa, Spanish, te reo Māori, Gagana Tokelau, Tongan, Vagahau Niue. From: <http://learning-languages.tki.org.nz/Learning-Languages-in-the-NZ-Curriculum/Learning-Language-Series> (see Appendix P for a copy of the achievement objectives).

Other additional languages

Other additional languages have also benefited from a range of government-funded initiatives. In the late 1990s and early 2000s funds were allocated directly to schools through the Second Language Funding Pool to support the teaching of Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Samoan and Spanish at Years 7 to 10 (Ellis et al., 2005). Other developments include the aforementioned multi-media LLS resources alongside the provision of regionally-based advisory support through the School Support Services (SSS) contract with universities' Colleges of Education from the mid-1990s to 2010 (Post Primary Teachers Association, 2013). Teachers of additional language learners in the final two years of primary school were the main focus of the first two initiatives, while the target group for the SSS varied from year to year and included teachers coming to grips with a new standards-based assessment system for qualifications for senior secondary students (East & Scott, 2011). Language Immersion Awards¹⁷ have also been a source for professional development for teachers of European, Asian and Pacific languages, providing opportunities for teachers to spend time in a country that uses the target language.

Since 2005, the Ministry of Education has funded a teacher professional development programme for languages (TPDL) that aims to develop language teacher proficiency, knowledge about second language acquisition and classroom pedagogical practice (Uniservices, 2013). The TPDL programme prioritises support for teachers of languages at Years 7 to 10 but considers applications for participation in the programme from teachers of other levels also, accepting that they may teach in schools with students at Years 7 to 10 (personal communication, W. Thomson, 14 April, 2014).

The wider New Zealand community, including various embassies and the Human Rights Commission also provide support for teachers of languages. Professional associations, run by language teachers from primary, secondary and tertiary sectors also play a part in advocating for and supporting teachers as they seek to deliver quality languages programmes. These associations include the over-arching body—the New

¹⁷ In 2004 Cabinet approved funding for the Language Immersion Awards (LIA) to provide teachers and students with opportunities to increase language knowledge and skills across a range of European, Asian and Pacific languages. As a result, participants will be more culturally knowledgeable and responsive and teachers in particular will be able to pass on language knowledge and skills to their students in a more confident and sophisticated way (<http://www.afs.org.nz/educators/liateachers/>).

Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT)—and language-specific organisations such as: the New Zealand Chinese Language Association (NZCLA), the New Zealand Association of French Teachers (NZAFT), German in Aotearoa New Zealand (GANZ), the New Zealand Association of Japanese Language Teachers (NZAJLT), the Association for the Teaching of Gagana Samoa in Aotearoa (FAGASA), and the Spanish Teachers' Association of New Zealand Aotearoa (STANZA).

1.11 The languages policy environment

Call for national policy

Until the mid-1990s most of the formal language teaching occurred only once students reached secondary school. However, the initiatives described above have increased the number of students able to access language learning opportunities in the two years prior to entering secondary school. These initiatives created renewed calls for a national languages-in-education policy as schools have grappled with decisions about choice of language, resourcing, staffing and transition issues (Ellis, 2000; Lilly, 2001). A suggestion from Ellis (2000) was to encourage the study of te reo Māori (or a community language) at primary school and leave the study of international languages until secondary school. Barnard (2006) on the other hand, has quite a different view, stating that primary school students should only learn about the culture of a place and any language acquisition should be deferred until secondary school.

This call for a policy and a coherence of provision for language learning across New Zealand society was not new. The New Zealand Languages Policy Project commissioned by the government to promote the development of a languages policy that would include health, education and social sectors of society resulted in a series of recommendations via a discussion document (Waite, 1992a, 1992b). The New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT) had been lobbying for such recognition for some time and had made strong suggestions to the project (New Zealand Association of Language Teachers, 1990). Amongst the recommendations by Waite (1992a, 1992b) were that te reo Māori be taught as a second language in the last three years of primary schooling (Years 6 to 8) and that Chinese, French, German, Japanese and Spanish be categorised as “Tier I international languages” (Waite, 1992b, p. 72) to be offered to students at various entry points in their learning, the equivalent today at

Year 7 (the penultimate year of primary schooling), Year 9 (the first year of secondary schooling) and Year 12 (the penultimate year of secondary schooling). Drawing on data from the UK and Australia, Waite also emphasised the danger of New Zealand “falling behind its international competitors, who are realising the importance of the type of centralised planning that identifies the contribution a variety of educational programmes can make to providing people with the language skills necessary for gaining the competitive edge in international trade” (Waite, 1992b, p. 65).

Disappointingly, for those lobbying for the policy at the time—the NZALT, Peddie (2003) and Waite himself (Shackleford, 1997)—Waite’s recommendations were not published as a policy document. Instead they were released as part of a discussion document (Waite, 1992a, 1992b) and the then Department of Education chose to implement four more specific projects instead (Peddie, 2003). The projects were to focus on the provision of assistance for ESOL programmes; the encouragement of language learning at an earlier age; the setting up of the Asia 2000 project; and, the fostering of te reo Māori. The abandonment of the development of a New Zealand languages policy has also come to the attention of several researchers and languages enthusiasts since (East, Shackleford, & Spence, 2007; Peddie, 2003; Shackleford, 1997; Spence, 2004) who acknowledge the complexity of any such policy within the wider New Zealand society, but who maintain that without such a policy and targeted funding, schools would be unlikely to commit to the teaching of languages long-term (Peddie, 2003). Twenty-one years on, the Royal Society of New Zealand (2013) reflected back on the changes that had occurred since *Aotearo*¹⁸, *speaking for ourselves* (Waite, 1992a, 1992b), outlining the major issues facing language practices in New Zealand and urging once again for the focus on languages within a national framework.

School-level policy

Schools in New Zealand are self-governing and are managed within a national framework of regulation and guidance (Ministry of Education, 2008). The National Administration Guidelines (NAGs) for school administration set out desirable principles of conduct and the New Zealand Curriculum indicates the requirements for Boards of Trustees (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 44) in terms of curriculum planning. It is

¹⁸ The name of this document ‘Aotearo’ is a play on the Māori name for New Zealand ‘Aotearoa’. In the title of his document, Waite has replaced the last two syllables with the Māori word ‘reo’ meaning ‘language’ or ‘voice’.

expected that schools will involve the community in both areas as they seek to meet the learning needs of each student. Schools communicate their learning, teaching and management decisions through individual charters and annual plans against which their performance is reported.

The key role that principals play in decisions made about language programmes in New Zealand schools have led researchers working in the primary sector in particular to seek their views on the opportunities available to their students (Howard, 2012; Lilly, 2001). Findings point not only to the importance of teacher supply and resourcing but also to the wide variances in programme offerings (Lilly, 2001) and the reluctance of some principals towards incorporating meaningful language learning opportunities for students within school programmes (Howard, 2012).

Who is allowed to teach languages?

Given that schools in New Zealand are self-managing, the professional leader (normally the principal or another member of the senior leadership team) can employ the person they think is best for the available position, regardless of the sector targeted in the applicant's initial teacher education qualification. Therefore, '[a] teacher may be lawfully employed in a teaching position (in a school, kura¹⁹, kindergarten and in many positions in an early childhood education setting) if they are registered and hold a current practising certificate' (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2012). According to the Teachers Council, on most occasions the teacher will be trained for the sector in which they want to teach (J. Henderson, personal communication, April 9, 2013).

1.12 Summary

Chapter One has established the complex context from within which the role, and identity of teachers of additional languages, and the place of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools will be examined. In this study the term 'additional languages' refers to all languages included in the new learning area of the revised New Zealand curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c); namely, those taught in addition to the language of instruction. This term therefore excludes languages used in immersion

¹⁹ *Kura* is the Māori word for place of learning or school and is used in the title of Māori immersion schools in particular.

and bilingual settings and the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL). Labels such as community, heritage, international could be applied to determine languages within this group, and some researchers (Barnard, 2006; Ellis, 2000; Waite, 1992a, 1992b) have used such different groupings of languages to help progress the debate about which languages should be offered in schools to which levels. However, this study favours the inclusive term ‘additional’ over all of these labels to encompass the learning of any language in addition to the language of instruction in the school context.

The context includes comment on the unique status of the indigenous language of New Zealand, te reo Māori and of the responsibilities the New Zealand government has towards New Zealand Sign Language and the languages of the countries within its realm. New Zealand’s increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse population is noted alongside some of the challenges this diversity presents for policymakers and educators alike.

The addition of the *Learning Languages* learning area in the New Zealand curriculum for schools (Ministry of Education, 2007c) has brought challenges of its own as schools make their own decisions about how to provide opportunities for their students. Despite the lack of a cohesive national policy for languages and a weak statement in the New Zealand curriculum encouraging school Boards of Trustees to be “working towards offering students opportunities for learning a second or subsequent language” (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 44), the number of schools creating new languages programmes has been increasing (Ministry of Education, 2013a) particularly at the primary level. The teachers who deliver these programmes are at the heart of this study as it is they who are charged with bring to fruition the learning for the students in their care, with or without a national policy in languages, with or without support from their school. Discovering who these teachers of additional languages are and how they interpret their role as they navigate their way through the new learning area will add to the understanding of the teaching context and provide an insight for teacher educators, principals, providers of professional development and policy-makers alike. The following chapter will define the terms used to explore the lives of the teachers of languages in New Zealand schools along with a background to the literature that informs this study.

Chapter Two:

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This study focuses on understanding the nature, or meaning of everyday experiences (van Manen, 1990) as they relate to teachers of additional languages. Through the examination of the lived experiences of the participants, this study seeks to discover what being a teacher of additional languages means in the New Zealand context. Role, identity and place are key notions used to explore the nature of this phenomenon. Although there is a certain amount of overlap in these terms, it is useful to clarify how each one is treated in this study as well as how they are viewed in the literature. The review of the literature begins with an exploration of how role and identity are considered, before taking one particular perspective of identity through which to view other literature on quality teaching and quality languages teaching as relevant to this study. Consideration is then given to contexts beyond New Zealand through a brief examination of government policies on the teaching of additional languages in several English-speaking countries.

2.2 Role and identity

The term ‘role’ is used to encapsulate the functions and positions held by teachers of additional languages, in a range of school settings, including any responsibilities and tasks associated with these positions. Teacher roles are often determined by the school within which they work, and more broadly by the regulations that determine those roles at policy level. While these aspects are discussed in detail in Section 2.4, it is useful to note here that generally:

[t]eachers as professionals have well-formed concepts of their roles, of what is appropriate, right and reasonable in the conduct of their professional duties. (Brooks & Scott, 2000, p. 37)

The concept of identity is used to further elucidate the nature of additional language teaching. There is no single definition of identity that encompasses the complexity of

the concept across all contexts and time. However, the following definition from Norton (2000), is useful to open this literature review:

I use the term identity to reference how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future. (p. 5)

While Norton (2000) uses this definition to argue more from the standpoint of social inequities which arise when people without the dominant language are trying to gain access to services, the usefulness for this study is that this definition acknowledges the importance of relationships, of social structures and social interactions in identity development. In addition it points to the ongoing nature of identity development with reference to future selves.

Several researchers highlight the inextricable link between the ‘becoming of a teacher’ and ‘identity development’. Danielewicz (2001) believes that “we need to know how the best teachers have become themselves” (p. 3) and she insists that her teacher education students focus on their own identity development “because the process of teaching, at once so complicated and deep, involves the self” (p. 9). Danielewicz adds that teaching is more than fulfilling a role maintaining that “... one must *be* a teacher, not just act like one” (p. 3). She reiterates that “identities require a commitment of self to the enterprise in a way that acting out a role does not” (p. 10).

In a similar vein, Norton (2010) states that a language learner’s identity development comes from his or her investment in the learning process. Norton makes a conscious effort to avoid the psychological construct of motivation as part of identity development, preferring to rely on the sociological construct of identity as an investment stating that this latter construct of investment “conceives of the language learner as having a complex identity...reproduced in social interaction” (Norton, 2010, p. 354). This notion of investment is part of the personal identity of the language learner. Teachers of languages are also learners of languages. However, the professional identity of the language teacher is derived from how the teacher is viewed by others, based on the displayed knowledge and skills. These perceptions by and of others are often “contextually defined self-stereotypes [that] tend to consensuality through the interactive process of within-group reference and between-group comparison” (Brooks

& Scott, 2000, p. 39). One could expect then that teachers of additional languages would have a sense of their own self-concept, and have a perception of the identity of others who are also teaching additional languages.

In Palmer's (2007) premise that "*good teaching cannot be reduced to technique; good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teachers*" (p. 10, original emphasis) he also acknowledges that this identity and integrity do not encompass only our strengths and potentials, but also "our shadows and limits, our wounds and fears" (p. 13). He argues it is through our lived experiences, good and bad, that identities grow and transform, and the best way to portray the realities of these experiences is through the telling of stories. Britzman (2003) also advocates for an image of teaching which is dialogic, situated in relationship to one's biography, complete with conflicting discourses and tensions. Smit and Fritz (2008) suggest that such stories could be collected via the situational, social and personal narratives of teachers' lives. White (2007) also emphasises the importance of researching the subjective experiences of teachers, arguing that "the meanings they assign to those experiences and how they interpret, challenge, resist or reconfigure what might be required of them" (p.5) is a necessary move away from studies which focus on the functions, skills and issues associated with the role of the teacher.

As outlined in Chapter One, a number of factors challenge the successful implementation of the new *Learning Languages* area in the New Zealand Curriculum. Challenges highlighted by researchers include: the lack of a national policy on languages-in-education; the importance of teaching resources and materials; the need for proficiency and qualifications in the additional language being taught; opportunities for professional development; adequate initial teacher education programmes; and, the impact of institutional structures. Many of these challenges do indeed focus on functions, skills and issues and these have not yet been studied from a national perspective. In addition, ways in which teachers of additional languages understand their identity have not been explored. This is particularly salient in relation to those teachers for whom the teaching of additional languages requires a change in practice. In the next section, a framework to enable the analysis of the outcomes of such an exploration is presented.

2.3 A framework for identity development

James Paul Gee is a sociolinguist known for his exploration of storytelling as a way to make sense of one’s experiences (Sunwolf & Frey, 2001). Gee (2009) refers to himself however, as a “sociolinguist who had studied language and literacy from a sociocultural perspective” (p. 197) as opposed to the cognitive aspect of traditional psychology. He believes that the experiences people have and how they edit (or interpret) them are founded in a social, interactive, public exterior world. (p.203). Gee’s (1992) book *The Social Mind: Language, Ideology and Social Practice* provides many examples to elucidate this treatise. Gee (1999) has also focused on Discourse analysis—preferring to use the term with a capital ‘D’ to differentiate from the narrow language-in-use (lower case ‘d’) term—which views the functions of other social practices (people’s behaviour, thinking, customs, perspectives) within specific groups or situated contexts and how they contribute to identity formation. It is this work on identity which is particularly salient to this study.

Gee (2000) defines identity as “being recognised as a certain kind of person in a given context” (p. 99). He outlines four interwoven perspectives within each person, derived from nature, institutions, discourse and affinity experiences. These perspectives he labels as N-Identity, I-identity, D-identity and A-identity. Gee asserts that these are ways to “focus our attention on different aspects of how identities are formed and sustained” (p. 101). Each perspective is part of a process that is determined by a power source. Figure 2 below illustrates the relationship between these elements.

Process	Power	Source of power
Nature-identity: <i>a state</i>	<i>developed from</i>	<i>forces</i>
Institution-identity: <i>a position</i>	<i>authorized by</i>	<i>authorities</i>
Discourse-identity: <i>an individual trait</i>	<i>recognised in</i>	<i>the discourse/dialogue</i>
Affinity-identity: <i>experiences</i>	<i>shared in</i>	<i>the practice</i>

Figure 2: Gee’s (2000) four ways to view identity

N-identities are determined by nature and refer to states of being such as whether you are the second child, a male or female, or a twin. In I-identities the “author [of] the position” you hold—usually the institution you work for—determines the rights and responsibilities associated with the position. “I-identities can also be put on a continuum in terms of how actively or passively the occupant of a position fills or fulfils their role or duties” (Gee, 2000, p. 103). If the occupant were less active then the position may be an ‘imposition’, if more active, then the position may be considered a ‘calling’. The source of the third perspective, the D-identity, is the discourse or dialogue of other people. In other words, through their talk and interactions with a person, others assign that person particular traits—not because of what nature determines or what an institution says but because of how they are deemed to be by others. The final perspective as described by Gee (2000) refers to a person’s A-identity, which is developed through distinctive practices associated with belonging to an affinity group (such as a tennis club, a religious group or, in this study, a language teachers’ association). Gee suggests using these four perspectives to pose questions about:

how identity is functioning for a specific person (child or adult) in a given context or across a set of different contexts. ... They are four strands that may very well all be present and woven together as a given person acts within a given context. Nonetheless, we can still ask, for a given time and place, which strand or strands predominate and why. (Gee, 2000, p. 101)

Within each perspective there are some aspects over which people have control (or a degree of control) and some that are outside of their control—because other people, systems or nature control them. Gee claims that these sources of control or power impact on the development of each of the four perspectives of a person’s identity.

Figure 3 on the next page, is a preliminary mapping of three of Gee’s perspectives, the Institutional-identity, the Discourse-identity, and the Affinity-identity, in relation to elements which impact on a teacher’s identity. In keeping with Gee’s (2000, p.102) explanation that the N-identity is given meaning through the three other perspectives, Figure 3 does not include direct reference to this fourth perspective.²⁰ I have placed the teacher in the centre of the other three interlocking perspectives, demonstrating that s/he

²⁰ Aspects of N-identity such as a teacher’s gender, ethnicity and first language background are reported on in Section 4.3.

too has input into the contributions they have into his or her identity development. The elements within the interwoven perspectives are not fixed, rather they have been arranged to indicate where they might typically occur in the teaching context. Where two or more perspectives overlap, this indicates that more than one perspective may contribute to the development of that element. These elements are discussed briefly here and in the sections that follow. They will also be revisited in the discussion in Chapter Nine.

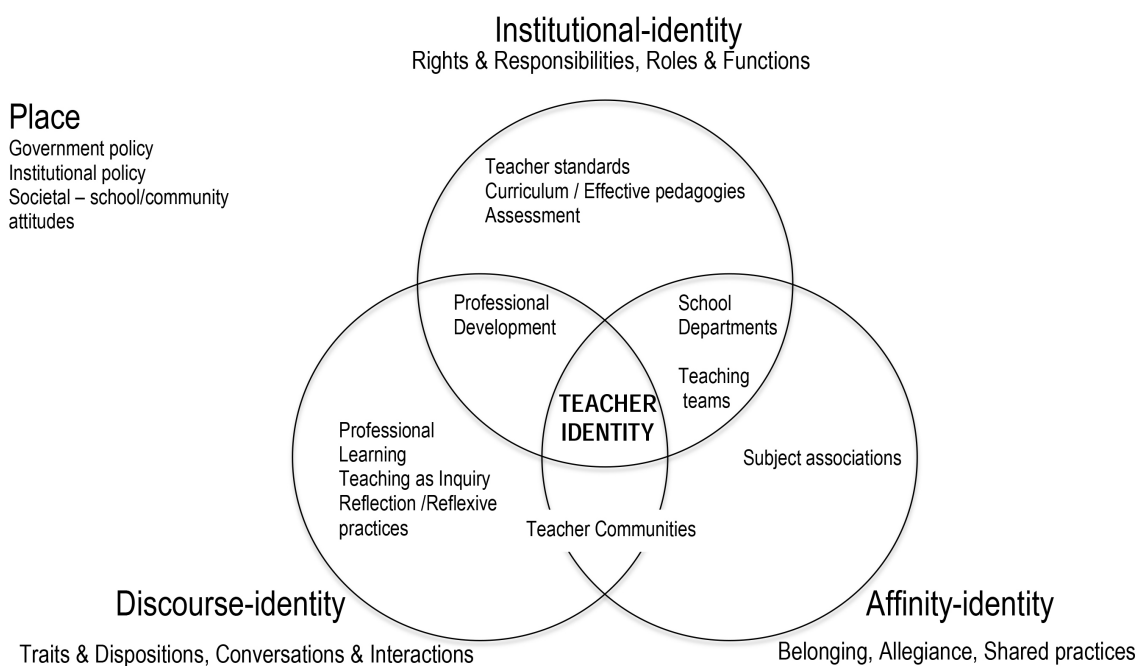


Figure 3: *Teacher identity through the lens of Gee's Institutional-, Discourse- and Affinity-identities*

The rights and responsibilities within a New Zealand school setting that determine a teacher's I-identity are decided by employment law, the Education Act (1989) the Teachers Council regulations and the governing board (the Board of Trustees) of the school at which they are employed. These are realised through teacher registration documentation (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2007, 2009), curriculum documents (Ministry of Education, 2007c), and, assessment regulations (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2007).

The D-identity refers to individual traits and dispositions that are reinforced through discourse and social interactions. In the teaching context, such interactions occur

through professional development and learning opportunities. Teachers of additional languages might engage in topics around effective pedagogies for learning vocabulary or encouraging students to use the target language outside the classroom. Another common topic for discussion has been the implementation of school-based assessments which have dominated professional development offerings in the past decade in New Zealand since the introduction of the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) standards-based assessment system for senior secondary qualifications (Years 11 to 13), and National Standards for numeracy, writing and reading (Years 0 to 8). Interactions also occur whenever teachers plan, teach and reflect together in the workplace. Through all of these interactions, teachers of additional languages might be recognised as knowledgeable, competent, confident, fluent users and teachers of the language they are teaching. They might also demonstrate understanding of the cultural practices embedded within that language and be able to discuss what it means to be interculturally competent.

Elements within the Affinity-identity perspective depict deliberate groupings of teachers who have gathered together for a particular purpose. These may include school-based languages department meetings comprising teachers of several additional languages, the local cluster group of teachers of French supporting each other to decipher marking criteria for a school-based writing assessment, delegates at a national conference of primary, secondary and tertiary teachers of additional languages, or a community Latin American dance club or Japanese cooking class. Most of these activities teachers would choose to join, although some may be supported by the institutions (schools).

2.4 Quality teaching as authored by the government and institutions

... for every student to achieve to their potential we need teachers with appropriately high expectations and knowledge of their learners, up-to-date knowledge of their subject and the strategies to teach and assess for optimum learning. (Ministry of Education, n.d.-f)

Roles, functions, rights and responsibilities

The roles teachers perform are determined by their employment contract with the school Board of Trustees. Boards of Trustees, under the guidance of the school principal are then required to attest that the teachers in their employ adhere to the code of ethics (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2004), hold a current practising certificate and maintain their registration by meeting the Registered Teaching Criteria that describe the criteria for quality teaching in Aotearoa New Zealand (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2009).

Several formal mechanisms are used to measure teacher quality in New Zealand. The first of these occurs in relation to entry into and completion of an initial teacher education (ITE) programme, the second during the first two to three years of teaching leading to full registration; and the third on an annual basis after that. These mechanisms are in keeping with what Darling-Hammond (2001, p. 752) refers to as the three-legged stool, having three separate purposes and occurring at different stages of a teaching career:

1. accreditation standards for teacher preparation programmes
2. standards for state licensing purposes
3. standards for certification and recognition of advanced performance.

The first of these mechanisms is for prospective students of ITE programmes who need to demonstrate that they have the potential knowledge, skills, attributes and dispositions for teaching. In New Zealand, this is determined through an application process that includes a review of qualifications to date and an interview. On successful completion of an undergraduate or graduate programme of study in teacher education (depending on the qualification being sought), candidates will have demonstrated that they have met the Graduating Teacher Standards (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2007) through their coursework, practicum and assignment work. The Graduating Teacher Standards detail three key aspects for a new teacher at the beginning of their career: *Professional Knowledge*—covering knowledge of what to teach, how students learn and contextual factors influencing teaching and learning (including knowledge of te reo Māori alongside cultural practices); *Professional Practice*—acknowledging the importance of planning for a safe, high quality teaching and learning environment together with the ability to use evidence to promote learning; and *Professional Values and*

Relationships—addressing the importance of being committed members of the profession able to develop positive relationships with learners and other members of learning communities.

In order to become fully registered teachers, schools provide provisionally registered teachers (PRTs) with a programme of advice and guidance in their first few years in the classroom. To support this process, a set of guidelines for induction and mentoring has been developed (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2011a). Through this mechanism, PRTs work towards meeting the Registered Teacher Criteria (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2009). There are 12 criteria with comprehensive indicators under the following two aspects: *Professional Relationships and Professional Values*, and *Professional Knowledge in Practice*.

Professional Standards for Teachers such as those for secondary school teachers (Ministry of Education, 2010c, p. 89) are another mechanism used to appraise teacher performance. These standards describe three levels of teacher performance covering PRTs, teachers who have been teaching for between three and five years, and experienced classroom teachers. Appraisals are conducted annually by each school to attest to the ongoing professional competence of each member of the teaching staff. The theoretical underpinnings for these standards were drawn from ‘a critical review of the literature on the application of professional standards to teachers’ practice’ (Kleinhenz & Ingvarson, 2007, p. v).

The mechanisms mentioned above are general rather than subject-specific, although it is expected that teachers would demonstrate evidence of progress through ongoing engagement with relevant content, disciplines and learning communities (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2009). As detailed in the previous chapter, the professional leader of the school would determine the suitability of a teacher’s knowledge, experience and skills for any teaching position. Therefore this means that anyone who is registered and holds a practising teaching certificate can apply for any position or be asked to fill a position that requires the teaching of any curriculum area provided. However, quality teaching is more than simply being registered as a teacher and holding a practising certificate. Research consistently emphasises the importance of teacher quality and its impact on positive learning outcomes for students (Alton-Lee, 2003; Hattie, 2003).

The nature of teaching and learning

Effective teaching “is a key influence on student learning and achievement outcomes and focuses on maximising learning outcomes for all learners in every situation” (Ministry of Education, n.d.-f). A search of past and current educational theory and research of authors such as Dewey (1916), Vygotsky (1978), Clandinin and Connelly (1987), Brophy (1999), Nuthall (2002, 2007), Rogoff (1994, 2003), and Sewell (2006), reveals a shift in understanding of effective teaching over the past few decades. Teachers in the twenty-first century are less likely than those in the previous century to control the transmission of knowledge and facts from the front of the classroom to children seated passively at their desks writing. Rather, in this century, the amount of literature, theory and research on teacher education and professional learning demonstrates increased interest in involving the students in the learning process, and in promoting opportunities for students to interact and to co-construct knowledge (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009).

This move from the didactic approach to learning and teaching has its foundation in social constructivism and reflects the influence of sociocultural theory which emphasises the active participation of learners, shared meaning making, and dialogic learning processes (Rogoff, 1994; Sewell, 2006). Nuthall (2002) gives a rationale for social constructivist teaching, stating that it is “based on a set of inter-related theories about the nature of classroom discourse, the nature of meaning, the nature of the learning process, the nature of the knowledge, beliefs and skills that are the intended outcomes” (pp. 52-53). This rationale reflects the awareness of the social context within which learning occurs and the role others play in the construction of knowledge. Social constructivist teaching has been popularised through the theorising of a zone of proximal development formulated by Vygotsky. Vygotsky (1978) identified that there is a zone of mastery and a zone of proximal development (ZPD), where, with assistance and scaffolding, learners can achieve what they cannot do alone and, he theorised that teachers should focus on this zone in order for learning to progress. Vygotsky saw ZPD “as a way of capturing the dynamic interactions humans have with their environment and how this brings about development” (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008, p. 14). In the classroom, the ZPD model encourages teachers to design tasks that promote interactions with “more capable peers” in order to support student learning. The influence of social

constructivism can be evidenced in the New Zealand curriculum through the Effective Pedagogies²¹ for teachers which encourage the facilitation of shared learning and the creation of supportive learning environments, and, in the Key Competencies²² for students, that emphasise self-management, participation and contribution, and the importance of relating to others (Ministry of Education, 2007c).

A further consideration for New Zealand teachers relates to honouring the principles of partnership, participation and protection with regard to the Treaty of Waitangi (McLeod, Brown, & Hapeta, 2011). These three principles—provided by the Royal Commission on Social Policy (1988)—can be acknowledged in the classroom context through the understanding and conscious use of a set of cultural competencies²³. *Tātaiako: Cultural competencies for teachers of Māori learners* (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2011b) is an initiative designed to develop cultural awareness and competence in teachers of Māori students, and focuses on teachers' relationships with learners and their families and communities. These competencies form part of the *Ka Hikitia* strategy, which acknowledges and promotes the importance of the teacher-student relationship in academic achievement. The cultural competencies, and the philosophies which underpin them have been recognised as improving learning for all students, not just Māori (Bishop et al., 2009). These points are equally as relevant to the field of language teaching. Contemporary views of language teaching pedagogy indeed align to these. However, this has not always been the case.

²¹ The Effective Pedagogies are: creating a supportive learning environment, encouraging reflective thought and action, enhancing the relevance of new learning, facilitating shared learning, making connections to prior learning and experience, providing sufficient opportunities to learn, and teaching as inquiry. (Ministry of Education, 2007c, pp. 34-36).

²² The five Key Competencies are: thinking, using language symbols and texts, managing self, relating to others, and participating and contributing. These are the capabilities for living and lifelong learning as expressed in the New Zealand Curriculum and are expected to be developed in learners over time, in a range of settings and across the eight learning areas (Ministry of Education, 2007c, pp. 12, 37-38).

²³ The cultural competencies for teachers of Māori learners are: *Wānanga*: participating with learners and communities in robust dialogue for the benefit of Māori learners' achievement; *Whanaungatanga*: actively engaging in respectful working relationships with Māori learners, parents and families and the Māori community; *Manaakitanga*: showing integrity, sincerity and respect towards Māori beliefs, language and culture; *Tangata Whenuatanga*: affirming Māori learners as Māori. Providing contexts for learning where the language, identity and culture of Māori learners and their family are affirmed; and *Ako*: taking responsibility for their own learning and that of Māori learners (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2011b).

2.5 Quality languages teaching

Language teaching pedagogies too have changed over time. The classroom pedagogies used closely reflected the purpose of the language learning at different times. For example, the classical method or grammar-translation method (Brown, 1987) suited the study of literary texts in the classical, and later the European languages on offer. As the purpose moved towards communication and interaction with the various target language-speaking communities, so the classroom pedagogy moved towards communicative language teaching with function of language being more important than form (Brown, 1987). While traditionally the grammar-translation method served as a means to study literary texts (Brown, 1987), several models have been developed since the 1990s that provide a range of approaches for teachers to use when incorporating grammar teaching into a lesson (Batstone & Ellis, 2009). While acknowledging these different models, Batstone and Ellis (2009) promote a three-principles approach to grammar teaching and challenge teachers to create conditions for their implementation. These principles acknowledge the need to connect new learning to students' prior learning, the need for learners to be aware of the meaning-making process, and the importance of using language in communicative contexts. It is beyond the scope of this study to provide an in-depth critique of these developments. However, it is important to note that even in the current curriculum environment which encourages as much interaction as possible between learners, explicit teaching of grammar and a focus on form (Ellis, 1995) do still have a place. More recently, researchers and practitioners alike have given increasing consideration to the importance of knowing about the language through the culture and vice-versa (Byram, 2008; Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000). In the latest national curriculum document for New Zealand schools (Ministry of Education, 2007c), intercultural understandings and competencies have been incorporated into the language teaching rather than being seen as a separate study about the culture of the target language speaking community. The Council of Europe's (2001) Common European Framework for Languages has also influenced the *Learning Languages* learning area of the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c) with the proficiency descriptors being adapted from the Global Scale Levels A1 to B1 of this framework. The three strands of the new learning area recognise the interplay between the various key components of language learning: Language Knowledge, Cultural Knowledge and Communication. Communication is the core

strand, providing the basis for assessment with the other two strands “which are directed specifically at developing the linguistic and cultural awareness needed for communicative competence” (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 24) contributing to the overall goal of developing learners who are effective communicators in the target language.

To support the implementation of the new learning area, the New Zealand Ministry of Education commissioned two pieces of research. The first piece of research addressed the need for a clear pedagogy for the acquisition of an additional language in instructed language teaching contexts (i.e. neither bi-lingual nor immersion settings) (Ellis, 2005, 2008). This report, based on an extensive literature review of successful classroom practice, resulted in the promotion of a task-based approach to additional language learning through the implementation of ten principles of instructed second language acquisition. These ten principles are commonly known as the ‘Ellis principles’. The second piece of research, known as the ‘Newton report’, addresses the concept of intercultural language teaching and learning (Newton, Yates, Shearn, & Nowitzki, 2010). The Newton report comprises both a review of the literature on intercultural language teaching and learning, and the presentation of an evidence-based framework of six principles for teaching languages effectively from an intercultural, communicative perspective. Table 1 presents both sets of principles.

Table 1: *Effective pedagogies for additional language classrooms in New Zealand*

Principles for Instructed Second Language Acquisition (Ellis, 2005)	Principles to guide Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching (Newton et al., 2010)
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence. 2. Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning. 3. Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form. 4. Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge. 5. Instruction needs to take into account learners' 'built-in syllabus'. 6. Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input. 7. Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output. 8. The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency. 9. Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners. 10. In assessing learners' L2 proficiency it is important to examine free as well as controlled production. 	<p><i>Intercultural communicative language teaching (iCLT):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • integrates language and culture from the beginning; • engages learners in genuine social interaction; • encourages and develops an exploratory and reflective approach to culture and culture-in-language; • fosters explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures; • acknowledges and responds appropriately to diverse learners and learning contexts; • emphasises intercultural competence rather than native-speaker competence.

Since their release, the Ellis principles have had time to become embedded in teacher practice. They have become a useful framework for the language teaching profession to examine and reflect on their practice. Classroom teachers and those supporting the professional learning of teachers of additional languages have embraced their implementation (Erlam & Sakui, 2006; Harvey, Conway, Richards, & Roskvist, 2010). The Ellis principles appear on the wallchart to support the learning area (Ministry of Education, 2007b) and have provided a common discourse for teachers to describe, define and measure their practice across languages (Scott, 2008).

The Ellis principles are not meant to be an exclusive list but should serve to guide teachers with their programme planning. Ellis adheres to the notion that research should

not prescribe teacher practice, rather that it should “stimulate reflection on the complex phenomenon of instructed language learning and a willingness to experiment with new approaches in accordance with [teachers’] local conditions” (Ellis, 2005, p. 44; 2013).

Alongside the ten Ellis principles, teachers of additional languages are expected to be developing the intercultural communicative competence of their learners as outlined in the Newton report (Newton et al., 2010). Incorporating the six principles of iCLT into a languages programme requires a paradigm shift for teachers, from the understanding of culture as a static set of facts about a country (i.e. highest mountains, populations of major cities, common festivals) to the incorporation of the dynamic culture *through* the study of the language (Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000). To enhance teachers’ own understanding of such aspects, immersion awards for teachers and students are provided by the Ministry of Education between a few months and up to a year to enable time to be spent within a target language community.

2.6 Professional development and professional learning

A review of the literature concerning the professional learning and development of teachers reveals two common approaches. The first approach is where professional development is driven by policy decisions and government initiatives in response to an identified deficit or need. Initiatives such as the Numeracy Project and the implementation of National Standards in New Zealand schools are examples of this ‘top-down’ approach. The second approach to professional learning and development is where teachers and schools identify their own learning needs and seek support for this. Professional learning needs may be more of a priority during certain phases of a teacher’s career or change as a result of events such as moving to a new school, changing the level taught, or taking on new responsibilities in a subject or in school management (Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007). Government-initiated programmes of professional development often do not align with teachers’ specific learning needs and may dominate the time available for professional learning, leaving other needs unmet.

Typically these approaches feature distinct discourses. Webster-Wright (2009) argues for a shift in the discourse from delivering and evaluating professional development to understanding and supporting professional learning. She acknowledges that:

...The implicit assumption underlying many PD programs and research is that knowledge can be transferred to practitioners' minds to be then enacted in practices and that learning can be mandated, if not through attendance, then certainly through engagement in PD programs. (p. 705)

Instead Webster-Wright (2009) suggests the use of the term 'continuing professional learning' (CPL) to denote situations from which professionals themselves have identified they learn, also termed here "authentic PD" (p. 705). Examples given include interaction with colleagues, and experiences outside the workplace as well as formal PD programmes. A key aspect in determining the effectiveness of CPL is that it has resulted in a change of practice.

Of course changes to discourse alone are not enough to improve the overall effectiveness of professional learning opportunities. Criticism of 'top-down' initiatives also centre around the lack of ongoing mentorship of teachers, who are undertaking their own learning journeys. Timperley et al. (2007) acknowledge the highly diverse nature of teachers' learning needs. These authors explain that "what needs to be learned depends on both the prior learning, skills and dispositions of individuals and groups, and the demands of their current teaching context" (p. 6). Kwakman (2003) criticises the use of models of professional development that rely on "traditional ways of learning characterized by transmission of knowledge" (p. 150), arguing such approaches fail to help teachers learn how to teach for understanding or to develop the enacted competencies of teaching through practice. Hargreaves (1992) also cautions against this 'package PD' approach. Unfortunately it is these 'top down' initiatives that are more likely to be funded, and to dominate the professional learning agendas of schools anxious to keep up with the latest government-led educational requirements. This can pose a significant barrier to other forms of professional learning and restrict the opportunities for teachers to acquire new teaching competencies through practice in their working context (Kwakman, 2003, p. 150).

According to the New Zealand Ministry of Education (n.d.-f), there are several key characteristics of effective professional learning programmes. Such programmes focus on student learning, challenge teachers' beliefs and expectations about the capabilities of their students, involve gathering and analysing student achievement data, provide sufficient time for learning, and incorporate opportunities for observation, feedback, modelling, coaching, and reflection. These effective programmes focus on subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and socio-cultural relationships, and are situated in the classroom context, where resource support is integrated. Furthermore, these programmes recognise that a continuum of learning exists for teachers, seen as active learners who construct their own knowledge. These programmes balance pressure and support to build communities of professional practice and to develop professional leadership, while incorporating teacher educator training and mentoring (Ministry of Education, n.d.-f). While these characteristics capture an ideal vision for professional learning and counter the criticisms regarding transmission-based approaches, achieving all of these ideals in any given programme is a challenge.

One approach to professional learning gaining popularity in New Zealand is through the 'teaching as inquiry cycle' (Ministry of Education, 2007c; Timperley et al., 2007), which, according to Cowie et al. (2009), is more likely to lead to a change in practice and greater ownership of the learning than one-size-fits-all professional development programmes. This is backed up by other researchers in the field who promote the idea that the questions being examined should originate from the teachers themselves and not only be the domain of school-wide initiatives or leadership (Crafton & Kaiser; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Such inquiry approaches encourage teachers to be both reflective and reflexive, to focus on their particular needs, and to draw on evidence-based research to improve outcomes for students. This inquiry process may include reflective conversations with peers, the use of reflective journals, or be more formalised as action research.

Goodson (1992) promotes the idea that in order to understand teacher development, we need to know more about teachers' priorities, through understanding more about their lives. He elaborates that teachers' work needs to be examined in the context of teachers' lives. While traditional professional development has focused on improving teachers' practice, he argues, "What is needed is a focus that listens above all to the person at

whom ‘development’ is aimed” (Goodson, 1992, p. 114). Such views are mirrored by Harbon and Moloney (2013) in the languages arena who, in citing Freeman and Richards (1996), believe that “in order to better understand language teaching, we need to know more about language teachers: what they do, how they think, and how they learn” (p. 1).

Palmer (2007) stresses the importance of being involved in a community of discourse, through conversations with colleagues. He asserts this as a professional obligation and one that good teachers engage in with other teachers and their leaders. It is through conversations with colleagues that reflection occurs and critical moments are identified. A critical moment, according to Palmer (2007), is not always within the teacher’s control but “one in which a learning opportunity ... will open up, or shut down” (p. 150). Smit and Fritz (2008) in their ethnographic study of teacher identity in South Africa, also highlight the power of the working context, asserting that this context has a much stronger force than national educational policies.

Eraut (2007) also affirms this position, asserting that the majority of workers’ learning occurs within the workplace itself (p. 419), and that managers have the responsibility to increase the opportunities for workers to work alongside others. The importance of workplace learning and the possibilities for engaging with teachers’ goals and identities is further explored by White and Ding (2009). In a study that highlighted the importance of interactions and engagement with others, it also drew attention to participants who were motivated by an ‘ought-to’ self when confronted with new learning or change rather than by a desire or personal investment in a future ‘possible self’ who had benefited from taking on board the new challenges.

2.7 Teacher communities

Being a member of an affinity group means one has “allegiance to, access to and participation in specific practices” (Gee, 2000, p. 105). Through participation, members of the affinity group share the power that governs the practices of the group. The notion of participation in communities of learners has become more prevalent in the literature in past two decades (Butler, Lauscher, Jarvis-Selinger, & Beckingham, 2004; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1994; Sewell, 2006). In most cases

people choose to join an affinity group, however some institutions create groups to encourage a culture around a business or product where members of the group develop loyalty to that business or product because it is through that association that they share experiences. Gee (2000, p. 107) calls these A-identities institutionally sanctioned as opposed to those that are not institutionally sanctioned. Many affinity groups exist for a social cause—people who normally would not associate with each other come together for the sake of the cause—and disaffiliate once the cause is “resolved”. In other words, the group ceases to exist.

For teachers of additional languages in New Zealand, the specific language teaching associations for teachers of Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Spanish and Samoan, under the umbrella of the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT) all act as affinity groups, providing a range of opportunities for teachers to gather and share their practice. These opportunities could include a gathering of local teachers of Chinese preparing for a student writing competition, or, on a larger scale, members of the gathering together at an NZALT conference. Members might not all be in the same role—teachers of languages in primary schools or tertiary teacher educators—but they will be supporting, advocating, participating and sharing in the group with a common cause or purpose.

2.8 Impact of educational policy on place

The geographical location of teachers of additional languages and the types of schools they teach in across New Zealand are obvious links to *place* in this study. Place as *status* is also salient for this study. While it can refer to the actual positions teachers of additional languages hold within schools, place also refers to how additional languages are positioned within and by institutions. Having explored the New Zealand context in detail in Chapter One, the literature presented here examines some of the international contexts. This section describes how several countries, whose main official language is English, position the teaching of additional languages through their policies and institutional practice, with a particular focus on additional language offerings at primary level. Although a number of surveys are mentioned in this section, their inclusion here is to give information about the overseas context rather than to provide support for development of the survey instrument used in this study. In other words,

notwithstanding the value of these surveys in terms of their ability to provide useful contextual information, they clearly did not feed into the methodology adopted for the current study.

Seeking to examine the United Kingdom's capability in languages, The Nuffield Languages Inquiry (2000) stated that "educational provision is fragmented, achievement is poorly measured, [and] continuity not very evident" (p. 5). This aspirational report sought a change of policy to enable learners to have improved access to languages within a coherent national strategy that maximised Britain's location within the European community. The report's recommendations included developing a national strategy for languages as a key skill, raising the profile of languages in the UK, investing in an early start, raising the quality of the provision for languages in secondary schools, establishing business-education partnerships, developing the potential of lifelong language learning, recruiting more language teachers, and establishing a national standards framework for languages. The report led to the establishment of the National Policy for Languages (DfES, 2002) which charged schools with providing opportunities for the early learning of languages, stating that "language competence and intercultural understanding are not optional extras, they are an essential part of being a citizen" (p. 5). The centrepiece of the strategy was the primary entitlement, which stated that every pupil at Key Stage 2 (age 11) would be offered the opportunity to study at least one foreign language by the end of the decade. Specific issues to be addressed included the transition between primary and secondary schooling, teacher shortage, economic competitiveness and cultural awareness. According to McLachlan (2009), who casts doubt on the current conditions being able to facilitate the changes necessary for successful programmes at primary school, successive studies on the UK situation have concurred on barriers to the implementation of successful programmes at primary school level.

According to Crichton and Templeton (2010), Scotland should see itself as a leader within the United Kingdom in the provision of language learning, particular at primary school. Although there were some apparent failures of policy in the 1960s, a more recent approach that targeted a limited number of schools and enthusiastic teachers has led to almost all primary schools offering languages programmes. However, it seems that the potential overall provision is not consistent and that challenges for primary

teaching of languages in still exist regarding teachers' confidence and competence. Crichton and Templeton (2010) assert that there is a need for ongoing provision of quality professional development programmes to ensure these challenges continue to be addressed.

In the United States, with the decentralisation of the public education system, federal educational policies are implemented by individual states (Van Houten, 2012). There are two main types of programmes offered for the teaching of additional languages at primary school level: the Foreign Language Experience or Exploratory programme (FLEX) which is aimed at providing students with general exposure to language and culture, and the Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES) programme aimed at helping students acquire listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in addition to an understanding of culture. The most recent national survey of foreign language offerings by the Center for Applied Linguistics (Rhodes & Pufahl, 2009) revealed that while the number of secondary schools offering foreign language instruction from 1997 to 2008 had remained about the same, there had been a significant decrease in the number of primary schools teaching foreign languages. It is suggested that this decline is due to the 'No Child Left Behind' law that places heavy penalties on schools whose students fail to meet performance targets (European Commission, 2012).

Like New Zealand, Australia's early foray into the teaching of foreign languages in schools was via the Classical and European languages, which, again, like New Zealand were a requirement for entry into some university courses until the late 1960s. Thereafter the developments of the two countries have not been as similar. The need to cater for Australia's new immigrant populations led to the establishment of a number of community languages (such as Arabic, Greek and Italian), from the mid-1970s to the mid-1980s, particularly at primary school level (Byram et al., 2010). Asian languages gained traction in the late 1980s, particularly Indonesian, Japanese and Chinese. While Australia has boasted a National Policy on Languages (Lo Bianco, 1987), and has had many funding initiatives at government level encouraging schools to offer languages programmes, with an estimated 200 hours only of learning time across several years of schooling, this is not deemed sufficient to gain even a reasonable level of proficiency (Lo Bianco, 2009). Lo Bianco (2009) points to a number of ongoing debates which

include the dominance of English, competition between languages for provision, effective models for learning additional languages, and teacher supply.

As far as pedagogical developments are concerned, the growth of intercultural language teaching and learning has been labelled “the most significant development in Australian language pedagogy in the last 20 years” (Harbon & Moloney, 2013, p. 8). The move from treating the study of languages in order to access literature to regarding language learning as a social practice of meaning-making and interpretation is a much more expanded view, providing a more engaging educational experience for students (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009).

2.9 Summary

Chapter Two has provided an understanding of how the key terms *role*, *identity*, and *place* are considered in this study. This has been done primarily through using three of Gee’s (2000) four interwoven perspectives. The role, as determined by the I-identity has been discussed in relation to literature about quality teaching and quality languages teaching. The D-identity is exemplified through a discussion of different discourses of teacher learning, and the A-identity through an exploration of workplace learning and belonging to affinity groups. This study then, as it seeks to establish the role, identity and place of teachers of additional languages is an exploration of these three perspectives. The following chapter introduces the methodological approaches for the research.

Chapter Three:

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The aim of the study is to investigate the role and identity of teachers of additional languages and the place of the teaching of additional languages in the New Zealand school system from the teachers' perspectives. To this end, a mixed-methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Creswell, Plano Clark, & Garrett, 2008; Crotty, 1998) (Creswell et al., 2008) was utilised to enable collection of a range of data. There were three phases of data collection. Phase One involved the pilot testing of a questionnaire survey instrument which was refined for full use in Phase Two. The survey captured teachers' demographic information (age, gender, school context), and academic and professional background (qualifications, teaching experience), as well as the perceptions they held of their own knowledge, skills and beliefs about languages teaching and learning through quantitative and open-ended questions. The data collected in the survey set the scene for Phase Three of this study, which involved capturing the stories of three classroom teachers of languages via interviews and written logs over a period of approximately two school terms.

The chapter presents the research questions and discusses the chosen interpretive research paradigm. The assumptions about this philosophical underpinning in relation to this study are given. The methodological challenges and ethical considerations associated with this design are then outlined, followed by the steps involved in the analysis of the two data sets. Finally, the contexts of the three cases are presented to provide a brief introduction to the participants and the manner in which the data were collected.

3.2 Research questions

The introduction and literature review chapters gathered information about what is already known about the context within which teachers of additional languages in New Zealand work. Through an examination of the existing literature pertaining to quality

teaching in general, and quality languages teaching in particular, these two chapters outlined the expectations placed on teachers of additional languages. Mechanisms of support, and policies underpinning the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand were also considered. It ensued from this review that the literature pointed to a clear gap in the knowledge regarding the background of teachers of additional languages, as well as the perception they may have of their role and identity within the New Zealand school context. Therefore this study proposed the following research questions:

1. What is the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools?
2. How do teachers perceive their *role* as teachers of additional languages, and how does this impact on their *identity*?
3. What is the *place* of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools?

The first question acknowledges that to date there has not been any research which asks teachers of languages from Years 1 to 13 in New Zealand schools about who they are and what it is they do. The second question seeks to give voice to teachers of languages regarding their actual roles and identities. The final question considers the place of the teaching of languages within the New Zealand school system.

3.3 Research paradigm

A paradigm, or worldview, is described by Guba (1990) as being “a basic set of beliefs that guides actions” (p. 17). The set of beliefs that underpinned and guided this study about the world of teaching additional languages in New Zealand schools is shaped by interpretivist and constructivist paradigms. The interpretivist paradigm, “*looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world*” (Crotty, 1998, p. 67, original emphasis), acknowledging that there are multiple worldviews and therefore multiple ways of interpreting the society within which we work, play and learn. This is in contrast to a positivist paradigm which seeks to identify universal features of humanhood, society and history that offer explanation and hence control and predictability (Crotty, 1998, p. 67). The constructivist paradigm is also a

good fit for a study of this kind as it acknowledges that “human beings construct their perceptions of the world, that no one perception is ‘right’ or more ‘real’ than another, and that these realities must be seen as wholes rather than divided into discrete variables that are analysed separately” (Glesne, 2005, p. 7). In addition, the data in this study are placed on the same footing, with none being “objective, absolute or truly generalisable” (Crotty, 1998, p. 16).

As previously mentioned, the aim of the study was to find out who teachers of languages are through their own descriptions of what it is they do and how they meet the challenges of teaching additional languages. The research approach taken for this study, therefore, is based on the assumption that the reality of being a teacher of languages is constructed through the experiences of those who are living that role. In addition, this approach acknowledges that how individuals make sense of these experiences, their perceptions of events that happen—both inside and outside of the languages classroom—give understanding to the role, place and identity of the teacher of languages.

Interpretivism is associated with meaning making, making sense of the world based on shared historical and social perspectives, and interpreting these experiences, backgrounds, perspectives and social interactions (Bochner, 2005; Crotty, 1998; Willis, 2007). The Phase Two survey collected both quantitative and qualitative data, and the Phase Three case studies collected qualitative data. All data were then open to interpretation by the researcher based on her own experiences and history as a languages teacher and teacher educator. The interpretive worldview allows for the combination of data types alongside the multiple realities of the various participants and the interpretations of the researcher (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

3.4 Mixed-methods research design

A mixed-methods design has become an increasingly popular choice for researchers instead of a strict adherence to either the qualitative or quantitative data collection methods. As Crotty (1998) argues, “we should accept that, whatever research we engage in, it is possible for either qualitative methods or quantitative methods, or both, to serve our purposes” (p. 15). It is, however, up to the researcher to determine the

design that offers the most appropriate foundation for collecting data relevant to the research questions.

This study placed equal priority on the quantitative and qualitative data collected, with both types of data playing important roles in addressing the research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In addition, some interaction occurred between the two sets of data at critical points in the study in order to clarify developing themes and findings. This type of design is what Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) refer to as the Development or ‘D’ design where “one method is implemented first, and the results are used to help select the sample, develop the instrument, or inform the analysis for the other method” (p. 267). The Expansion or ‘E’ design is also relevant as it is related to the researcher’s desire to “extend the scope, breadth, and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components” (Greene et al., 1989, p. 269). This moving between designs is an acknowledgement that designs are not always determined from the start of a study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) refer to mixed-methods designs as being able to be placed at various points along a continuum, between ‘fixed’ or predetermined and ‘emergent’ where results from the data and ongoing development of research questions influence how the design emerges.

The following definition of mixed-methods research provides a useful summary of the approach taken in this study:

Mixed-methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 123)

3.5 Research methods

The NOLT08 survey

An online survey, the National Online Language Teachers’ survey (NOLT08), was developed for use in this study. Two main reasons underpinned this decision. First, a

survey is an effective method for gathering data to provide broad understanding of a phenomenon. Second, the use of a survey allows access to a largely unknown target population. While language teachers at secondary school level (Years 9 and above) are generally subject specialists and are relatively easy to identify, those teaching at lower levels of schooling are usually generalist teachers and may or may not identify as teachers of languages. The link to an online survey can be easily advertised and disseminated across and between groups of teachers, meaning it can be sent on to teachers that might otherwise not be reached by a paper-based survey.

The online questionnaire tool *SurveyMonkey* (<http://www.surveymonkey.com>) was chosen for the construction of the NOLT08 survey because of its many suitable built-in functions to help the researcher to design a high-quality questionnaire. *SurveyMonkey* can manage many different question types (for example, open, closed, multiple choice, ranked) and allows for ready management of responses. Additional advantages of using this tool were that the researcher was already familiar with many of its features and had experience using it to collect research data, and that the researcher's workplace had a professional subscription to *SurveyMonkey*.

Surveys have some advantages over face-to-face interviews for gathering research data. Burns (2000) argues that a wide range of the relevant population can be accessed in an efficient manner; all respondents receive the same questions; errors resulting from the recording of responses by interviewers are avoided; issues around timing and venue as required by face-to-face interviews are avoided; and direct influence on respondents from the interviewer's presence is avoided. Online surveys have additional advantages such as being more compact (due to the ability to use pull-down menus), ensuring respondents answer specific questions as well as re-directing respondents past a question not relevant to them (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

Using case study

Case study methodology was employed to further explore what it means to be a teacher of additional languages in New Zealand. This research method allowed for multiple opportunities to capture the real-life context of the language teacher in a variety of settings through a variety of means and over a period of time.

Case study methodology has been described by researchers in different ways (Bassey, 1999; Gillham, 2000; Jones, Torres, & Arminio, 2006; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009) although all point to the importance of the context to the object(s) of the study and research questions. They also highlight the importance of cases being bound, having clear units of measurement and following clear procedures for data collection and analysis. Yin (2012) outlines three types of case studies—the descriptive, the explanatory and the exploratory case study while Stake (2003) uses two categories, namely the intrinsic case study and the instrumental case study.

The three cases in this study were exploratory and instrumental in nature, exploratory, in that they sought to discover how participants perceived their role and identity as teachers of additional languages, and instrumental, in that they sought to facilitate the understanding of the data from the national survey conducted earlier.

There are several benefits to using case studies when researching teachers' work. In the same way that Nuthall (2007) promotes the examination of students' experiences in order to get to the closest point of their learning, so too in this study does the examination of the teachers' experience bring the researcher and reader to the closest point of the role and identity of the teachers. Through examining teachers' experiences and perceptions of their role and identity, a greater understanding of teaching and learning additional languages in New Zealand schools is possible.

As Freeman (1996) acknowledges, research into teachers' practice allows teachers permission and space to talk about what is happening in their classroom, thereby valuing their contribution and voice. However such inquiry can also create vulnerabilities as their beliefs, values and day-to-day teaching are open to examination and critique by the researcher and future readers. This then places additional responsibility on the researcher to ensure participants' anonymity is protected and they can come to no harm through participating in such research. See Section 3.7 for further discussion on ethical issues.

3.6 Data collection phases

According to Berg (2009), “the purpose of research is to discover answers to questions through the application of systematic procedures” (p. 8). In line with this, data collection methods and tools have been chosen to best suit the research questions being asked. For an overview of the relationship between the research questions and the data collection tools see Table 2 at the end of Section 3.8.

There were three data collection phases in this study. Each phase, along with details of the research population and how they were accessed, is discussed below (see Figure 4 for a summary of the phases). The development of the data collection tools is discussed later, in Section 3.8.

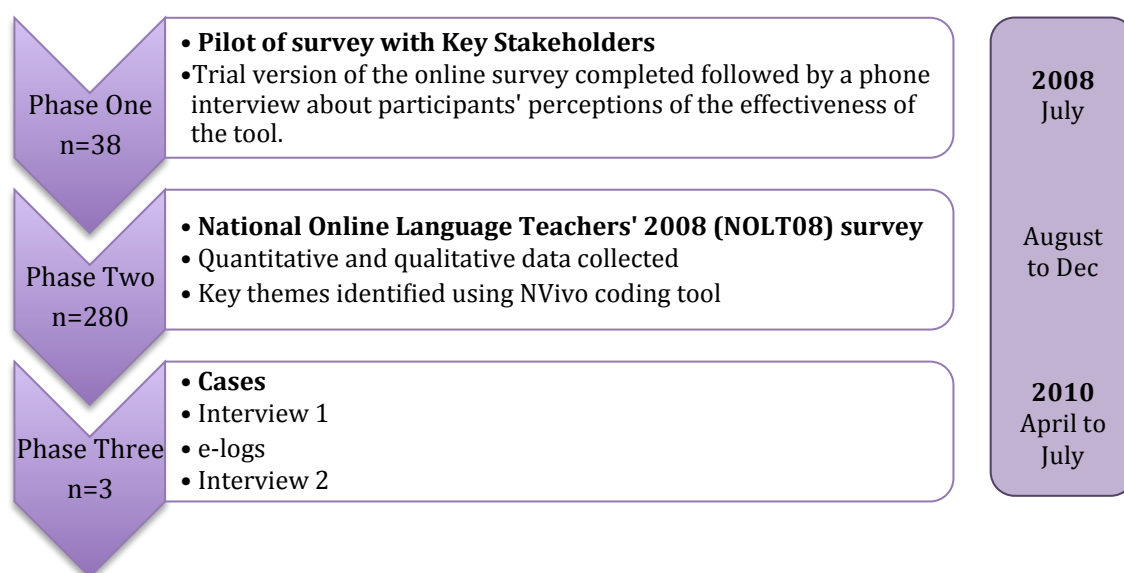


Figure 4: Data collection phases in this study

Phases One and Two: The National Online Language Teachers' 2008 survey (NOLT08)—a snapshot in time

The national online survey provided a snapshot in time of the background and current teaching situations of teachers from across New Zealand, teaching a number of different languages in a range of different contexts. In essence the NOLT08 survey took a static slice of who the languages teachers were in 2008, and gave baseline data against which any subsequent data from similar surveys could be measured.

Phase One: The pilot of the survey with key stakeholders included a representative from each of the following groups: the Ministry of Education; the writing group for the new learning area; School Support Services Learning Languages Advisers; the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers; and teachers of additional languages at primary and secondary schools. The key stakeholders were identified by the researcher through existing contacts or were recommended to the researcher by a member of the language teaching community. Each stakeholder was contacted by phone or email with an invitation to participate. The 38 key stakeholders completed a trial version of the online survey and were then interviewed about their perceptions of the effectiveness of the tool. Changes made to the survey as a result of this pilot are discussed in Section 3.8.

Phase Two: The National Online Language Teachers' 2008 survey (NOLT08) involved a cross-sectional national survey of teachers of languages from Years 1 to 13. It was conducted online from August 2008 until the end of December 2008. It sought to determine participants' prior level of education, qualifications and level of experience in teaching languages, professional development experience, as well as their own beliefs about languages learning and teaching. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from 317 respondents of whom 109 indicated a willingness to participate in Phase Three of the study.

Strategies to ensure a good response rate

A number of strategies were used to ensure the best response rate possible to the NOLT08 survey. Participants were self-selecting. Using funds made available through a postgraduate research scholarship with the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education, postcards were printed and distributed in a variety of ways. The methods of advertising²⁴ used at different stages of the process are as follows:

Initial alert—pre-launch stage

- Early July—postcards handed out at the NZALT biennial conference to over 200 delegates;
- 18.07.08—advertisements placed in the Education Review²⁵ newspaper;

²⁴ See Appendix D for examples of advertising used.

²⁵ The Education Review was a weekly newspaper distributed free to schools and educational institutions throughout New Zealand until 2010 when it became an online publication. See www.educationreview.co.nz

- 28.07.08—a brief (free) advertisement placed in the online and print versions of the Education Gazette²⁶.

Launch announcement—multi-pronged approach

- 08.08.08—a link on the home page of the NZALT website²⁷ to an internal link about the NOLT08 survey went live and an email was sent to members alerting them to this;
- 11.08.08—Postcards inserted into 2800 copies of the Education Gazette;
- 25.08.08—Paid advertisement in the Education Gazette;
- Invitation emails sent to every school office—addresses accessed from open source data;
- Invitation posted on language teachers’ electronic mailing lists.

Prompt, reminder, follow-up articles

- 250 Postcards given to languages advisers to hand out;
- 18.08.08 Article in *Massey News*;
- Some School Support Services advisers (not just languages advisers) used the survey link in their email signatures, and handed out postcards to schools;
- Advertisement on language teachers’ electronic mailing lists;
- Colleagues—visiting schools to see teachers or student-teacher visiting.

Follow-up: extension of completion deadline

- October 2008—PPTA News²⁸ published a short article about the study inviting members to complete the survey.
- November 2008—500 postcards inserted into *The New Zealand Language Teacher* journal for NZALT members.

²⁶The Education Gazette is a fortnightly publication which most New Zealand schools subscribe to, containing articles of professional interest, vacancies for positions and notices from the Ministry of Education.

²⁷ www.nzalt.org.nz

²⁸The Post Primary Teachers’ Association (PPTA), publish a monthly newsletter which goes to all members.

Phase Three: Cases—changes over time

In contrast to the NOLT08 survey, the focus of the cases was a longitudinal exploration of the experiences of three individual teachers over a set period of time. Their own stories about language teaching and learning were captured through semi-structured interviews and e-logs, thereby providing an in-depth view of these teachers' perceptions of their own lived experiences as teachers of languages. There is an acknowledgement that the data collection process itself also contributed to the teachers' construction of who they are as teachers of languages as they talked with the researcher and as they regularly reflected on their classroom practice and their interactions with their students through their e-logs. The very act of talking about the stories of these teachers means that their "lived experiences gather[ed] hermeneutic significance as we (reflectively) gather[ed] them by giving memory to them" (van Manen, 1990, p. 37).

While the data for Phase Two were collected from teachers of languages at all year levels, a decision was made for the Phase Three data collection to focus mainly on teachers of languages in primary settings. This decision was made once a preliminary analysis of the significant results from Phase Two had been conducted. These results revealed that those teaching in the primary sector in particular were least likely to have made a personal choice to be teaching languages. The qualitative comments of the primary teachers and those teaching across both primary and secondary sectors, who *had* made a personal choice to teach languages and who were willing to be involved in the next phase of the study (n=42), were examined alongside the quantitative data to determine whether an in-depth investigation might help to address the research questions. The following points were considered during this examination of the individual contexts:

1. They were regularly teaching a language at primary level;
2. They highlighted aspects of their teaching and/or learning context in the qualitative comments of interest to the researcher—e.g. challenges, ways of managing the programme;
3. They were teaching in a context of interest—e.g. across both primary and secondary sectors or in more than one school);
4. They represented a range of qualifications and experiences in relation to language teaching and learning; and
5. Their location was convenient to the researcher.

Three participants teaching languages at the primary level were then identified and approached to participate in the case studies.

The NOLT08 survey data showed that these three teachers held different roles in their respective schools and were involved in teaching languages in a range of contexts. They were invited to complete an e-log²⁹ of their language teaching and learning experiences over a 10 to 12 week period. Semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were also conducted prior to the commencement and after the completion of the e-logs. For two of the teachers (Helen and Eve), who worked collaboratively some of the time, the decision was made to conduct some interviews individually, and some with the two of them together. Helen and Eve also collaborated on some of the e-log entries. For the third teacher (Julie), all interviews were conducted individually. (See Section 3.8 and Appendix L for a summary of the Phase Three data collection timeframe).

3.7 Methodological issues

Data collection for Phases One and Two began in July 2008 once all ethical considerations had been met and the Massey University Human Ethics Committee had granted full ethics approval. The first two phases occurred in 2008 and the third phase in 2010. Two applications to the Massey University Human Ethics Committee were completed. Approval was given for Phases One and Two in May 2008, and for Phase Three in December 2009 (see Appendices A, B, C, E, G, H, I and J inclusive for documentation and Appendix M for approval letters).

Ethical issues

As with any research involving human participants, there are a number of ethical considerations that have to be addressed. Issues of privacy and anonymity, voluntary and informed consent, the protection of the rights and interests of participants, the potential benefit outweighing potential harm, and the likelihood of important knowledge being generated from the research are overarching ethical principles. Keeping the data secure and ensuring instruments are tried out before use also need to be considered (Berg, 2009).

²⁹ In this study, an e-log refers to a semi-structured journal written online.

An ethical issue of major concern in this research was how to protect participants' anonymity. The languages teaching community in New Zealand is relatively small and many teachers are involved in various groups from language-specific networks to cross-language associations. During Phase Two, participants were not required to give any personal information although they were asked to provide the name of the school in which they taught so that the data provided could be validated against open source, Ministry of Education databases about school size, location and decile³⁰ rating. It was therefore initially possible that some institutions were identifiable during different stages of the cleaning and analysis of the data through this information. However, once the data were coded, any such links were removed or hidden. All efforts were made to preserve the anonymity and confidentiality of Phase Two participants. It was made clear to the Phase Three participants that they could possibly be identified from their descriptions but that all efforts would be made to protect their identity. The researcher attempted to minimise the risk of identification by the use of pseudonyms for individuals' names and those of all people they mention, their workplaces and any locations identified relating to their workplaces.

A second ethical issue was related to potential conflict of interest. Due to the researcher's high profile in the languages teaching community and related networks, many of those who completed the online survey, and all three case study participants, were previously known to the researcher. There was however no power differential in the relationships, i.e. the participants were neither colleagues nor current students of the researcher. These matters were discussed with the doctoral supervision team and the Massey University Human Ethics Committee approved the application for the study.

³⁰ Decile ratings are calculated according to the socio-economic status (SES) of the school's catchment. This SES status is based on data from New Zealand's five-yearly Census of Population and Dwellings. Decile 1 schools are the 10% of schools with the highest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities, whereas decile 10 schools are the 10% of schools with the lowest proportion of these students. A school's decile does not indicate the overall socio-economic mix of the school.
<http://www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/Schools/SchoolOperations/Resourcing/OperationalFunding/Deciles/HowTheDecileIsCalculated.aspx>

3.8 Development of the instruments

NOLT08 survey (Phases One and Two)

The first step in the process of developing a national survey was to determine whether any previous surveys in the field could inform the survey design and question choice. A project conducted by the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Aotearoa New Zealand association (TESOLANZ) included such a survey as it sought to profile the TESOL profession in New Zealand and develop core competencies for TESOL teachers (Haddock, 1998a, 1998b). The focus was on collecting demographic data—who was teaching ESOL, their background and where they were teaching—and was undertaken to define its membership in order to best meet future teaching and learning demands (personal communication, Dan Haddock, April 2, 2008). While data on qualifications were collected, the emphasis was not on comparing or ranking these, rather the emphasis was on the development of a generic base of competencies for the TESOL profession which could be “applied to teachers in any educational setting” (Haddock, 1998a, p. 2).

Development of the survey questions

The demographic questions (including questions around teaching and tertiary qualifications) used in the NOLT08 survey were initially informed by Teacher Census questions used by the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 1998c, 2001, 2004). They were however adapted to take into account the languages-specific details of the participants required for this research.

The remainder of the questions for the NOLT08 survey drew from literature regarding the features of effective professional learning (Ministry of Education, 2002a), the literature on effective teaching (Alton-Lee, 2003; Gibbs, 2003; Ministry of Education, 2002e, 2002g, 2005), effective teaching in languages (Alton-Lee, 2003; Gibbs & Holt, 2003; Kohler, Harbon, Fischmann, McLaughlin, & Liddicoat, 2006; Liddicoat, 2006), and on research that has been undertaken on the content and skills that need to be explored in professional development programmes for languages, especially literature from the field of second language acquisition methodology (Brown, 1987; Ellis, 2005, 2008). The survey questions relating to knowledge and skills, language teaching strategies and decisions about language teaching sought to determine teachers’ “sets of

beliefs, images and constructs” (Danielewicz, 2001, p. 9) about language teaching and learning.

Pilot of the NOLT08 survey

If you do not have the resources to pilot-test your questionnaire, don't do the study.

(Sudman & Bradburn, 1982, p. 283)

Phase One of the study involved pilot testing of the survey instrument with 38 participants. This occurred in July 2008, before the final version of NOLT08 survey was launched in early August. As Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) point out, testing in the field on a sample of people similar to the target sample allows the researcher to “collect feedback about how the instrument works and whether it performs the job it has been designed for” (p. 53).

Therefore, the purpose of the pilot of the NOLT08 survey was to determine:

1. the appropriateness of the questions for the sector;
2. the clarity of the instructions and questions;
3. whether any of the questions were open to various interpretations and therefore deemed ambiguous;
4. whether there was enough opportunity to make comment; and
5. how long the survey would take to complete.

Half of the 38 people approached to complete the pilot survey were non-language specialists who were asked to complete all questions with any response that made sense to them. The remainder of the respondents were all involved in languages education and represented a range of languages: Cook Islands Māori, Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Samoan, Spanish and te reo Māori. They were considered as key stakeholders in this study and included 12 full-time classroom teachers, six in primary and six in secondary contexts; four languages advisers working across the country alongside teachers in schools; two researchers in languages education; and one languages educational consultant. Two respondents also had roles on the executive bodies of national languages associations. This second group of 19 were asked to complete the questionnaire and to focus on the actual content of the survey, answering all questions

as if they were a languages teacher in the classroom. Prior to their involvement they were also sent an information sheet about the study outlining their rights as a participant and they were also asked to complete a consent form.

The responses from all participants were used to determine the kinds of data that might be generated and how they might look once downloaded and coded. Within a couple of days after completing the pilot version of the survey, all respondents were contacted to make further comment. These comments were elicited via email and/or phone calls (at a time that suited the participants) as appropriate. All respondents were asked to comment on any technical aspects of the pilot survey including question numbering, order of questions, and accuracy of language and clarity of instructions. In addition, the key stakeholders from the professional sector were asked to comment on the wording and content of the questions and to note if there were sufficient opportunities to make comments or give their opinions. They were also asked if there were any obvious omissions.

Overall, feedback was very positive. Some responses from the follow-up phone calls and emails included:

1. A primary school teacher of Japanese, who had not mentioned any other languages in the pilot survey online but when questioned in the follow-up phone call about any other languages that might be taught in the school initially said there weren't any but then said something like "but we do do te reo [Māori] but that's just a given, it's not a second language or anything, it's just part of what we you, you [*sic*] know".
2. A query about the place of the Official Languages of New Zealand, i.e. the teaching of te reo Māori and New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL) and whether these should be highlighted as languages that teachers could include in 'second language' learning.
3. A query about the importance of Pasifika languages and whether the survey should or would target teachers of Samoan, Tongan and others.

Aside from the 38 who completed the pilot version of the NOLT08 survey, the researcher also sought feedback from doctoral supervisors and a colleague experienced in the impact of question design on both types of data generated and on coding of data.

Following the pilot testing of the NOLT08 survey, some changes were made to the questionnaire instrument. Technical changes following the pilot of the survey included:

- clarifying the ‘Information to Teachers’ section (also as a result of the ethics process);
- changing the ‘Date of Birth’ question to five-year bands rather than specifying a date;
- checking the wording of questions for inclusivity;
- changing the order of questions slightly; and
- adding a new final question, inviting participants to be involved in a follow-up interview.

Changes to the content of the survey included:

- adding definitions of key terms used;
- adding questions about the Official Languages of New Zealand;
- including questions about secondary languages classes (the earlier version only requested specifics from the primary school teachers);
- including opportunities to make comments throughout the survey; and
- an acknowledgement of where the data might be used or published in the future by the researcher.

Semi-structured interviews and e-logs

Phase Three of the research involved case studies of three teachers of additional languages. Each teacher took part in two semi-structured interviews and was asked to complete an e-log of their language teaching experiences. Van Manen (1990) cautions against an overly open-ended approach for the interviews as this may lead to long-winded or leading questions by the researchers along with an unmanageable data set. To avoid this happening, an interview schedule addressing the research aims and questions was developed (see Appendix H).

In this study, the presentation of three individual cases is neither an attempt to uncover an existing truth about typical language teachers or how they work, nor is there an expectation that what is revealed in the cases will be generalisable to other cases. Instead, the individual studies exemplify three different perspectives on the phenomenon that is teaching languages in a primary context. As they took part in semi-

structured interviews and wrote e-logs about who they are as a teacher of an additional language, they exposed their individual experienced realities in the world of language teaching, interpreting these realities for themselves, making sense of their identities, their roles, and their place in relation to their work as teachers of additional languages. In this sense, while used to illustrate three divergent, yet at times converging stories about what it is to be a teacher of additional languages in New Zealand, the representation and interpretation of these three cases are an acknowledgement by the researcher of their importance and intrinsic value in discussing the general condition of the role, place and identity of teachers of languages. What is provided then is what Stake (2003) refers to as a *thick description*, covering the issues, contexts and interpretations for each case.

The methods used to uncover stories leading to these *thick descriptions* were semi-structured interviews and e-logs. Semi-structured interviews, such as those discussed by Borg (2006), have particular characteristics. They are:

typically based around a set of topics or a loosely defined series of questions; they are flexible, allowing the conversation a certain amount of freedom in terms of the direction it takes; and respondents are also encouraged to talk in an open-ended manner about the topics under discussion or any other matters they feel are relevant. (p. 203)

Key advantage of semi-structured interviews in this conversational style is the relationship that can be built up between the researcher and the participant and therefore the empowerment of the participant in the research process.

All three participants in this phase of the study had completed the NOLT08 survey so the researcher already had some information at hand. Appendix H gives details of possible questions envisaged for the case participants at the time of the application to the Massey University Human Ethics Committee. As well as some general background questions to allow the teacher to elaborate on their responses given to the NOLT08 survey, the questions in the first interview had a focus on the professional learning and decisions made by these teachers with regard to their own teaching and learning of additional languages. These semi-structured interviews were held at a location and time

negotiated with participants and concluded with a discussion about the procedures for completion of the e-log.

Participants were asked to keep a record of their thoughts about the decisions they make as a language learner and teacher. The frequency and nature of these recordings was negotiated at the time of the first interview with Helen and Eve each deciding to use a blog tool for the purpose and Julie preferring to send her thoughts via email. All three used written text in English. They were encouraged to record their thoughts, including critical moments from their classroom teaching or of their own language learning, once a week—or more frequently—if something had occurred that they wanted to record.

The purpose of the second interview was to clarify some of the detail given in the entries made in the e-logs and to follow-up on some of the themes that had arisen from an ongoing analysis of the NOLT08 data. The researcher had earlier considered the use of vignettes to elicit responses to some typical activities of teachers of languages in order to encourage responses at this second interview, however given the detailed information received from each of the case participants it was decided that there would not be sufficient time in the interview to pursue with this tool.

Unexpected data

From reading the weekly reflections of two of the participants in Phase Three of the data collection phase, it became clear to the researcher that a good deal of their time was being spent on the preparation for two upcoming school camps that, alongside the usual science and environmental focus would have significant links to the Spanish language and Spanish-speaking countries. The two participants involved had some awareness of the research process and commented on the need to triangulate the data from their interviews and e-log entries and extended an invitation to the researcher to attend the camp, saying:

*I suppose it would be good for you to actually see the kids in action too—
just in case it doesn't deliver the way we say it does. (Helen 04.04.10)*

The researcher thus became a participant-observer for four days at one of the 'Spanish camps'. This gave the researcher the opportunity to make the strange familiar and the

familiar strange (Erikson, 1973). This meant putting aside previous knowledge about the participants in the study, about acquisition of additional languages and instead allowing the context itself to pose the questions about why things were done in a particular way.

Although a fully registered teacher, the researcher's main role throughout the Spanish camp was to be the equivalent of a parent help—to provide support in the kitchen on the end of a potato peeler if necessary and to act in the role of a sensible adult should the need arise. It was important that the school was aware that I was attending the camp in such a capacity and not as a researcher intent on collecting data for my study. However, it was not possible to completely put aside the reason that I came to be invited to participate in the camp. Certainly, the opportunity to be part of the language learning and teaching was very rewarding. What I was able to observe were the energy and commitment of the teachers as they sought to engage children in the language learning process as frequently as possible. The children themselves did not need much persuading as they tried out Spanish language phrases learnt in the classroom in situations involving communicating for a purpose.

Summary of data collection tools

This section has outlined the development of the tools used in the data collection phases of this study. Table 2 shows how each of these tools provided opportunities for the research questions to be answered. The three research questions are presented in the first column. The bullet pointed parts underneath the research questions link to the relevant sections of the NOLT08 survey, and the arrows link to additional questions asked of the case study participants during the interviews or elicited from the e-log data. The second column gives details of the specific question numbers from the NOLT08 survey, with the underlining denoting questions that allowed for qualitative comments to be made. The third column indicates that the interviews and e-logs enabled the case study participants to provide information relevant to all three research questions.

Table 2: Research questions linked to data collection methods and types

Research Questions	Data Source / Instrument	
	NOLT08* Survey (Quantitative & Qualitative)	Individual interviews & e-logs (Qualitative)
1. What is the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools?		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher background (identity) age, ethnicity, mother tongue, gender, qualifications, current teaching position/ context, reason for teaching languages 	Questions 6 to 16, 33	✓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language teaching background Languages taught, professional learning programmes attended, language proficiency 	Questions 17 to 24	✓
2. How do teachers perceive their role as teachers of additional languages, and how does this impact on their identity?		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Own knowledge and skills in languages teaching <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Where this knowledge was acquired ➢ How they felt about their own learning 	Questions 34, 35	✓ ✓ ✓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language teaching strategies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ What worked well for them ➢ What helped/hindered 	Question 36	✓ ✓ ✓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decisions about languages programme <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Specific things that were within their control 	Question 37	✓ ✓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student learning Teacher perceptions of student achievement in one language class <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ How they measured student success ➢ What helped/hindered 	Questions 31 & 32	✓ ✓ ✓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Further comments, contact details for next phase 	Questions 38, 39	
3. What is the place of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools?		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School background Name, type, decile, size, region Official languages of NZ 	Questions 1 to 5, 25 & 26	✓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sector-specific questions Language classes taught—level, frequency, mode, size of class Primary sector (Years 1 to 8) Secondary sector (Years 9 to 13) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Expectations of the level taught at regarding reporting, planning 	Questions 27 & 28 Questions 29 & 30	✓ ✓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decisions about languages programme <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Influence/ support from the school on the languages programme 	Question 37	✓

* See Appendix F for a copy of the National Online Language Teachers' 2008 survey

3.9 Data analysis

Due to the different types of data gathered in this study, a range of tools was needed for the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative responses from the NOLT08 survey, and the qualitative responses from the interviews and e-logs. The statistical software package (SPSS) was used to analyse the quantitative data and the software programme NVivo was used to organise the qualitative data.

Analysis of the survey data

The data from the NOLT08 survey were downloaded from *SurveyMonkey* and imported into SPSS for analysis. While the intention of the study is not to tell a statistical story, the NOLT08 survey did generate a substantial amount of data, warranting the need to use a statistical tool beyond one that was limited to straightforward frequency calculations. While *SurveyMonkey* does have some rudimentary functions to help with the analysis of data, a more sophisticated programme was required to analyse the data gathered from this survey. Hence, the decision was made to download the complete data set for statistical analysis.

The data were ‘cleaned’ prior to any statistical analyses to remove as many inaccuracies as possible (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 88). Cleaning involved removing entries that were not of use to this study such as duplicate or incomplete entries and those from respondents teaching solely te reo Māori as a first language, or English to Speakers of Others Languages (ESOL). The reason for excluding teachers of ESOL and te reo Māori as a first language is that they are not part of the *Learning Languages* learning area in the New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium schools (Ministry of Education, 2007c) which is the context for this study. Respondents were invited to supply the name of the school so that additional background information available in the public domain from the Ministry of Education could be used to contextualise their responses. School demographic data (decile ratings and school roll) provided by the respondents were checked against the Ministry of Education school directory database. Where there was conflicting information, the survey responses were corrected according to the Ministry of Education information. Cleaning also involved providing data where respondents had missed it out but the response was either clear elsewhere in their answers or available from open source databases, such as information regarding the

school decile rating. Such replacement evidence ensured that frequency data were as accurate as possible.

Respondents to the NOLT08 survey were given a number of opportunities to clarify their responses to questionnaire items. These qualitative comments were particularly useful with regard to questions about the configuration of their additional languages classes, their perceptions about student achievement, and decisions they make about their languages programme. Over a third of the respondents made comments, which meant there were sufficient data for broad themes and sub-themes to be identified. NVivo was useful as an organising and coding tool for this purpose. However, not all respondents took the opportunity to qualify their answers with additional explanations each time it was offered, so it was important not to place too much weight on any individual respondent's comments.

The frequency data from the NOLT08 survey were then considered alongside the themes generated from the qualitative comments in the survey in relation to the research questions.

Analysis of the interview and e-log data

In keeping with the inductive, interpretive nature of this study, the interview questions during the case study phase of data collection were relatively unstructured and neutral. In order to be true to the lived experiences of the case study participants (Phase Three), and to be able to gain new understandings from the perspectives of the participants themselves of what is to be a teacher of languages in New Zealand, *in vivo* coding (using the words of the participants' themselves) was used in the initial analysis of the interview data both to keep the researcher close to the data (Charmaz, 2004), and to ensure the voices of the participants themselves were evident in the codes that were generated.

Given the large amount of qualitative data collected in Phase Three of this study, the software programme NVivo was used to help with the iterative process of sorting and coding the interview and e-log data. Each of the three cases was considered separately, with broad themes relevant to each participant identified from the first interview. As the e-log data were collected, individual timelines were created and data were mapped for

the creation of individual stories. Data from the second interview were then considered in light of the themes generated earlier and a further mapping exercise enabled these themes and sub-themes for each case to be used to develop a narrative of each teacher's language learning and teaching. Common themes across the teaching contexts of the three participants were then considered together. Participants were consulted to check initial transcripts of interviews and to seek clarification as required during the creation of the narratives.

Blending the data from Phases Two and Three

The broad themes that arose from the coding of qualitative comments in the NOLT08 survey were useful to consider when planning the interview schedules for use with the Phase Three participants. However, there was no intention to combine the data from the two research phases at any point of the analysis. Once the survey data were analysed and interpreted, and the individual stories had been written, it was then possible to consider how each set of data answered the research questions.

3.10 Data presentation in the thesis

When discussing the various advantages of quantitative and qualitative data, Ezzy (2002, p. 80) comments that:

It is easy to publish the results of a quantitative survey, [and it] takes less time to analyse. ... It is much harder to spend time with people listening to their voices, understanding their perspectives and sharing their problems. ... However, this sort of research provides a much more sophisticated understanding of the issues, will facilitate the formulation of more effective policy, and is politically and ethically sensitive.

Collecting the data is of course only the first step. Once gathered, it is up to the researcher to interpret the data and determine its meaning in relation to the aims of the study. In light of this, advice such as that which Ezzy (2002, p. 81) goes on to state is crucial:

Qualitative research is demonstrably trustworthy and rigorous when the researcher demonstrates that he or she has worked to understand the situated

nature of participants' interpretations and meanings. The quality of qualitative data analysis depends on following well-thought-out procedures, and on ensuring that these procedures reveal the structures of understanding of participants.

The following five chapters are both a presentation and an interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative data. In Chapter Four the findings from the NOLT08 survey are reported. While mainly quantitative in nature, there were also some opportunities for qualitative comments. In Chapters Five, Six, Seven and Eight, the findings from the three qualitative case studies are presented. An overview of these three cases can be found in the next section.

3.11 The contexts of the three cases

Each case consists of the examination of one teacher of languages in her own teaching context(s). Each context is unique, although two of the teachers in this study had one overlapping teaching context.

All three case study participants had completed the National Online Language Teachers' survey (NOLT08) at the end of 2008. They were then interviewed twice in 2010, the first time in early March and the second time about six months later. In-between the two interviews, participants were invited to send weekly reflections on their language learning and teaching to the researcher. For two participants these reflections were in the form of an online e-log that they each created for the purpose. The third participant sent her reflections to the researcher via email.

The two interviews marked the approximate beginning and end of the data collection phases for the three case study participants, with the e-log reflections in between the interviews tracing longitudinally the participants' language learning and teaching practice over the time. This was in contrast to the NOLT08 survey, which allowed for a range of responses to be gathered from hundreds of respondents teaching across many languages and year levels at one point in time.

Introducing Julie, Helen and Eve

Julie, Helen and Eve³¹ were the three participants who gave their time to tell their language learning and teaching story. All three participants are qualified to teach in New Zealand schools. Julie has a secondary-specific teaching qualification and was teaching Japanese and French at primary level as well as secondary level. Helen and Eve both had primary-specific teaching qualifications and were teaching Spanish at primary level. The three teachers in this study either applied for a position that involved the teaching of languages (Julie and Eve), and/or sought ways to incorporate the teaching of languages into existing positions (Helen and Eve).

In the first interview Julie, Helen and Eve retold experiences, events, successes and failures that shaped them into becoming a languages teacher, occasionally identifying significant moments from the journey along the way. The e-logs that followed provided the opportunity for them to share their lived experiences as language teachers over a specific time period. These e-logs were a private reflection, capturing the day-by-day moments that shaped them, motivated them, frustrated and delighted them in the classroom, workplace and beyond. The second interview, held after the final e-log entry, allowed for reflection on, and clarification of, the events of the weeks captured in the e-logs.

Danielewicz (2001) refers to identities as being “constantly under construction as they are reformed, added to, eroded, reconstructed, integrated, dissolved, or expanded. Each of these conceptions of ‘self’ exists simultaneously and fluidly with varying degrees of importance or relevance given any one time or place” (p. 4). Through the sharing of their stories, Eve and Helen’s identities as teachers of Spanish and Julie’s identity as a teacher of Japanese and French have come to life as they documented and reflected on their own perceptions on becoming a language teacher.

The following table summarises key aspects of Julie, Helen and Eve’s teaching backgrounds, qualifications and experiences. It also includes their own perceived levels of proficiency in the languages they teach. These data were gleaned from the participants’ responses to the NOLT08 survey as well as from the case study data.

³¹ The names of all teachers and schools have been changed.

Table 3: Demographic data of the three cases

	Julie	Helen	Eve
School context	Secondary Years 7-13	Full Primary Years 0-8	Full Primary Years 0-8 Across three schools
Teaching context	Specialist teacher of Japanese (Years 7,8,9,11,12,13) & French (Years 7,8,11)	Generalist classroom teacher: Year 8 Assistant Principal	Specialist teacher of Spanish (Years 4,5,6,7,8)
Teaching experience	14 years	20 years	10 years
Main language taught in 2008	Japanese	Spanish	Spanish
Qualifications	In Japanese	In French NCEA Level 1 Spanish	University 100-level Spanish
Reported proficiency in main language^a	Level 4: Social competency level: I can cope with a wide range of topics sometimes in new contexts	Level 3: Intermediate/survival level: I can cope with daily conversations on familiar topics	Level 3: Intermediate/survival level: I can cope with daily conversations on familiar topics
How main language learnt	University study	In country experience Personal independent study (NCEA level 1) University study Use of <i>Si</i> kits ^b Spanish Embassy courses	In country experience Personal independent study Attended night classes University study
Sources of second language teaching methodology and pedagogy knowledge (including PD opportunities)	One-day courses In-country courses	One-day courses In-school support from languages adviser or equivalent Personal independent study Part of a Ministry-funded programme University study: single papers	One-day courses In-country courses In-school support from languages adviser or equivalent Personal independent study Part of a Ministry-funded programme University study: single papers
Perceived gaps in own knowledge	Giving meaningful feedback	Own language proficiency	Own language acquisition New curriculum document to adapt and apply as appropriate
Reported proficiency in other languages^a	Te reo Māori (Level 2) German (Level 2) French (Level 4)	Te reo Māori (Level 2) French (Level 4)	Te reo Māori (Level 2) French (Level 2)

^a Levels 1-5, with 5 being the highest

^b The '¡Sí! An introduction to Spanish' resource is one of the Learning Languages Series (LLS) multi-media materials designed for teachers and students who are new to language learning. The series is designed for Years 7 and 8 students and supports Levels 1 and 2 achievement objectives in the curriculum of the respective languages. (See Appendix P for the Levels 1 and 2 generic achievement objectives).

The e-log data

In order to explore the lived-experience of Julie, Helen and Eve, their reflections were collected over a period of 10 to 12 weeks during school term time. Participants committed to writing about one entry per week that they made available to the researcher either via email or an online blog at the time of writing. For the purpose of this study, these semi-structured online journal entries have been labelled as 'e-logs'. Other than an acknowledgement of receipt of the e-logs, the researcher did not comment on the content of the entries at the time of posting. Thus the content or direction of future entries was neither influenced nor pre-determined by ideas or questions from the researcher.

Julie's e-log data consisted of nine entries over a three-month period in 2010, beginning about one month into the first term of the school year (13 March) and finishing partway through the second term (13 June). They were mostly written at the end of a week and were evenly spaced throughout a 12-week period although one entry contained reflections spanning two weeks. The average length of each entry was approximately 800 words (in total just over 7,000 words). Julie used email to send her entries to the researcher.

Helen's e-log data consisted of 49 entries that were received via an online blogging tool. The first entry was posted at the end of the day of Helen's first interview for this study (6 March) and although the researcher indicated that no more entries were required after early July, the final entry occurred nearly six months later (1 September). Helen's frequency of posts and time between posts varied greatly. She posted almost one entry per day for the first month and about one entry per week thereafter, although sometimes there was more than one entry per week, and occasionally a break of two weeks between entries. Although Helen's word count in her blog entries was well over 15,000 words, about one-third of these included entries written with Eve about the Spanish camp and additional materials that supported some of the work Helen was describing (e.g. copies of vocabulary lists (Helen 26.03.10), messages from colleagues (Helen 20.04.10)).

Eve also used an online blogging tool to write approximately 4,000 words across 21 e-log entries. The first ten occurred during March from the day after the first interview (7

March) with the remaining 11 across the following three months. Eve's final entry occurred on 7 July, three days after the second interview.

The commitment by participants to write so much about their lives as language teachers was most appreciated by the researcher. Participants also saw some benefit in this. The participants bought into the importance of the topic under investigation and believed that it did give voice to their passion, practice and concerns for this newest learning area in the curriculum. In her e-log, Helen reflected on the benefits of the process for her and acknowledged the impact of this study on her own practice:

I'm probably more conscious of [the] impromptu Spanish I use during the day because I am recording it—but I'm also using it increasingly as students learn more and feel more confident using it in an authentic context—albeit a slightly contrived one sometimes. ... I probably stuck a bit more to my [lesson] plan, and time today because I had committed myself to it by writing it down for you last night. (Helen 10.03.10)

Through their e-logs and interviews, the participants reflected on their roles around language teaching and learning and commented on how they were perceived by others as well as sharing their own perceptions of actions and events related to being a teacher of additional languages.

The events covered a wide range and include the following: dealing with multi-level classes; the pressure of school-wide/government initiatives (numeracy, literacy, differentiation); embracing Information Communications Technology (ICT); working with learners with diverse needs; self-doubts as a language learner; celebrating language used by students at a school camp. These and other incidents (and indeed also the re-telling of these incidents) strengthened Julie, Helen and Eve's perceptions of their language teacher identity, revealing also their beliefs about language teaching and learning as they responded to the personal and professional challenges that appeared along the way.

Each participant's story is told in a separate chapter. Chapter Five is Julie's story, Chapter Six is Helen's story, and Chapter Seven is Eve's story. Chapter Eight then

examines the unique relationship that Helen and Eve share when their roles overlap as they work together.

3.12 Summary

This chapter has provided the background to the interpretivist paradigm stance taken in this study, from the deliberate selection of a mixed-methods research design and methods, to the rationale for the design and selection of tools that complement this stance. The three data collection phases have been described alongside the relevant ethical implications for each.

In Phase One 38 people trialled a pilot version of the NOLT08 survey instrument and offered feedback on both technical aspects and the content of the survey. Phase Two involved the online completion of the final version of the NOLT08 survey by teachers of additional languages working in schools with students at any year level from Years 1 to 13. In Phase Three, interviews and e-logs were used to collect data from three teachers of languages teaching in primary contexts that were described in Section 3.11.

The following five chapters present the findings from this study.

Chapter Four:

Who is teaching languages in New Zealand schools?

Results from the NOLT08 survey

4.1 Introduction

Although some data exist on the teaching population of New Zealand through Teacher Census collections (Ministry of Education, 1998c, 2001, 2004), these provide limited information on the languages teaching population in New Zealand. A National Online Language Teachers' 2008 survey (NOLT08 survey) for completion by teachers of any language (other than English or ESOL) at Years 1 to 13, was therefore chosen to collect such information at the end of 2008. This coincided with two high-profile events that also highlighted languages, namely, the UNESCO International Year of Languages (UNESCO, 2008) and the Beijing Olympics (International Olympic Committee, 2008). To this end the date of the opening of the 2008 Olympics 08.08.08 was chosen to launch the NOLT08 survey.

The final number of respondents at the close of the NOLT08 survey to be included in the findings and analysis once empty responses, duplications and responses from teachers of ESOL were excluded, was 280. These respondents represented 208 schools as more than one teacher responded in 44 schools. The highest number of responses from any one school was six from one intermediate (Years 7 and 8) school. More than three-quarters (79.3%, n=222) of respondents were female, and 20.7% (n=58) were male. Those teaching in the primary sector numbered 74, the secondary sector numbered 167 and those teaching across both sectors numbered 39. These three sector categories are used throughout this chapter to report on the NOLT08 survey data.

This chapter presents the data relating to the backgrounds and profiles of teachers of additional languages from the NOLT08 survey (for a copy of the survey questions see Appendix F). Firstly, the school context of the participants is outlined (see Section 4.2). This is followed by an introduction to the participants via their personal backgrounds (Section 4.3) their teaching qualifications (Section 4.4) and current position (Section 4.5). Participants' language teaching backgrounds (Section 4.6), including their choice

about language teaching (Section 4.7), and the configuration of the language programmes they teach in (Section 4.8), along with information about their own knowledge and skills (Section 4.9) are then presented. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the key themes drawn from the NOLT08 survey result (Section 4.10) and a chapter summary.

4.2 School context

School background: School type, decile ratings and size

In relation to school type, 24.3% (n=68) of respondents were teaching languages only at primary levels and were all employed at schools that were also only offering primary education. Just under half of the respondents 49.6% (n=139) were teaching languages at secondary schools (Year 9 and above) although nine of them were also teaching at primary level—at the local contributing primary school or intermediate school. The remaining respondents (26%, n=73) were teaching in schools that crossed both the primary and secondary sectors. Thirty of this last group of teachers were teaching languages across both sectors (see Table 4).

Given the complexity of the relationship between school types and levels, determining the actual number of respondents **teaching specific languages** at the respective levels required an analysis of results from a number of questions (Questions 2, 17, 20 and 30.1). Further results are detailed in Section 4.6.

Table 4: School type

	Percent ³²	Frequency	Teaching Primary only	Teaching Secondary only	Teaching across both sectors
Contributing Primary (Y0-6)	1.1	3	3		
Full Primary (Y0-8)	13.2	37	37		
Intermediate (Y7-8) / Middle School (Y7-10)	10.0	28	28		
Secondary (Y7-13)	17.1	48	3	26	19
Area/Composite School (Y0-13)	7.5	21	3	9	9
Correspondence School (Y0-13)	1.4	4		2	2
Secondary (Y9-13)	49.6	139		130	9
Total	100.0	280	74	167	39

Table 5 below, shows that nearly half the respondents (n=126 or 45%) taught at schools with one of the highest decile³³ ratings of either 8, 9 or 10 while only 11.1% (n=31) were teaching at schools with a low decile rating of either 1, 2 or 3. Just under a quarter (n=67 or 23.9%) of respondents came from schools with a roll between 501 and 850 students with a similar proportion of respondents (n=72) from schools with a roll of over 1200 students (see Table 6). Only 15 respondents came from schools with fewer than 100 students.

³² In any table, percentages may not add to exactly 100% due to rounding.

³³ See Section 3.7, Footnote 30, for a definition of 'decile'.

Table 5: School decile

	Frequency	Percent
Decile 1	4	1.4
Decile 2	12	4.3
Decile 3	15	5.4
Decile 4	21	7.5
Decile 5	29	10.4
Decile 6	39	13.9
Decile 7	30	10.7
Decile 8	46	16.4
Decile 9	38	13.6
Decile 10	42	15.0
Missing	4*	1.4
Total	280	100.0

* These four respondents all teach at the Correspondence School, which does not have a decile rating.

Table 6: School size

	Frequency	Percent
7-50 students	6	2.1
51-100 students	9	3.2
101-150 students	13	4.6
151-300 students	28	10.0
301-500 students	39	13.9
501-850 students	67	23.9
851-1200 students	46	16.4
1201-1600 students	34	12.1
1601-2000 students	25	8.9
2001+ students	13	4.6
Total	280	100.0

The 208 schools represented in the survey came from across New Zealand's six broad regions with the largest number (n=66 or 23.6%) coming from the Lower Central North Island region (Manawatu/Hawkes-Bay/Taranaki) followed by 63 (22.5%) from the Upper North Island (Auckland-Northland) region, 53 (19%) from the Upper South

Island (Canterbury-Nelson) region, 42 (15%) from the Upper Central North Island region (Waikato), 31 (11%) from the Lower North Island (Wellington/Wairarapa) region, and 21 (7.5%) from the Lower South Island (Otago) region. Teachers from four schools did not include their region. Figure 5 shows the geographical regions and the spread of respondents.

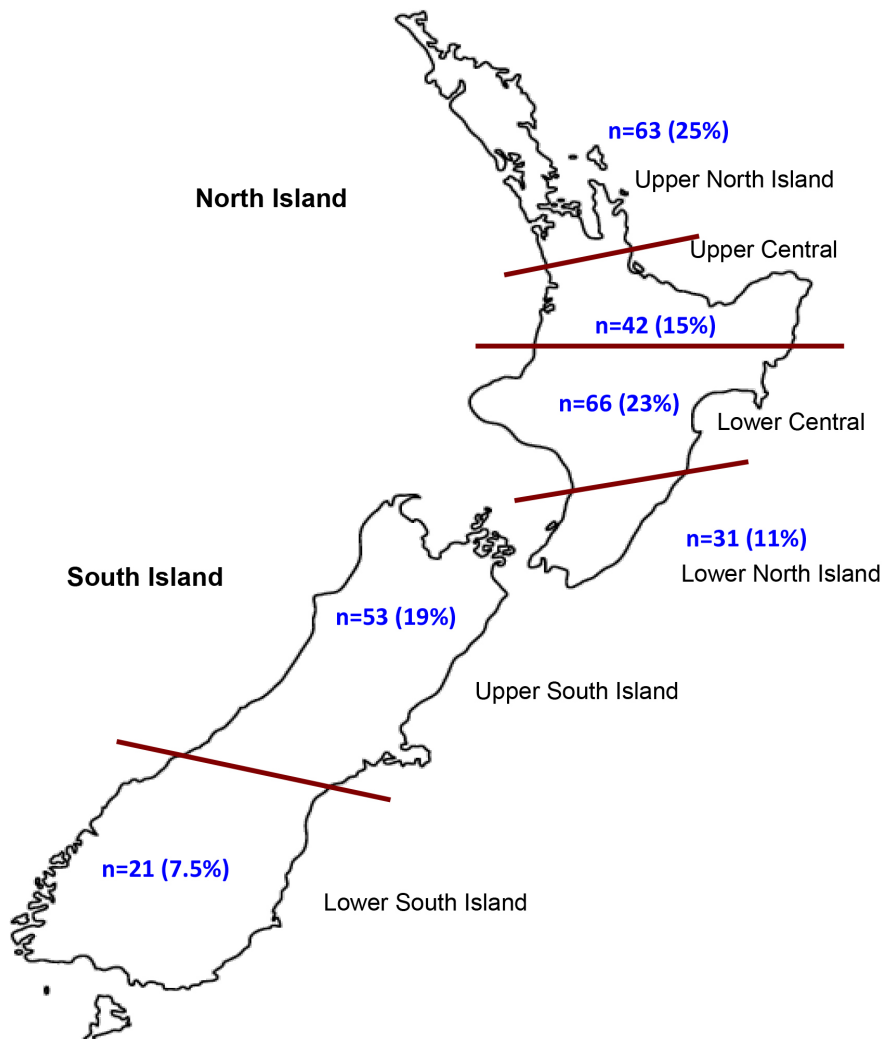


Figure 5: Spread of participants by region

Official languages of New Zealand

Earlier in Chapter One the positions of two of the three official languages of New Zealand, te reo Māori and New Zealand Sign Language, were highlighted with regard to acts of parliament, education in general and languages in the New Zealand Curriculum. To gain a clearer picture of how these languages were considered in school programmes, respondents to the NOLT08 survey were asked to indicate whether these two languages were taught as a first language or as a second language or even whether they were

present as the language of instruction used across all learning areas in the school. Table 7 outlines the findings.

Table 7: How the official languages of New Zealand are taught in schools

	Te reo Māori			New Zealand Sign Language		
	Responses		Percent of Valid Cases (n=267) ^a	Responses		Percent of Valid Cases (n=268) ^b
	Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent	
Not taught	29	9.9	10.9	255	95.1	95.1
Taught as the language of instruction across all learning areas	20	6.8	7.5	1	0.4	0.4
Taught as a first language	22	7.5	8.2	1	0.4	0.4
Taught as a second language	222	75.8	83.1	11	4.1	4.1
Total	293	100.0	109.7	268	100.0	100.0

^aMissing responses = 13 (4.6%) ^bMissing responses = 12 (4.3%)

Respondents could select more than one option for this question. While 89.1% of respondents indicated their school taught te reo Māori to some degree (with 83.1% teaching it as a second language), fewer than 5% of schools were teaching New Zealand Sign Language. Of the 22 schools that taught te reo Māori as a first language, 19 of those also taught it as a second language.

4.3 Participant background: Gender, age, ethnicity, mother tongue

In the NOLT08 survey, females represented 79.3% of respondents and males represented 20.7%. The relevance of these numbers in relation to the overall teaching population will be discussed in Section 4.10.

Table 8: Proportion of teachers by gender and age

Age	Missing	Under 30 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60+ years	Total
Female (%)	2 (0.9%)	24 (10.8%)	48 (21.6%)	55 (24.8%)	70 (31.5%)	23 (10.4%)	222
Male (%)	1 (1.7%)	4 (6.9%)	13 (22.4%)	20 (34.5%)	16 (27.6%)	4 (6.9%)	58
Total (%)	3 (1.1%)	28 (10.0%)	61 (21.8%)	75 (26.8%)	86 (30.7%)	27 (9.6%)	280

The largest number of respondents was from the 50-59 age-band with well over half the respondents over 40 years of age. The largest number of females was also from the 50-59 age-band while the largest number of males was from the 40-49 age band.

Ethnicity

Of the 278 valid cases responding to the question on ethnicity, 71.2% of participants identified as NZ European/Pakeha; 7.9% as Māori; 4.7% as Japanese; 2.5% as Chinese; 1.4% Samoan, 1.2% Other Pasifika and 0.7% South East Asian. The remaining 19.1% selected ‘other’. Most people identified one ethnicity only although a few identified more than one. A number of people commented about the limitations of the label ‘NZ European/Pakeha’ and seemed unsure how to categorise themselves in this question, with a couple of respondents going so far as to comment:

[I am a] New Zealand native of English ethnicity. (# 251)³⁴

I am a pakeha but I am not a NZ European; I’m an actual European. In this context isn’t it significant if I am a “NZ European” i.e. a New Zealander of European de[s]cent or an actual European? (# 66)

The largest group of ethnicities in the ‘other’ category were the British (12 from England, Scotland or Wales), followed by eight French participants (including one from New Caledonia); eight who identified as ‘other European’; three each who identified as

³⁴ Indeed these participants have a point, one that is not lost on the researcher, who could not find a standardised set of categories for ethnicity in current surveys. In search of the ‘ideal’ set of categories for this question from a range of possibilities, a combination of those used in the Teacher Census questionnaires (Ministry of Education, 2001, 2004) and the more recent New Zealand Census (Statistics New Zealand, 2006a) was decided on.

American, Canadian, German, or South African; two Australian, and one each who were Croatian, Irish or Polish. Several participants were of dual ethnicity—American/Native American; Chinese/European, French/Indonesian; Mexican/New Zealander; Canadian/Italian; Swiss/Pakeha and even one who stated they were ‘ex-European/South African’. The final person in the ‘other’ category wrote that they were ‘Caucasian’. Related questions are those regarding the respondent’s mother tongue, language competence and languages taught in the year of the survey (Questions 9, 23 and 17 respectively). Results to these questions are given next.

Mother tongue

Respondents were also asked about their mother tongue or first language. While 80% of respondents answered that English was their first language, there were 20% who identified other languages as their mother tongue. Only one respondent had te reo Māori as their first language. Table 9 provides full details.

Table 9: Mother tongue

	Frequency	Percent
English	224	80.0
French	14	5.0
Japanese	10	3.6
German	5	1.8
Chinese	5	1.8
Dutch	5	1.8
Spanish	3	1.1
Bilingual*	2	0.7
Samoan	1	0.4
Māori	1	0.4
Polish	1	0.4
Afrikaans	1	0.4
Croatian	1	0.4
Missing	7	2.5
Total	280	100.0

* Chinese/Russian; Italian/English

Relationship between mother tongue, ethnicity and subjects taught

For the 224 (80%) respondents whose mother tongue was English, 66 (29.4%) taught languages in the primary sector only, 132 (58.9%) in the secondary sector only and 26 (11.6%) taught languages across both sectors. The majority of respondents in this category taught no other subjects although 26 taught either English or ESOL and a further 12 taught social studies as an additional subject to their main language.

All of the 14 respondents who had French as their mother tongue selected French as their ethnicity. They were also all teaching French in 2008 at Year 9 and above with six of them also teaching at Year 7 and/or Year 8. Thirteen of them were teaching French as their main language and the remaining person was teaching mainly Spanish. Seven of these 14 teachers of French were not teaching any other subject in the curriculum although three were teaching Technology; and three were teaching either English/ESOL, Mathematics or Social Sciences.

Eight of the ten mother tongue speakers of Japanese were teaching only in Year 9 to Year 13 secondary schools with the remaining two teaching in Years 0-13 area schools. All ten teachers were teaching at Year 9 and above with the two teachers from the area schools also teaching Japanese below Year 9 level. Of the six native speaker teachers of Japanese who responded to the question about other subjects they taught, only one was teaching something else (Health and Physical Well-being) as well as Japanese.

For the five respondents whose mother tongue is German, four were teaching German, three as their main language. While three were not teaching any other subjects (other than languages), two were. One was teaching French as her main language as well as German and English/ESOL, and the other was teaching the Arts.

Five teachers stated their mother tongue was Chinese with four of these being of Chinese ethnicity. Three of them were teaching at primary level, one at secondary level and the fifth taught across the primary and secondary sectors. Three of the five were teaching Chinese only, one was teaching Japanese and the fifth person was teaching Spanish. Three of them were not teaching any other subject.

Of the five teachers for whom Dutch is their mother tongue, three were teaching at secondary schools, one at an area school and one at a full primary school. One was teaching only German, another was teaching German and French, another German and Japanese, one teaching only French and the fifth teaching Spanish and Technology.

When native speakers of individual languages are considered, although numbers then become quite small, this study has revealed that those who are native speakers of European languages are more likely to be teaching other subjects than those who are native speakers of Asian languages. This observation, while of interest, is not addressed further here since it goes beyond the scope of this study.

4.4 Qualifications and teacher registration

By law, teachers in New Zealand schools, early childhood centres and state kindergartens must be registered and hold a current practising certificate (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2012), with the exception of teachers who hold a Limited Authority to Teach (LAT)³⁵. To meet the criteria for registration, teachers must hold relevant qualifications. Respondents were asked to indicate both their highest teaching qualification (Table 10) and their highest non-teaching qualification (Table 11). They were also asked to indicate their teacher registration status.

³⁵ Categories of Teacher Registration in New Zealand include: Full, Provisional, Subject to Confirmation
Full Registration: For experienced teachers who continue to meet the specified New Zealand teaching service requirements.

Provisional registration: For teachers applying for registration in NZ for the first time and for teachers who have not held full registration before. *This includes those who have recently graduated from an approved initial teacher education programme.*

Subject to Confirmation: For experienced teachers who have previously held full registration but have not taught in the general education system or an approved setting for maintaining full registration for two out of the previous five years.

A Limited Authority to Teach (LAT) is an authority for a specified person to teach in a specified school/centre in a temporary capacity; it is not a form of registration. Limited Authorities may be used to cover teaching positions of a variety of roles. They should only be used in the case where a registered teacher cannot be found for the specific role.

From <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/rt/regcategories.stm>

Teaching qualifications

Table 10: Highest qualification in teaching

	Frequency	Percent
No teaching qualification	6	2.1
Certificate	11	3.9
Diploma/Graduate Diploma	119	42.5
Bachelor's Degree	66	23.6
Honours Degree	4	1.4
Postgraduate Diploma	58	20.7
Masters Degree	16	5.7
Total	280	100.0

Of the 119 respondents with Diploma or Graduate Diploma qualifications in teaching, 21 worked in the primary sector, 80 in the secondary sector and 18 in both sectors. Given that over the last 20-30 years many of the institutions in New Zealand offering initial teacher education programmes have changed the structure and names of these programmes³⁶, for the purpose of this survey, the Diploma and Graduate Diploma of Teaching are seen as equivalent one-year programmes of initial teacher education.

Of the 78 respondents who hold either an Honours, Postgraduate Diploma or Masters in teaching, nearly three-quarters (n=57, 73%) work in the secondary sector, 11 (14.1%) in the primary sector and 10 (12.8%) in both sectors.

Of the 66 respondents who hold a Bachelor's Degree in teaching, 34 work in the primary sector, 26 in the secondary sector and six in both.

All 11 of the respondents who held a certificate-level teaching qualification were over 45 years of age including three over 60 years of age. All the respondents over the age of 60 in this category had other tertiary qualifications (certificate, degree or postgraduate). Six of the respondents with certificate-level teaching qualifications were working in the primary sector with four of those in Assistant Principal/Deputy Principal roles or Head of Department/Syndicate roles. Of these four in leadership positions, three had no other tertiary qualifications to complement the certificate in teaching.

³⁶ See New Zealand Qualifications Authority (2007), *The New Zealand Register of Quality Assured Qualifications*.

The six respondents who had no teaching qualification at all were all on a Limited Authority to Teach (LAT). Four of them had other tertiary qualifications ranging from a certificate to honours, masters and doctorate. Two were native speakers of French, one a teacher aide and another a language teacher from outside the school.

Table 11 shows that a high proportion (n=240, 85.7%) of respondents held an additional qualification to their teaching qualification with just under half of these at degree-level (n=115). The number of respondents in the secondary sector with an additional degree or higher (n=201) was 147 (73.1%), far greater than those in the primary sector at 28 (13.9%), or even those teaching across both sectors (n=32, 15.9%). Five of those with doctorates taught in the secondary sector and the sixth doctorally qualified teacher worked in the primary sector.

The majority of teachers who had no additional tertiary qualification to their teaching qualification (n=32) were based in the primary sector (n=22, 68.7%) with only six teachers in this category from the secondary sector and four teaching across both sectors.

Other tertiary qualifications

Table 11: Highest tertiary qualification that is not a teaching qualification

	Frequency	Percent
No other tertiary qualification	32	11.4
Certificate	17	6.1
Diploma/Graduate Diploma	16	5.7
Degree	115	41.1
Honours Degree	30	10.7
Postgraduate Diploma	14	5.0
Masters Degree	42	15.0
Doctorate	6	2.1
Other	1	0.4
Missing	7	2.5
Total	280	100.0

Teacher registration

Nearly 80% of those who completed the NOLT08 survey held full New Zealand teacher registration, and a further 13.6% were provisionally registered. A few respondents held

a Limited Authority to Teach (LAT) with fewer still awaiting confirmation of their registration. Only one respondent, a Japanese language teacher assistant, teaching a single class, had no type of registration at all.

4.5 Length of time teaching and current position

Length of time teaching

As Table 12 shows, just under half of respondents (n=134, 47.9%) had been teaching for fewer than 15 years, a quarter (n=69, 24.7%) for between 15 and 25 years, with the remaining quarter (n=71, 25.4%) for over 25 years. This final group includes 6 respondents (2.1%) who had taught for over 40 years. The largest number of respondents had taught for between five and nine years (23.6%) while 12.5% had taught for fewer than five years.

Table 12: Length of time teaching

	Frequency	Percent
0-4 years	35	12.5
5-9 years	66	23.6
10-14 years	33	11.8
15-19 years	29	10.4
20-24 years	40	14.3
25-29 years	24	8.6
30-34 years	28	10.0
35-39 years	13	4.6
40-44 years	5	1.8
45-49 years	1	0.4
Missing	6	2.1
Total	280	100.0

Current position

Teachers in schools often hold positions of responsibility outside of the actual teaching role in the classroom. However, just under half of the respondents (n=138, 49.3%) were classroom teachers with no other designated responsibility. A further 102 respondents (36.4%) were in middle management positions (head of department, assistant head of department or dean). Only 5% held senior management positions (associate principal,

deputy principal and assistant principal designation), with even fewer 2.2% in one of the top positions in a school (principal or teaching principal). Table 13 gives the full range of responses to this question and in relation to gender.

Table 13: Current position and gender

	Gender		Total	Percent
	Male	Female		
Principal/Teaching Principal	2	4	6	2.1
Assistant/Deputy/Associate Principal	4	10	14	5.0
Head of Department/School, Assistant Head of Department/School, Dean	21	81	102	36.4
Classroom Teacher	28	110	138	49.3
Language teacher from outside the school	0	6	6	2.1
Other	3	11	14	5.0
Total	58	222	280	100.0

These positions are listed in order of the level of responsibility given to that position. Data reveal that there were approximately four times as many female respondents as there were males teaching languages (79.3% females: 20.7% males). As such, all things being equal, we would expect there to be roughly four times as many females in each of the teaching position categories. Looking at the proportion for each gender for the middle management positions (head of department, head of school etc.) they were consistent with what we would expect when considering the whole cohort together. However, if we consider the senior management positions of assistant principal and deputy principal there were proportionally over one and half times more males than females in these positions and, in the position of principal, twice as many males as females (3.4% males to 1.8% females). Figure 6 on the next page, gives both a percentage and a visual representation of the same data as Table 13 showing the relationship between current position and gender.

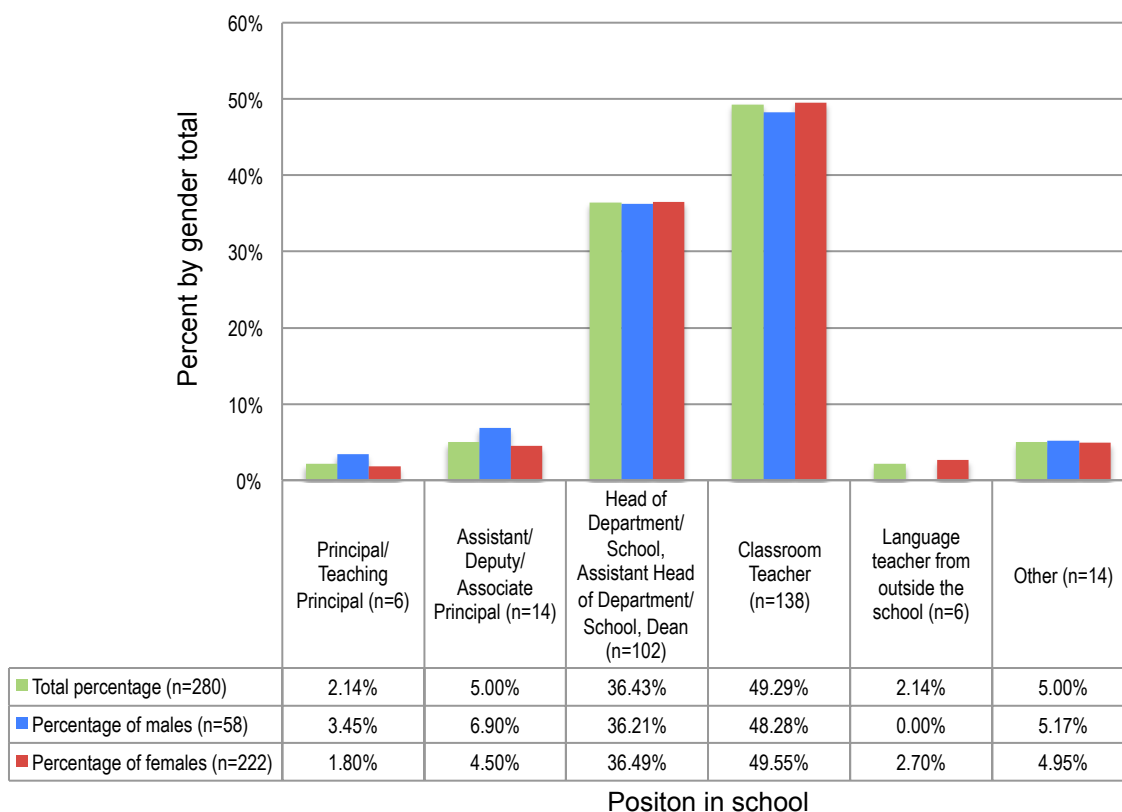


Figure 6: Current position and gender

Classroom teacher (n=138)

A quarter of the classroom teachers (n=35, 25.3%) were teaching in the primary sector, 84 (61%) in the secondary sector and 19 (13.7%) across both sectors. The age range of teachers in this group was more or less evenly spread across the three sectors and across six of the nine age categories with between 15 and 20 respondents in each category. The exceptions were in the 20-24 age range with only four respondents in this category (all from the secondary sector); eight in the 55-59 age range; and the 50-54 age range which had the largest number of respondents in this group (n=24). Just over a third of this group of teachers were teaching French (n=50, 36.2%), followed by 36 (26%) teaching Japanese, 25 (18.1%) teaching Spanish, 11 (7.9%) teaching te reo Māori, nine (6.5%) teaching German, four (2.8%) teaching Chinese and two (1.4%) teaching Latin.

Open-ended comments regarding the current position of the respondents revealed that ten classroom teachers at secondary school level were also either ‘teacher-in-charge’ (TIC) of a language or Senior/Lead Teacher of a language. There were six for French and one each for Chinese, German, Japanese and Spanish (one respondent each).

Head of Department/Assistant Head of Department (n=102)

Thirteen (12.7%) teachers in this category were teaching in the primary sector, 74 (72.5%) in the secondary sector and 15 (14.7%) across both sectors. The age range of teachers in this group was more or less evenly spread across the three sectors and across five of the nine age categories with between 12 and 15 respondents in each category. There were no respondents in the 20-24 age range and only six respondents in the 25-29 age range. There were only five respondents in the 60+ age range (all from the secondary sector); and, once again, the largest number of respondents fell into the 50-54 age range (n=20). The language taught most often by this group of teachers was French (n=40, 39.2%), followed by Japanese (n=30, 29.4%), German (n=17, 16.6%), Spanish (n=9, 8.8%), te reo Māori (n=4, 3.9%), Chinese (n=1, 0.9%) and Latin (n=1, 0.9%). One HOD languages in a secondary school was also a Specialist Classroom Teacher of Learning and Behaviour (#215).

Assistant Principal/Deputy Principal (n=14)

All teachers in this category were fully registered. Eight had additional qualifications to their teaching qualification. Eight respondents in this category were teaching in the primary sector, three in the secondary sector, and three across both sectors. Ten respondents were over 50 years of age with five of those being over 60. There were no respondents under 30 years of age although there was one in the 35-39 age range, one in the 40-44 range and two in the 45-49 age range. Six teachers taught French, three taught Spanish, two taught German, one Japanese and one te reo Māori. One respondent had previously taught Japanese and although she wasn't teaching any languages at the time of completing the survey in 2008, she was overseeing and supporting the teaching of German, Spanish and te reo Māori.

Principal/Teaching Principal (n=6)

All six respondents in this category were teaching in the primary sector with three teaching te reo Māori, two teaching Spanish and one Japanese. Five of these principals were over 50 years old with the other one being between 40 and 44 years of age.

Language teacher from outside the school (n=6)

The six respondents (2.1%) who identified themselves as being a 'language teacher from outside the school' were unique in that they seemed to be in this role in an

unplanned way. They were all part-time, five of them in primary schools, of whom two were in the same private girls' school, and the sixth in a secondary school. One had a doctoral qualification, one a Masters qualification in pedagogy, and another, although with a degree, had no teaching qualification and held a Limited Authority to Teach (LAT). The one who held the LAT had a French spouse and was teaching French only because of a request by her daughter's school. The one who held a doctoral qualification was a native speaker of the language she was teaching. One teacher aide completed the survey.

Other (n=14)

Fourteen participants declared a diverse range of responsibilities outside of those reported above through selecting the 'other' category. In this category eight respondents were teaching in the primary sector, five in the secondary and one across both. They were all over 40 years of age including eight teachers over 50. Twelve of the 14 respondents in this category were provisionally or fully registered teachers. Of the remaining two, one respondent was a language teacher assistant who held no form of teacher registration and the other, a teacher aide, held a Limited Authority to Teach (LAT). Alongside their specific responsibilities for one or more languages, some secondary teachers in this category also held roles such as Lead Facilitator of Te Kotahitanga³⁷ (#135) and Specialist Classroom Teacher of Learning and Behaviour (#131). Teachers in the primary sector, on the other hand, had quite different labels for their languages involvement. They called themselves Specialist Language Teacher (#66); Lead Teacher/Specialist Language Teacher of Spanish (#149)³⁸, of German (#117), of ESOL and Languages (#183); Oral Chinese Teacher (#44); Classroom Release Teacher (#102, #175). This categorisation is in line with the way teachers of languages are generally employed in secondary schools, namely, as language teachers; and in primary schools as classroom teachers firstly, with languages as a specialism or add-on.

³⁷ See Section 1.10, Footnote 15 for an explanation of the *Te Kotahitanga* programme.

³⁸ #149 not in the 'other' category but made this comment in the open-ended comment box about this question.

4.6 Language teaching background and proficiency

Year levels taught

The data have been analysed to consider the actual year levels participants teach at regardless of the year levels of schooling available at their school. Consequently, the number of respondents teaching only at primary (Years 1 to 6) or intermediate level (Years 7 and 8) was 74 (26.4%). The number of respondents teaching only at secondary level (Year 9 and above) was 167 (59.6%). The number of respondents teaching across both the primary and secondary sectors was 39 (13.9%).

Languages taught

The NOLT08 survey asked respondents to identify the main additional language they taught in 2008 as well as to identify all other languages they were teaching that year. This section considers the results regarding main language first (Table 14 and Figure 7), followed by the results for all languages being taught by respondents in 2008 (Table 15).

Eight languages were identified by respondents as being their main language. Regardless of the sector they taught in, more teachers identified French as the main language they taught in 2008 (36.8%) than those who identified other languages as their main language. Table 14 shows the breakdown for all languages represented in this survey as main languages.

Table 14: Teachers in each sector by main language taught

	Sector			Total	Percent
	Primary ONLY (Years 0-8)	Secondary ONLY (Years 9-13)	BOTH sectors (Years 0-13)		
French	19	70	14	103	36.8
Japanese	13	47	12	72	25.7
Spanish	16	25	5	46	16.4
German	10	16	4	30	10.7
Te reo Māori	12	6	1	19	6.8
Chinese	2	1	3	6	2.1
Latin	1	2	-	3	1.1
Samoan	1	-	-	1	0.4
Total	74	167	39	280	100%

Figure 7 demonstrates the differences between the main languages by sectors. For example when considering those teachers whose main language was Japanese (n=72), of those teachers in the primary sector only, 17.6% were teaching Japanese as their main language; of those in the secondary sector, 28.1% were teaching Japanese; and, of those teaching across both sectors, 30.8% were teaching Japanese as their main language.

Of interest is that of respondents who taught one of Chinese, German, Samoan, Spanish or te reo Māori as their main language, the highest proportion taught in the primary sector rather than the secondary sector or across both sectors. Also, there is a marked difference in the proportion of te reo Māori teachers in the primary sector compared to the secondary sector.

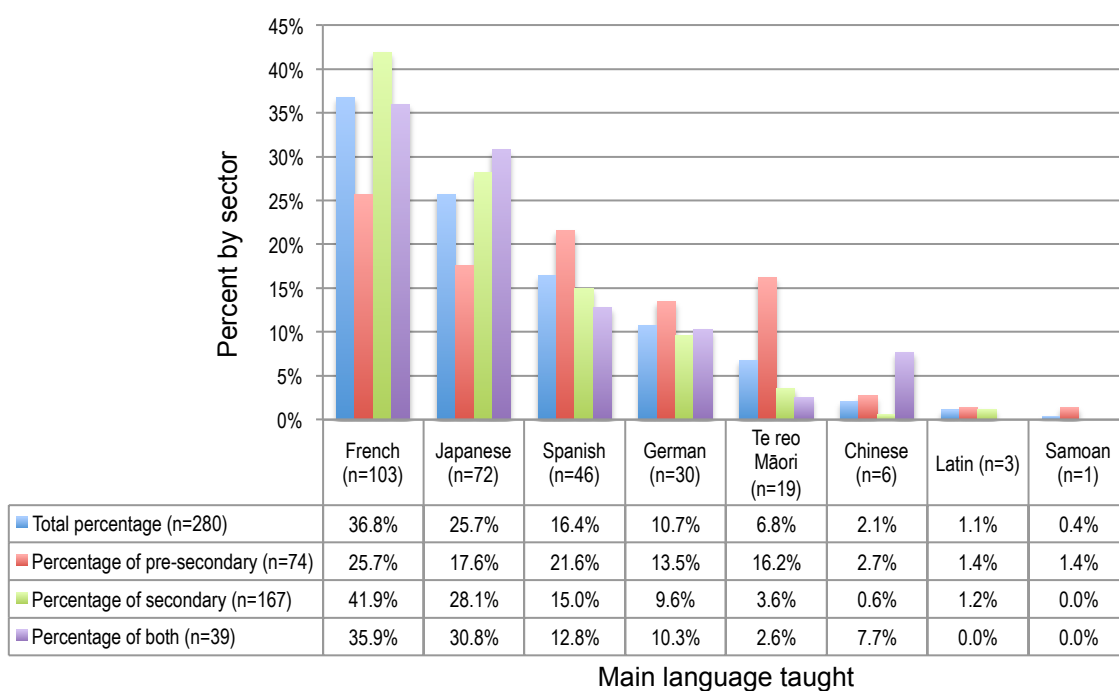


Figure 7: Main language taught by sector

Respondents gave details about 1140 languages classes, allowing for a number of calculations to be made in order to gauge numbers of teachers in this study teaching the languages identified, how many classes they were teaching and the average number of classes being taught per teacher. Table 15 shows these data.

Table 15: Languages taught in 2008

	Number of teachers teaching this as their main language (Q20)	Percent	Number of teachers teaching this language (Q17)	Percent	Total number of classes ^a	Percent	Average number of classes per teacher
French	103	36.8	121	35.5	409	35.8	3.38
Japanese	72	25.7	76	22.3	302	26.5	3.97
Spanish	46	16.4	58	17.0	163	14.2	2.81
German	30	10.7	38	11.1	121	10.6	3.18
Te reo Māori	19	6.8	30	8.8	89	7.8	2.97
Chinese	6	2.1	7	2.1	29	2.5	4.14
Latin	3	1.1	5	1.5	17	1.4	3.40
Samoan	1	0.4	2	0.6	4	0.3	2.00
Other			4 ^b	1.2	6	0.5	1.50
Total	280		341		1140		

^a as recorded by the respondent—all levels indicated even when composite or multi-level classes being taught (1140 doesn't match the number of classes reported on later in Q 28 & 30, mainly due to the multi-level classes being treated as a single class in the latter questions.

^b English/ESOL/Italian.

Language teacher profiles

Aggregate teacher profiles for each of the eight languages identified as main additional language taught are now presented. These languages are, in alphabetical order, Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Latin, te reo Māori, Samoan and Spanish. Three respondents indicated they were also teaching in other roles—Italian, Adult Community Education classes, French to adults. No respondents were teaching NZSL either as a main or further language.

Chinese

Six respondents were teaching Chinese as their main language in 2008, another was teaching it alongside te reo Māori. 29 classes of Chinese were being taught from Years 6 to Year 13. No classes below Year 6 were reported. The year levels where Chinese was most commonly taught were Years 7, 8 and 9. Two of these teachers of Chinese were teaching at decile 4 schools, one at a decile 9 school and three at decile 10 schools.

French

In 2008, 103 respondents were teaching French as their main language, with another 18 teaching it alongside other languages (German, n=8; Japanese, n=4; te reo Māori, n=3; Spanish, n=3). These 121 teachers were teaching 409 classes of French across all year levels although only 15 classes were being taught at Year 6 and below. Classes at secondary level make up 77.7% of all French classes reported on, the remaining 22.3% of classes being mostly (18.6%) found at Years 7 and 8. The highest number of classes was being taught at Year 9 (86 classes, 21%) closely followed by 78 classes (19.3%) at Year 10. This also means that 71.1% of teachers teaching French had a Year 9 class and 65.3% had a Year 10 class. In contrast only one teacher in a senior management position was teaching French at Years 1, 2, 3 and 4. Just over half those teaching French as their main language (n=52) were doing so in higher decile schools (decile 8,9,10), while only 9 were in a school of decile 3 or lower.

German

Thirty respondents were teaching German as their main language in 2008, with another 8 teaching it alongside other languages (French, n=6; te reo Māori, n=1; Spanish, n=1). These 38 teachers were teaching 121 classes of German from Years 3 to 13. Only one respondent reported “doing a bit [of German] with the Year 1 and 2 [class]” (#119). Classes at secondary level make up 76.8% of all German classes reported on, the remaining 23.1% of classes being mostly found at Years 7 and 8 (16.8%). The highest number of classes was being taught at Year 9 (22 classes, 18.2%) closely followed by 21 classes (17.4%) at Year 10. Year 9 German classes were being taught by 57.9% of German teachers and 55.2% had a Year 10 class. There was only one report of a class of German at Year 6. Only one respondent was teaching German in a school with a low decile rating; 16 were in schools with a middle decile rating and 12 in schools with a high decile rating.

Japanese

In 2008, Japanese teachers were less likely to be teaching another language with only four indicating they did this. Those languages were French (n=2), German (n=1) and te reo Māori (n=1). These 76 teachers were teaching 302 classes of Japanese across all year levels although only 12 classes were being taught at Year 6 and below. Classes at secondary level make up 82.5% of all Japanese classes reported on, the remaining 17.5% of classes being mostly found at Years 7 and 8 (13.6%). The highest number of classes was being taught at Year 9 (61 classes, 20.2%) with 52 classes (17.2%) at Year 10 and 55 classes (18.2%) at Year 11. A high percentage of teachers (80.3%) teaching Japanese had a Year 9 class and 72.4% had a Year 11 class. In contrast a Teaching Principal in a full primary school was the only person teaching Japanese at Years 1, 2, and 3. Thirty-six teachers of Japanese were teaching in schools with a middle decile rating, 27 in schools with a high decile rating and just 8 in schools with a low decile rating.

Latin

Five respondents were teaching Latin in 2008, with three of these teachers teaching it as their main language. The other two each had one class of Latin at Year 9 or 10 and were teaching either French or Japanese as their main language. The three respondents teaching Latin as their main language were teaching in schools with a decile rating of 7, 8 or 9. Only one of these three, over 60 years of age, was teaching in a primary school setting, teaching Latin at Years 4 to 8. The other two were over 40 years of age.

Te reo Māori

Although only 19 (8.8%) respondents were teaching te reo Māori as their main language in 2008, a further 11 were teaching it alongside other languages (Japanese, n=5; French, n=4; Spanish, n=1; German, n=1). These 30 teachers were teaching a total of 89 classes of te reo Māori across all year levels with 22 teaching in the primary sector, seven in the secondary sector, and one teaching across both sectors. The highest number of te reo Māori classes was at Year 7 (19 classes, 21.3%), Year 8 (18 classes, 20.2%) and Year 6 (9 classes, n=10.1%). The majority of classes (64 classes, n=71.9%) were being taught at primary level with only 28.1% (n=25) being taught at secondary school level (Years 9 to 13).

While 12 of the 19 teachers teaching te reo Māori as their main language identified themselves as being a New Zealand Māori, only one of these teachers had te reo Māori as their mother tongue. The rest had English as their mother tongue. Only four teachers of te reo Māori were in schools with a higher decile rating, with nine were in schools with a middle decile rating and six were in schools with a lower decile rating.

Samoa

One of the two teachers of Samoan who responded to this survey had Samoan as her mother tongue. She was teaching Samoan as her main language to a composite Years 4, 5 and 6 class at a school with a decile rating of 8. The other teacher of the Samoan language (of mixed Samoan and New Zealand European/Pakeha ethnicity), had English as his mother tongue and taught a composite Year 7 and Year 8 class. He taught te reo Māori as his main language although did not declare this in Q17.

Spanish

In 2008, 46 out of 58 teachers of Spanish were teaching this as their main language. Twelve were teaching Spanish alongside other languages (te reo Māori n=2; French, n=4; German, n=1; Japanese, n=4 and Latin, n=1). One teacher who identified Spanish as her main language was actually in an overseeing or support role (#2) as the previous teacher had left.

Reported proficiency in languages being taught

Respondents rated their proficiency in the language they were primarily teaching according to the following levels:

- | | |
|---------|---|
| Level 1 | No knowledge of this language |
| Level 2 | Beginner/emerging—e.g. I can understand and use basic greetings and expressions |
| Level 3 | Intermediate/survival—e.g. I can cope with daily conversations on familiar topics |
| Level 4 | Social competency—e.g. I can cope with a wide range of topics sometimes in new contexts |
| Level 5 | Personal independence—e.g. near native/native fluency |

Just over three quarters of the respondents (75.7%) declared they operated at a ‘Social Competency’ or ‘Personal Independence’ level in their main language. Although 43.7% indicated they were native speakers or of near native fluency, only 6.7% were already native speakers of the language they were teaching (see Table 16).

Table 16: Reported proficiency in main language taught in 2008

	Frequency	Percent
Beginner/emerging	22	7.9
Intermediate/survival	45	16.1
Social competency	89	31.8
Personal independence	123	43.9
Missing	1	0.4
Total	280	100.0

When considering the reported proficiency by sector, for the primary teachers, 21 (28.4%) were ‘beginner/emerging’, 32 (43.2%) were ‘intermediate/survival’, 17 (23%) had ‘social competency’, and 4 (5.4%) had ‘personal independence’. For the secondary teachers, 1 (0.6%) was ‘beginner/emerging’, 12 (7.2%) were ‘intermediate/survival’, 57 (34.1%) had ‘social competency’, and 97 (58.1%) had ‘personal independence’. Because only one secondary teacher rated herself as ‘beginner/emerging’, that person was excluded from further analysis. For the teachers teaching across both sectors, none identified as ‘beginner/emerging’, 1 (2.6%) had ‘intermediate/survival’, 15 (39.5%) had ‘social competency’, and 22 (57.9%) had ‘personal independence’. Because only one teacher teaching across both sectors rated herself as ‘intermediate/survival’, that person was also excluded from further analysis. One teacher did not give herself a rating in this final group.

A Pearson’s chi-squared test³⁹ was then conducted to look for any significant differences in proficiency levels between teachers in each of the three categories: primary, secondary and both. This test compared the actual number of teachers rating themselves at each proficiency level, with the number that could be expected at each of those proficiency levels based on the proportion of teachers in each group. The test

³⁹ A chi-square test compares the frequencies observed in certain categories to the frequencies you might expect to get in those categories by chance (Field, 2005, p. 682).

showed that there was a very significant difference between the categories ($\chi^2=136.929$, $df=6$, $p<.001$). Those in the secondary group rated themselves at the higher proficiency levels while those in the other two categories rated themselves at the lower proficiency levels. In particular the following results were significant: the ‘beginner/emerging’ count for secondary teachers was very low—one teacher (compared to an expected 13), rated themselves at this proficiency level; the ‘beginner/emerging’ count for primary teachers was very high—21 (compared to an expected 6), rated themselves at this proficiency level; the ‘personal independence’ count for primary teachers was very low—four (compared to an expected 33), rated themselves at this proficiency level.

How main language learnt

Many respondents indicated they had learnt the main language through a number of different ways. University study, studying the language at high school, and in-country experience were the most common ways to learn the language.

Table 17: How teachers learnt their main language

	Responses		Percent of Valid Cases (n=280)
	Frequency	Percent	
University study	165	26.2%	58.9%
Studied at high school as a secondary student	150	23.8%	53.6%
In-country experience	126	20.0%	45.0%
Personal independent study	84	13.4%	30.0%
Already a speaker	42	6.7%	15.0%
Attended night courses	32	5.1%	11.4%
Other	30	4.8%	10.7%
Total	629	100.0%	224.6%*

* Respondents were able to select as many categories as were relevant, hence this number is greater than 100.

Of those who selected ‘other’, eight mentioned learning alongside their students through the use of the LLS resources⁴⁰. All eight were teaching in the primary sector (#48, 73,103, 167, 210, 228, 235, 245). Five mentioned teachers’ college or polytechnic, five mentioned teacher inservice or professional development, two mentioned they used Correspondence School resources. Two of those who had studied the language at university further qualified this statement by mentioning it was in the country of the

⁴⁰ See Section 1.10 for a full description of this resource.

language being studied (China, #164 and France #269). One had also worked for a company in Scotland dealing with clients in Spanish-speaking countries (#64) and two had a spouse who was a first language speaker of the language they taught. One respondent declared she had not learnt the language at all but she was learning as she went (#67).

Professional learning opportunities in second language teaching and pedagogy

Teachers accessed their professional learning from a range of sources. For some teachers of languages, the professional learning opportunities coincided with the first time they learnt the language. The most commonly accessed opportunities were one-day courses (71.6%) and in-school support from a languages adviser or equivalent (55.4%).

Table 18: Professional learning opportunities

	Responses		Percent of Valid Cases (n=278) ^a
	Frequency	Percent	
One-day courses	199	25.2%	71.6%
In-school support from languages adviser or equivalent	154	19.5%	55.4%
Personal independent study	116	14.7%	41.7%
University study—single papers	88	11.1%	31.7%
In-country courses	84	10.6%	30.2%
Part of a Ministry-funded programme	83	10.5%	29.9%
Other	48	6.1%	17.3%
None	18	2.3%	6.5%
Total	790	100.0%	284.2% ^b

^a Missing responses = 2 (0.7%)

^b Respondents were able to select as many categories as were relevant, hence this number is greater than 100.

Respondents also commented about other ways they accessed professional learning for second language teaching pedagogy. Sixteen respondents accessed professional learning via an external organisation such as the Goethe Institut, the Alliance Française, the Japan Foundation, Te Wanganga o Aotearoa, an online course, a university or other locally-run night classes (#21, 27, 29, 32, 47, 82, 117, 138, 159, 207, 217, 218, 233, 253,

285, 288). Thirteen respondents mentioned they attended conferences or LangSems⁴¹ (#2, 32, 38, 65, 94, 149, 201, 235, 243, 253, 272, 285, 293). Five respondents received their knowledge of second language pedagogy via teaching English as a second language study programmes (#47, 51, 99, 220, 290). A few teachers accessed local speakers of the language (#83, 189), one accessed international students at the school (#2), and six mentioned living, travelling, going on an exchange to the target language country (#106, 142, 154, 164, 265, 283). In this last group of six, one (#265) made the point that the refresher leave in Germany for two months was partly funded by the school's Board of Trustees. Four respondents made specific mention of their teacher education courses (#55, 165, 218, 272), and three mentioned study at postgraduate or masters' level (#129, 161, 180). Two respondents had unique comments to this questions—one about her involvement as a French teacher in a Ministry of Education contract for the new curriculum (#276) and the other was involved in teaching pre-service teacher education classes (#244). The implication being that both these teachers felt these were opportunities for their own learning.

A small number of respondents (7.1%) had participated in the Teacher Professional Development Languages (TPDL) Ministry of Education-funded one-year professional learning programmes available from 2005-2008.

Teaching languages in other countries

Just under half of the respondents (n=122, 43.6%) stated they had taught languages (including English as an additional language) outside of New Zealand, with several teaching more than one other language in more than one other country. English (to speakers of other languages) was the most commonly taught language, and Japan and the UK were the most common destinations. See Appendix N for a detailed list of these languages and countries.

⁴¹ The main national conference available to teachers of languages in New Zealand schools is held biennially and run by the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT). In alternate years NZALT runs LangSems (Language Seminars) in the six regions of the Association.

4.7 Choosing to be a teacher of additional languages

Reasons for teaching languages

The respondents who chose to teach languages either through applying for a position that included languages or through their own decision numbered 221 (78.9%). Of these, 148 were secondary teachers (88.6% of all secondary teachers who responded to the survey) and 35 teaching across both sectors (89.7% of all teachers in both sectors who responded to the survey). In contrast, of the 74 respondents teaching in the primary sector who responded to this survey, only 38 (51.3%) made the decision to teach languages themselves while 29 (39.1%) primary teachers were assigned or required to teach languages (see Table 19).

Table 19: How teachers came to teach additional languages

	Frequency	Percent
Personal choice	208	74.3
I applied for a teaching position that included teaching languages	13	4.6
I was assigned or required to teach languages	37	13.2
Other	18	6.4
Missing	4	1.4
Total	280	100.0

A chi-square test was conducted on this set of data to determine whether there was a statistical significance between the sector that participants taught in and their reason given for teaching languages. The chi-square test revealed a significant difference between the reasons chosen for those teaching in the secondary sector and those teaching in the primary sector ($\chi^2=62.552$, $df=6$, $p<.001$). More secondary teachers than expected had a personal choice about whether or not they taught languages and more primary teachers than expected did not.

Those who selected ‘other’ reasons for teaching languages did so for a range of reasons including one who was invited by the primary school to teach the language as a parent and another who despite teaching te reo Māori everyday to her own class claimed that as a primary school teacher she ‘doesn’t teach languages’ (#224). Secondary teachers who selected ‘other’ for this question gave responses such as they had been an

American Field Scholar (AFS), they had lived in Japan, trained as an immersion French teacher, and one even stated that they were ‘unable to get primary job at the time and had completed a degree and begun studying Japanese’ (#28). Two also commented that they had been ‘paid to attend [languages classes]’ while at university as they were under a studentship programme.

Future intentions

Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they intend to remain in teaching in the next five years. Table 20 details their responses.

Table 20: Aspirations for the next five years

	Frequency	Percent
Stay in teaching	196	70.0
Have a career break and then go back to teaching	26	9.3
Leave teaching	41	14.6
Retire	9	3.2
Study whilst teaching	1	0.4
Undecided	5	1.8
Missing	2	0.7
Total	280	100.0

Stay in teaching (n=197)

Over 70% of all respondents were intending to stay in teaching for the next five years including one intending to study whilst teaching. The percentages for each sector intending to stay in teaching were somewhat different: they were highest for teachers in both sectors (78.9%) followed by those in the primary sector (75.6%) with a lower 65.4% of secondary teachers of languages still intending to be in the classroom in the next five years. Of those staying in teaching 75% were female and 25% male.

Leave teaching (n=41)

While overall only 41 (14.6%) teachers in this survey were intending to leave teaching in the next five years, when this was broken down by sector the secondary teachers of languages were more likely to intend to leave teaching in the next five years with 19.6% of their total number selecting this option compared to 9.4% for those teaching in the

primary sector and 2.6% teaching across both sectors. The four males who indicated they would be leaving teaching were all over 40 years of age while the remaining 37 females came from all age groups 30 years of age and older.

Have a career break and then go back to teaching (n=26)

Some teachers (9.3%) were intending to have a career break and then go back to teaching with a higher proportion of female teachers (n=23) selecting this choice over males (n=3). Six of these teachers had been teaching for fewer than five years. Some gave a reason for the career break. These reasons ranged from one who was going on maternity leave to three who intended to travel overseas.

Intending to retire

Of the nine respondents who were intending to retire, eight were in the 60+ age group and the other in the 55-59 year age group. Seven of these teachers were female and two male.

Subjects taught—other than languages

Teachers in the secondary sector and those teaching across both the primary and secondary sectors were asked about other subjects they taught. A total of 77 (n=64 in the secondary sector and n=13 across both primary and secondary sectors) also teach at least one other subject in addition to any languages they might teach.

English (including ESOL) was the main subject taught in addition to languages, followed at a distance by Social Sciences. Items listed under ‘Other’ were: Classical Studies, Computing, Cooking, Information Technology, Literacy, Music, Work Skills and teacher-librarian. The total for all of these subjects adds up to more than the total number of teachers in this section because seven teachers were teaching a combination of two or more subjects in addition to the language(s) they were teaching. For example one teacher was teaching French, The Arts, Technology and Social Sciences (#92) and another a combination of Japanese, Mathematics, The Sciences and Health and Physical Education (#41). Table 21 provides the overview of these subjects.

Table 21: Subjects other than languages taught by teachers in the secondary sector

	Responses		Percent of Valid Cases (n=184)*
	Frequency	Percent	
No other subject	112	57.1%	60.9%
Arts	2	1.0%	1.1%
Commerce	3	1.5%	1.6%
English (including ESOL)	31	15.8%	16.8%
Health and Physical Well-Being	4	2.0%	2.2%
Mathematics	7	3.6%	3.8%
Sciences	2	1.0%	1.1%
Social Sciences	15	7.7%	8.2%
Technology	9	4.6%	4.9%
Other	11	5.6%	6.0%
Total	196	100.0%	106.5%

* Missing responses=96 (34.3%) This question was directed at teachers in the secondary sector only given that those who teach only in the primary sector (n=74) are usually required to teach across all eight learning areas of the curriculum so there was no need to ask them about subjects they taught in addition to languages. The true number of missing responses therefore, is 22 (10.6% of a possible 206 responses for those in secondary or both primary and secondary sectors).

4.8 Language programmes

Configuration of classes

As reported in Section 4.6, the 280 respondents in this survey gave information about more than 1000 classes. Tables 22-26 summarise the number of classes at each level, by language, length of sessions, number of sessions per week, number of session per year, and number of students per class. Table 27 shows whether the languages teacher was teaching their own class or someone else's.

The largest number of classes reported on were at Year 9 level (243 classes or 23.73 %). Table 22 shows that over three-quarters of the classes reported on were at Year 9 and above (76.17%).

Table 22: Year levels and number of classes taught

Year level	Number of classes	Percent of all classes
Years 0-6	41	4.0
Years 7-8	193	18.8
Years 9-13	780	76.2
Missing	10	1.0
Total	1024	100.0

Respondents made additional comments where they were teaching more than one year level within a class. In total, 70 multi-level classes were reported on in this way, though it is likely there were more than this as the total number of classes reported through this question (n=1024) is lower than those reported on in a previous question (n=1140, as presented in Section 4.6). Students studying by distance through the Correspondence School are also not included in these totals, as the students are not grouped in ‘class’ groups.

While the majority of classes (n=727, 71%) ran for 31-40 weeks⁴², amongst the nearly 200 additional comments made to give further details in how the classes were configured, there was evidence that there was a lot of variation in the number of times classes were held per teaching cycle as well as in the length of classes.

Table 23: Number of weeks of instruction in a year

Number of weeks	Number of classes	Percent of all classes
1-10 weeks	81	7.9
11-20 weeks	140	13.7
21-30 weeks	62	6.1
31-40 weeks	727	71.0
Missing	14	1.4
Total	1024	100.0

Nearly two-thirds of the classes (n=635, 62.14%) had three or four sessions per week (see Table 24). Although a school week is normally determined by 5 teaching days, 22 teachers stated that their school did not operate a 5-day cycle for the timetable with 13

⁴² The New Zealand school year begins at the start of February and is organised into four terms, each one approximately ten weeks in length, separated by two weeks of holiday in April, July and October.

of these using a 6-day cycle, two using a 7-day cycle, one using a 9-day cycle and six using a 10-day cycle. Their data entries for ‘number of sessions per week’ are therefore approximated. In most cases however, it seems that the senior secondary students (Years 11 to 13) receive more class time per cycle than the junior students (Years 9 and 10).

Table 24: Number of teaching sessions per week

Number of sessions	Number of classes	Percent of all classes
1 Session	166	16.2
2 Sessions	112	11.0
3 Sessions	303	29.6
4 Sessions	332	32.5
5 Sessions	90	8.8
6 Sessions	3	0.3
Missing	15	1.5
Other	1	0.1
Total	1022	100.0

Although length of classes varied, the majority of classes (n=911, 89%) ran from between 45 and 60 minutes each.

Table 25: Length of teaching sessions

Length of teaching session	Number of classes	Percent of all classes
5-20 minutes	27	2.6
25-40 minutes	74	7.2
45-60 minutes	911	89.0
Missing	12	1.2
Total	1024	100.0

Teachers reported that fewer than ten percent of all classes had more than 30 students, with just under 40% of classes having between 20 and 29 students in a class.

Table 26: Number of students in a class

Number of students	Number of classes	Percent of all classes
Fewer than 10 students	183	17.9
10-19 students	342	33.4
20-29 students	403	39.4
30 or more students	83	8.1
Missing	13	1.3
Total	1024	100.0

Respondents were given the opportunity to indicate if they were teaching their own class or someone else's class. Results are given in Table 27.

Table 27: Whose class, type of class

Teaching to...	Number of classes	Percent of all classes
My class	733	71.6
Another teacher's class	139	13.6
Other	64	6.3
Missing	88	8.6
Total	1024	100.0

Additional comments

For the question about classroom configurations, the optional comments section was completed in some detail by 70% of the respondents (n=196). This indicates that the configuration of class make-up and time allocations is far from uniform across levels, the school year (term) and schools. Key themes from these comments have been collated below for the 124 comments made about classes at Year 9 and above.

Multi-level classes

Of the 167 teachers teaching at Year 9 or above, 66 (39.5%) indicated that one of their language classes contained more than one year level. A further two had two classes that were multi-level, bringing the total to 68, or 40.7%.

Table 28: Multi-level classes by language taught in the secondary school

	Year 9/10	Year 10/11	Year 11/12	Year 11/13	Year 12/13	Year 10/11/12	Year 11/12/13	Year 13+	Total number of multi-level classes*
Japanese		2	3	2	16	1	3		27
French	1	1	7		12		1		22
Spanish		1		1	6		1		9
German		1	2	1	5				9
Latin					2				2
Te reo Māori								1	1
Total	1	5	12	4	41	1	5	1	70

These multi-level classes are quite diverse with international students, ESOL students, and students studying by Correspondence often included in the regular classes (#4, #28, #93, #108, #123, #124, #230, #238). Here is one respondent who appears to have all combinations in the one class:

My Yr 11, [12] and 13 are combined. In Yr 12 I have a Korean student and several Japanese nationals. [In] Yr 12 & 13, who don't count as anything as far as the Ministry is concerned, I also have one NZ student but she was put on Correspondence school as my one Yr 13 student. My combined class of year levels and nationalities has all together 16 students. Japanese nationals are usually doing translation work or ESOL work. (#123)

Timetable clashes

Students who have timetable clashes often end up having to meet with their teacher outside of regular class times (#9, #88, #109, #146, #215, #218).

Year 11 and 12 are combined for 3 periods a week. I have chosen to take one of my non-contact periods to give them each one period without the other class, so combined it is 5 periods a week. (#215)

Several teachers taking the same class

It is not uncommon for classes to be shared (#32, #46, #88, #124, #199), as one teacher puts it 'due to the timetable' (#88). She goes on to describe the situation more fully:

[This class] is taught with another teacher due to timetable—2 hours each. [Another class]—due to low numbers [is] only allocated 2 hours a week but I stay in the class for the other 2 hours that is scheduled for their study. Another Yr13 student works independently in the Year 12 class due to timetable clash. (#88)

This is a teacher of French, at a decile 8 school with a roll of 1601-2000 students. She wants a break in her career before returning to teaching.

Multiple qualifications

Several teachers commented on the need to run two qualifications programmes at a time—sometimes alongside multiple year levels as well (#3, #82). A secondary teacher of French comments:

Year 11—IGCSE (who leave week 1 term 4) mixed with a few NCEA candidates Years 12 and 13 together. Includes NCEA levels 2 and 3, AS and full A levels (these students leave week 1 term 4). (#3)

Correspondence School

Four respondents taught at the Correspondence School (#251, #253, #289 and #290). Many other teachers work with students who study via Correspondence School materials sent to them. These students are frequently timetabled with regular classes studying at different levels (#84, #261, #270, #293). Sometimes the students have separate times allocated to meet with the teacher (#154, #173, #23).

4.9 Perceptions of own knowledge and skills

Teachers were asked to rate their level of knowledge and skills to carry out seventeen tasks deemed to be typical of language teacher learning and teaching. They rated themselves on a four-point scale from ‘little knowledge and/or skill’ (1), ‘know of this, but not ready to put into practice’ (2), ‘familiar with and use sometimes’ (3), to ‘an integral part of my teaching and learning’ (4).

Table 29 displays the percent results for the nine aspects that respondents indicated were an integral part of their teaching and learning.

Table 29: Teacher perceptions of own knowledge and skill in teaching additional languages

Aspect	Percent
Incorporate listening and speaking activities into my lessons	82.5
Explain language and cultural features specific to the target language	77.5
Use a variety of language learning strategies and activities	72.1
Incorporate reading and writing activities into my lessons	73.9
Adapt and develop resources that motivate student language learning	70.0
Give meaningful feedback to students on their language learning	56.4
Plan next learning steps based on student needs and progress	56.4
Foster explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures	53.9
Talk to students about their language learning	51.8

Respondents were less likely to be using ‘evidence-based second language acquisition (SLA) methodology’, ‘discussing SLA and other teaching methodologies with colleagues’ and applying SLA methodology’ when assessing students. See Appendix O for complete set of results.

4.10 Discussion: Snapshot of the language-teaching context

Until you have data as a backup, you’re just another person with an opinion.

(Dr. Perry Gluckman, President and Founder of Process Plus, Inc.)

The empirical data provided in the National Online Language Teacher survey of 2008 (NOLT08) give voice to the language teaching profession in New Zealand schools. The aggregated data is one lens through which to consider not only the roles and identities of the teachers of additional languages but also the place of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools. The following discussion is about the stories that sit behind the survey data.

Summary of NOLT08 survey results

Respondents to the NOLT08 survey were highly qualified, mainly female and were teaching in a range of schools (size and type) throughout New Zealand. Over half the

teachers were teaching in the *secondary* sector, about a quarter teaching in the *primary* sector, and just under 15 percent teaching across *both* these sectors. Lower decile schools were under-represented in this set of data. The largest number of respondents has taught additional languages for between five and nine years. These teachers have faced the smallest amount of change in their teaching career.

The intention of this discussion is to move from the detail of the data to viewing the context within which this data was given through an interpretation of the teachers' voices (Goodson, 1992). The discussion is initially structured around descriptions of the sectors within which the language teacher participants teach their chosen language(s). A brief overview of the demographic data is presented first, followed by a description of the similarities and differences of responses received from teachers either in the *primary* sector, the *secondary* sector or those teaching across *both* sectors.

Comparisons with the general teaching population

In order to put the sample size of the NOLT08 survey into a wider perspective it is possible to make some links to the secondary sector data from the Teacher Census (TCen04) conducted by the Ministry of Education (2004) while at the same time acknowledging that the NOLT08 survey was conducted four years later⁴³. The TCen04 data revealed that approximately 8% (1295 teachers) out of all secondary teachers taught languages. The NOLT08 survey data represent 206 teachers teaching languages at secondary level (including the 39 respondents teaching across both primary and secondary sectors). If in 2008 the population of all teachers at secondary level teaching languages was similar to the number teaching languages from the TCen04 (i.e. 1295), then the participants in the NOLT08 survey teaching in the secondary sector represent about 16% (206/1295) of all languages teachers in the secondary sector in 2008. An equivalent calculation to determine how representative the NOLT08 survey data are in relation to primary teachers of languages in the TCen04 cannot be calculated, as no data exist of specific subject expertise for teachers at primary level. This in itself is of interest to this study as teachers teaching in the primary sector are mainly considered generalist rather than specialist teachers.

⁴³ Teacher data are available for 2008, however details of number of teachers teaching specific subjects are not given (see www.educationcounts.govt.nz/statistics/schooling/teaching_staff).

Other comparisons drawn between the TCen04 (Ministry of Education, 2004) and the NOLT08 survey data relate to the gender and age of respondents. The proportion of females in the NOLT08 survey (79%) was higher than the TCen04 of all teachers (Ministry of Education, 2004) being 73% female and 27% male. However, for both sets of data, 58% of teachers were aged between 40 and 59 years. Fewer teachers in the NOLT08 survey were under 30 years of age (10%) and more were over 60 years of age (10%) than those who responded to the teacher census (TCen04, 5% and 7% respectively). The limitation of the categories related to ethnicity of the census data meant that a direct comparison could not be made across all categories with the NOLT08 survey. However, a higher proportion (10%) of participants identified as Māori in the TCen04 than in the NOLT08 survey which had only 7.9% identifying as Māori. These aspects of gender, age and ethnicity relate to recognised features of a person's N-identity, aspects which, according to Gee (2000), are a given state which cannot be changed but which are given meaning through the forces which constitute the other three perspectives on identity, namely the institutions, discourses and affinity groups associated with each person. In this study, the fact that the data have revealed that teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools are predominantly female, of European descent, and older than 40 years of age means that there would be an expectation that females would also dominate senior management positions in schools, however this is not the case, and possible reasons for this are discussed later in Section 9.2. These data also indicate that in New Zealand, the teachers of additional languages are themselves learners of the main language they speak and will have professional development needs pertaining to maintenance of language proficiency and currency of language use.

The following sections identify themes salient to this study that arose initially from the quantitative data and are now clarified, sometimes through qualitative comments.

Choice to teach languages

Statistically significant differences exist between those teaching additional languages in the primary and those in the secondary sector. Although not surprisingly, the qualifications in languages and in experiences in the target language community were much more prevalent in the secondary sector, it was the lack of choice about teaching additional languages that was highlighted as a statistically significant difference

between these two sectors in this study. “Whoever we are, understanding in practice is the art of *choosing* what to know and what to ignore in order to proceed with our lives” (Wenger, 1998, p. 41, emphasis added). Wenger elaborates, stating that “compliance does not require understanding” (Wenger, 1998, p. 41). Perhaps the teachers who are fulfilling this role are complying with the request to teach languages but are not making it part of their identity.

Multi-level

A multi-level class is when there is more than one level of learning in one scheduled class. However this term does not have the same meaning for the secondary sector as it does for those the primary sector. Having more than one age level in a classroom is not unusual for primary teachers, nor is combining content from two or more disciplines within a teaching and learning segment.

In the primary sector generally there is a classroom teacher who is with the children for the whole day, week, year for most of the learning. The class that the classroom teacher is responsible for may on occasion be made up of students from different year levels. For example in a small primary school some year levels may be combined quite regularly. In this study there are teachers with the following year levels together: Years 3-6; 1-6 and frequently Years 7 and 8. In some small isolated communities there may be a single teaching-principal in charge of the whole school in one class. Given that the children are with the same teacher all the time, the teacher can get to know these children on an individual level. The children share the learning experiences albeit in a slightly different way. The classes are timetabled according to the overall learning programme and while there are dedicated sessions for various learning areas, more often than not it seems that languages are timetabled according to the secondary, specialist model.

In the secondary sector the multi-level class has quite different implications. The secondary teacher is a specialist in their subject area(s) and sees each year level a set number of times per week, for example one teacher teaches her Year 9 class for 3 sessions per week, her Year 10 class for 3 sessions a week, her Year 11 class for 4 sessions per week and her combined Years 12 and 13 class for 5 sessions per week. This senior class—combined Years 12 and 13—also means that the curriculum and

assessment programme must ‘cover’ the material for these year levels. For the secondary teacher this multiple level refers not only to Year level and curriculum level but also to the level of learning for the purpose of qualifications, be that New Zealand’s National Certificate of Educational Achievement (levels 1, 2, 3), Cambridge International Examinations or the International Baccalaureate. In addition to these complexities, the secondary teacher may also have some students studying languages through The New Zealand Correspondence School.

Teachers in the secondary sector have a number of strategies they use to meet the challenges of the multi-level classroom:

- using local volunteers from the community (#257)
- setting students to work on personalised (assessment driven) goals (#260)
- Year 12 incorporates also Year 13 and we have the use of a language assistant for 2 sessions per week to support that function (#10)
- Video conferencing/e-learning

Year 11—We have three students who currently learn French via video conferencing in an e-learning cluster of small schools [in our town]. I offer mentoring support to these girls as they prepare for Level 1. One of these girls speaks French fluently as she lived there for 8 years and I am helping her prepare for Level 2 French. (#207)

- Year 12 and 13 classes taught together
I often set work for one level whilst teaching the other in order to teach [discrete] topics. Grammar is usually taught to the full class. 11 students in each level. I also use a web page as a VLE to encourage collaborative work outside the classroom and as a depository for resources. (#273)

- Sharing students (#131, #285)
[My years 12 and 13 class] is not really a combined class as I have an arrangement with the boys’ school right next door that they will teach year 12 and I teach year 13. However, one year 12 girl had a clash so I took her and she is just learning the year 13 curriculum (and the year 13s are revising the year 12 curriculum). Then another year 12 student returned from six months in France and we decided that she

could come into the year 13 class too to retain her fluency. It is great having the arrangement with the boys' school because we no longer have multi-level classes and co-ed classes are a big attraction for some of our students. (#131)

4.11 Summary

The mainly quantitative data presented in Chapter Four were gathered from 280 teachers via an online survey in 2008, teaching additional languages in the primary and secondary sectors. A few were teaching across both sectors. The data presented here, while not from every teacher of additional languages, do give an indication of the complexity of these teachers' work.

The following four chapters present data from two teachers of Spanish and a teacher of Japanese. These teachers were invited to participate in individual case studies carried out across two school terms in 2010. Data were gathered through interviews and regular entries in a reflective e-log focusing on their situated experiences as teachers of additional languages together with their perceptions of their role and identity.

Each participant's story is told in a separate chapter. Chapter Five is Julie's story, Chapter Six is Helen's story, and Chapter Seven is Eve's story. The first part of each chapter provides an introduction to the participant based on information provided through the NOLT08 survey and the first interview. Each case then examines the changes over time in the professional life of each teacher, drawing from information provided through the e-logs and the final interview. Chapter Eight then examines the unique relationship that Helen and Eve share when their roles overlap as they work together. Pseudonyms have been used for participants' names, for all people they mention, their workplaces and any potentially identifiable locations relating to their workplaces.

Chapter Five:

Julie: Secondary Japanese language specialist, beginning primary teacher

5.1 Introducing Julie

This section details Julie's⁴⁴ background and that of her teaching career to date. It also outlines aspects of the wider school programme that are pertinent to her story. An overview was presented in Section 3.11.

In 2008, Julie, a European-Pākehā⁴⁵, was teaching part-time at Whero High School, a Years 7 to 13, decile⁴⁶ 10 Catholic girls' school in a large city in New Zealand. Julie was in her early 40s and had been a teacher for over 14 years.

Julie's tertiary qualifications included a Bachelor of Arts (majoring in French and Japanese), and a Post-Graduate Diploma of Teaching. Julie had a deeper knowledge of French than Japanese as her studies in French began at high school, whereas her Japanese studies began with her undergraduate degree. In 2008 she taught French to Years 7, 8 and 11 students and Japanese to Years 7, 8, 9, 11, 12 and 13 students. She had spent one year in Japan on the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET)⁴⁷ Programme teaching English, and a further two months in Tokyo at a professional development programme for teachers of Japanese. Julie had also led four school trips to Japan with Whero High School students.

Over her teaching career, Julie had also taught languages to students at a specialist languages high school in Australia and a decile 10 Catholic boys' school in New Zealand covering nearly all year levels (from Years 2 to 13). In 2010, at the time of the

⁴⁴ This is a pseudonym. Julie's classroom name is 'Sumisu sensei' (Mrs Smith). All names mentioned in Julie's story have been changed.

⁴⁵ European-Pākehā is one of the categories commonly used in New Zealand to denote a person's ethnic identity. However, rather than indicating a person is *from* Europe, this term indicates the person is non-Māori and of *European descent*.

⁴⁶ See Section 3.7, Footnote 30, for a definition of 'decile'.

⁴⁷ The Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme aims to promote grass roots internationalisation at the local level by inviting young overseas graduates to assist in international exchange and foreign language education in local governments, boards of education and elementary, junior and senior high schools throughout Japan (<http://www.jetprogramme.org/>).

first interview, Julie was still teaching Japanese at Whero High School, although the way languages were offered had changed since 2008. The following sections will give the detail of some of these changes and how they have impacted on Julie's role.

Julie shared her language learning and teaching story initially through two interviews in 2010, the first at her home on 6 March, and the second in a noisy café on 6 September. From the middle of the first school term until the middle of the second school term (approximately March to June), Julie also emailed the researcher nine times with her e-log entries relating to events in her teaching week.

5.2 Julie's professional learning journey

Becoming a teacher of languages

A number of events led Julie into her current teaching position. After completing her undergraduate studies, Julie spent some time travelling overseas before settling into an administrative position in an office. The first event came after four years doing office-work when she decided that the boredom wasn't worth it and that there "must be more to life than this" (JulieINT1⁴⁸), so she applied for teacher training, selecting French, her strongest language, as her first subject, followed by Japanese. Upon graduation in the late 1980s/early 1990s the number of positions available for Japanese teaching far outweighed those for French so she ended up in a position teaching Japanese. This position had significant challenges as Julie was not very comfortable with her Japanese language proficiency at the time and yet she was teaching at two year-levels in a secondary school. "When I first started teaching, French was my first language and Japanese was the one that I had as back-up" (JulieINT2). Two opportunities followed which helped her to become more comfortable in her role as a teacher of Japanese. Not long after beginning teaching, Julie's family moved to Australia and she was able to teach at a specialist languages high school (teaching at the equivalent levels to New Zealand's Years 8 to 13). At the specialist languages high school Julie was given professional development opportunities, including a course run by the Japan Foundation in Tokyo, which led to an increase in her confidence to teach Japanese enabling her to apply for her current position as a specialist teacher of Japanese at Whero High school.

⁴⁸ See Appendix L for codes used in the presentation of case study data.

Compulsory languages at Whero High School

From 2010, all students from Years 7 to 10 were required to study languages at Whero High School. Students at Years 7 and 8 were offered four languages over a two-year period. Each language was studied in one-hour slots, three times every ten days for six months and then the students moved to the next language for a further six-month cycle, and so on until they had studied each of the four languages. Julie was responsible for teaching Japanese to five such composite (Years 7 and 8) classes each year, as well as being responsible for delivering the Japanese language programme at Years 9 to 13. The Years 9 and 10 students chose one language to study for the whole year. Languages study was optional for students at Years 11, 12 and 13. Julie's position at the time of this study was as the specialist Japanese teacher for all students from Years 7 to 13 at Whero High School. For most of the school day, her Years 7 and 8 students were taught by one generalist classroom teacher responsible for the delivery of the majority of the curriculum whereas the Years 9 to 13 students would be taught by up to five different specialist teachers for each subject area.

Languages offered

Languages offered at Whero High School were Spanish, te reo Māori, French and Japanese. German used to be offered but was being phased out the year these interviews were taking place. Students could not choose more than one language to study at a time. The languages faculty consisted of five specialist languages teachers, one in each language.

Although no specific details were given, Julie recounted that the number of students studying Japanese at Whero High School had been declining in recent years⁴⁹, which resulted in a multi-level class at Years 12 and 13. The number of students studying French, however, had been increasing. There were often two classes for French at Year 10 and two classes at Year 11 with different teachers “teaching side-by-side” (JulieINT2).

⁴⁹ A comprehensive report detailing the background to this national decline—since 2005—of students studying Japanese is available in an evaluative literature review commissioned by the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education (McGee, Ashton, Dunn, & Taniwaki, 2013).

Although there was one other staff member teaching Japanese at Whero High School, Julie was considered the main teacher in this area, teaching from pre-secondary (Years 7 and 8 classes through to senior secondary classes:

I am still the specialist Japanese teacher. I teach all of the [Years] 7 and 8 classes over the two years that they are at intermediate⁵⁰ so there would be three hundred girls in year seven and eight so I will teach all of those girls at some point over the two years that they are there. (JulieINT1)

5.3 Challenges at school level

The challenges that follow relate to the context and policies of the school Julie was teaching in and the impact of these on Julie's role and beliefs as a teacher of languages.

The challenge of changing context

After her family moved back to New Zealand from Australia, the secondary-trained Julie found herself teaching languages part-time to classes of primary-age students at Kahurangi Primary School, a Years 1 to 8 full primary school. This was a challenging situation that Julie found herself in, for, as she reported, “you are so used to a different style of things” (JulieINT1). Her ability to cope with this situation was mainly due to the support she received from her colleagues and also because “it was a private school and reasonably well funded” (JulieINT1). Working alongside colleagues with greater expertise in the primary sector was further enhanced by the fact that her colleagues were often using the same teaching space as Julie. Rather than criticising her practice, Julie's colleagues gave her advice “quite gracefully” (JulieINT1), making suggestions about the way she grouped the students or how she could cater for different abilities. Julie likened this process of her being upskilled to the *tuakana-teina*⁵¹ approach (Sharples, 2006). Julie also felt that having been a parent-helper in her own children's classrooms

⁵⁰ As mentioned at the beginning of Chapter One, Intermediate schools are schools catering for the two years of education at Years 7 and 8 between the end of primary school (finishing at Year 6) and the beginning of high school (beginning at Year 9). This term, as seen in this comment by Julie, is often used to describe students at Years 7 and 8 even when they are not studying in a separate two-year intermediate school.

⁵¹ The *tuakana-teina* relationship is drawn from the learning styles of traditional Maori society and is based on the older sibling (tuakana) nurturing the younger sibling (teina). This concept has grown to encompass the sharing of knowledge by an expert with someone less experienced and ties in with Vygotsky's notion of the zone of proximal development discussed in Section 2.4.

at the local primary school helped her to take on board different approaches to what she was used to seeing and using in the secondary-level classroom. Julie thought “secondary teachers should have the same training as primary teachers, because...they are incredible managers of what happens in the classroom...and multi-level and all of those things” (JulieINT2).

Religious education context

In addition to the need for Julie to understand the needs of younger learners in her Years 7 and 8 classes, the specialist nature of Whero High School meant that a significant amount of time each week was dedicated to religious education. This did not always sit comfortably with Julie who preferred the time be given to curriculum subjects; she felt that senior classes in particular could benefit from more scheduled classes:

...because we have a big focus on Religious Education, it means that all the rest of us have less time for our subject areas than if I was in a regular state school, so I see my [Year] 11s,12s and 13s for 3.5 hours a week... and I think I should be seeing them for 4 [hours a week]. (JulieINT2)

Teacher’s aide does not support students in the Japanese classes

Julie sometimes had students with special needs attend her classes. In the past they included children with Down’s Syndrome. With the exception of one student who was very high functioning and independent, these students attended the Japanese class without a teacher’s aide⁵² and were, instead, paired with other students who obligingly looked after them, often at the expense of their own Japanese learning. In this regard, languages classes at Years 7 and 8 were not managed in the same way as other intermediate level classes at Whero High School. During the Japanese language time, the teachers’ aides had “non-contact” time, meaning that they were not required to stay in the classroom.

The fact that a teacher’s aide did not accompany the students they supported to the Japanese language class puzzled Julie, who sometimes went to observe the homeroom classes to find out how best to manage and cater for those students needing specialist

⁵² A teacher’s aide supports the classroom teacher of a child with special needs to include the child in everyday classroom learning and activities. However, the teacher remains responsible for this child’s learning and behaviour.

help. Given that this specialist help was not available during Japanese classes, Julie wondered if it might be more beneficial all round if such students were transferred into other activities where their learning could be better supported.

There were also other students who had a range of abilities which Julie found to be challenging when there was “so much going on” in the classroom. She was keen to learn more about differentiated teaching and wanted to find ways of “doing that quickly and efficiently and effectively” (JulieINT1).

The benefits and disadvantages of trainee teachers

Technology played a big part in changes that Julie had implemented in her classroom practice over the course of this study. The arrival of a data-projector in Julie’s classroom, access to a ‘mimio’⁵³, and being part of a school-wide staff development programme for technology all contributed positively to these changes. In addition to these opportunities, Julie also mentored Karen, a teacher trainee, for a number of weeks. Karen was particularly keen to use a range of Information Communications Technology (ICT) tools in the classroom and between them they were able to discuss relevant ways of presenting materials to the Japanese language classes.

In contrast to this positive experience, another teacher trainee, Tania, who was with Julie later in the year, did not enhance the learning in the Japanese classroom as much. Although her Japanese level was high, Tania did not wish to use the language in the classroom in case she made mistakes and yet was very quick to point out any errors (in front of the class) that Julie might make on the board. Tania’s inability to engage with the students’ learning, take advice and generally seek to improve her own practice were ongoing sources of tension between them (personal communication, June 8, 2011).

Mixed-level classes

Due to low numbers of students taking Japanese at the senior levels of the secondary school, Julie had had a mixed-level class (Years 12 and 13) for three consecutive years. Julie found the 2010 year-group particularly challenging, as they did not work well

⁵³ A mimio is a piece of equipment that transforms any whiteboard, or projection surface, into an interactive teaching tool. Unlike a smartboard, a mimio is portable.

together and had a wide range of abilities. This came to a crunch point not long after Julie began her e-log reflections:

Year 12 & 13—crisis week. This combination class is REALLY not working—am stressed about it, and in desperate need of some change for them.

First step I think is to throw out the Getting There in Japanese books (admittedly I have been using tons of extra materials half the time anyway) which are falling apart and so out-dated and dare I say boring although they do cover all the bases. So I am left wondering what to do instead and feeling challenged and yet excited by deciding to try something completely different. Both groups are so different—my 13s are studious, quiet, hard working, sweet natured, my 12s are a bit on the lazy side, talkative, slow to start their work, gossipy etc. so it is a real challenge to leave them with work to do when I work with my Year 13s. Big sigh. (21.03.10)

Over the next few weeks, Julie did try a number of things such as changing the seating formations and the way the lesson content was delivered to each group. Over time these measures did lead to improvements for Julie. The two groups in effect required two different programmes with twice the amount of planning although there was no acknowledgement of this in Julie's part-time workload. In an attempt to address some of the learning needs Julie offered classes even when the students were on study leave for examinations.

Fluctuating numbers: moving between languages

At the time of the first interview for this study, Julie felt confident in her own Japanese language ability. The development of her own self-belief was at the point where she was confident with her proficiency:

I think these days I have got to the point where I feel reasonably confident language-wise...when our sister school visits I can deal with all the situations that arise. I can talk to all the Japanese staff absolutely fine and when I go to Japan I don't have any problems anymore. (JulieINT1)

However, with regard to her ability in French, Julie recognised that despite the fact that she used to be quite fluent, because of her focus on Japanese for the past 15 years, her French had become rusty:

I'd been in Japan so often in recent years I had all the up-to-date knowledge about what schools were like and all of the sort of cultural stuff—and could put things in a personal context, and I have no idea at all—it's like 20-something years since I was in Paris and I think ...oh, when the kids are asking me questions, all I could think of was Japanese schools and how they run...and when they're asking about French teenagers, I actually don't have a clue and I quite like teaching French and with the whole intercultural thing that was in the new curriculum I sort of have one bit without the other. (JulieINT2)

To remedy this and also to acknowledge the declining number of students studying Japanese and “moving back to French” Julie applied for a Ministry of Education Language Immersion Award⁵⁴. Not put off by an initial unsuccessful application in 2009, Julie successfully applied again in 2010 and was to spend one month in a French-speaking country in late 2011. She was looking forward to being fully immersed with a host family and having to use French all the time.

Lack of funding for professional development

From time to time Julie would notice an advertisement for a relevant professional development course she would like to attend, and even though the school did have an allocation of funds for such purposes the applications for those funds were increasingly declined. The reasons Julie gave for this were that not only did a one-day course cost \$150-\$200 to attend but a relief (or substitute) teacher also had to be found and paid for. Julie in fact preferred to take advantage of professional learning opportunities that occurred in her own time—such as after school, weekends, and holidays—rather than during school time. This decision also came from past experiences of having spent time preparing relief lessons only to find that the work “might have been half-done or not done very much at all” (JulieINT1). Professional learning opportunities that Julie was sometimes encouraged to attend tended to be determined by the current focus for the

⁵⁴ See Section 1.10, Footnote 17 for an explanation of the LIA awards.

whole school (e.g. differentiation). Occasionally however, the languages faculty did initiate the purchase of a resource or a visit from the local School Support Services provider that all staff teaching languages were encouraged to take advantage of.

When asked how she kept up with second language acquisition pedagogy and whether she felt it was important or not, Julie acknowledged that this was really hard—especially given that there was little time and funding for professional development activities. She thought that the conferences run by the *New Zealand Association of Language Teachers* were always great and that the *Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education* often helped out with financial support. Occasionally there were other professional development opportunities during school holidays or weekends. They were held at these times rather than during a school day to minimise the impact both on the school that would have to cover the absent teachers, and indeed the teachers themselves who would have to provide lessons for classes they were unable to teach.

5.4 Challenges related to the New Zealand educational policy environment

During the course of this study there were two particular challenges for Julie, influenced by wider policy decisions, which surfaced in her interviews and e-logs. Firstly an upcoming *Education Review Office (ERO)*⁵⁵ visit to the school; and secondly, the national assessment processes and systems (National Standards for literacy and NCEA in particular⁵⁶). Both these challenges impacted on Julie's practice.

⁵⁵ The Education Review Office (ERO) is a government agency independent of the Ministry of Education but responsible for the quality assurance of school programmes and procedures. Teams of people from ERO make a three-to-four day visit to every school in the country every three years to check that each school is implementing the initiatives of the Ministry and meeting the goals set for ongoing improvement and development. Documents are analysed, classes are visited and meetings are held on-site with staff from across the school, after which a comprehensive report is written and made available to the general public.

⁵⁶ National Standards came into effect in English-medium schools with pupils in Years 1 to 8 in 2010. The standards set clear expectations that students need to meet in reading, writing, and mathematics in the first eight years at school (<http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/National-Standards>). See Section 1.4, Footnote 8, for an explanation of NCEA.

Preparing for the visit from the Education Review Office

As part of the three-yearly cycle of review for all schools, a team from the Education Review Office (ERO) was due to make a scheduled visit to Whero High School in 2010. While Julie did not expect to have direct contact with anyone involved in the ERO visit, the pressure of an ERO visit on the faculty led to the development of unit plan templates that began to align the language lessons with the new curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c). She lamented that “I’ve never, ever had ERO or anyone talk to me, I don’t know how I’ve escaped the ERO thing but every time they’ve been at a school I’ve been at, they’ve never been interested in me” (JulieINT2).

One thing that Julie was expecting ERO would want to focus on was the achievement of Māori and Pasifika students. She admitted that she did not make any particular changes to her programme to accommodate students from these backgrounds as “most of the girls I have from Pasifika or Māori backgrounds are fabulous in Japanese” (JulieINT2). Two of the possible reasons for this, she speculated, were that Japanese pronunciation is similar to many languages of the Pacific, and that some of the students had parents and grandparents who spoke another language at home, with a few of the students being already bilingual. She went further to comment about the lower expectations that some teachers had of students from Pasifika or Māori backgrounds and how this was not the case for Japanese:

[P]art of the thrill for me is that it is a new subject for them all, and it’s that whole level playing field. Some of the other subjects they [other teachers] already have an assumption about [the Year 9 students] whether they are good or bad at it, like all kids. (JulieINT2)

Julie was particularly proud that her top student in the previous year was a Year 12 Tongan girl and was hoping that she would have an opportunity to share this student’s success with the ERO team.

As expected however, the ERO team did not visit Julie’s classroom although they did talk to all of the Heads of Department in some detail and as a result of those meetings they were happy with the teaching and learning programmes in the school (personal communication, September 12, 2013).

Despite the constructive comments about the classroom programmes, overall Whero High School did not receive a positive report from the ERO visit. This situation turned out to be a significant event for many of the staff and the catalyst for a number of changes, beginning with the resignation of the principal. Part-time teachers, many of whom were on fixed-term contracts like Julie, were given permanent positions. Julie was also promoted to the position of Assistant to the Head of Department and this enabled her to stay at Whero High School instead of seeking permanent employment elsewhere, which made her “feel a lot better about my job there!” (personal communication, January 28, 2011).

In an update email from Julie in 2013, she commented that since these changes, there had been much better lines of communication between the teaching staff and the senior management team in the school, with an environment of higher expectations and higher trust all round. The ERO team had visited the school again as part of the three-yearly cycle and once again Julie was not visited but she mentioned that the environment was so positive and different from previously that the ERO team would surely have noticed (personal communication, September 12, 2013).

Languages exempt and excluded

Already it has been seen that languages at Whero High School were treated quite separately at school level from other curriculum areas with regard to the allocation of teacher aide time for students with special needs (see Section 5.3). Julie was also aware that there were other examples of languages being treated differently on a national level. Both examples relate to the lack of acknowledgement of the positive influence of languages on English language literacy skills.

From 2010, schools have been required to provide programmes in the first eight years of schooling that will support students to meet specific standards in reading, writing, and mathematics. Schools are required to commit to the ongoing collection of data of student achievement as outlined through the National Standards and submit this to the New Zealand Ministry of Education. All teachers are therefore required to report against these National Standards—except for those teaching languages. Julie had not given much thought to the fact that she did not seem to have to follow this requirement in her Years 7 and 8 languages classes.

At the other end of schooling, it puzzled Julie that the credits towards English language literacy skills for the National Certificate of Educational Achievement qualification at Years 11 and 12 could be derived from almost all subjects (including te reo Māori) except languages. Languages were excluded from this list of subjects as it was deemed that there was insufficient English used in the actual assessment tasks for students to display knowledge of English.

As a busy classroom teacher, decisions about how languages were treated at school and at national level were considered by Julie to be beyond her circle of influence or control.

5.5 Affordances to professional learning

Interactions with a number of different people provided Julie with opportunities to reflect on her teaching and learning experiences.

Collaborative dialogue

The faculty workroom was the place where all staff in the languages faculty gathered for both formal and informal purposes. All of these teachers were teaching languages from Years 7 to 13. About once every three weeks the faculty had a meeting. Sometimes these meetings were planned with an agenda and sometimes they were facilitated by an outside professional development facilitator from the local university to cover a specific need such as planning for differentiation. These meetings tended to focus on what paperwork needed to be done, if all teaching and learning documents were ready, with a definite concentration on tasks that needed completion. Julie commented that these planned sessions did not always satisfy her needs and the unplanned conversations in the faculty workroom provided more useful opportunities for professional learning. This was when teaching staff shared ideas and supported each other in their planning. Julie was almost apologetic about the nature of these conversations when she commented “most of the professional discussion happens in our workroom in our free [non-teaching] periods when we are all sitting around... So that’s where I would say, most of our discussion happens, but it’s very ad hoc” (JulieINT1).

Some of these ad hoc discussions involved teachers in their second year in the classroom. Julie commented on the “give and take” nature of the relationship where on

the one hand, the enthusiasm and new ideas of these teachers were exciting, and on the other hand that these teachers still required some “just-in-time” support when they needed an urgent idea or resource for a lesson that was about to begin. Julie noticed how these teachers had gained in confidence since the previous year:

[W]e have got two teachers who were second year teachers this year who were first year last year and it was awesome, I have to say, I just felt so excited [laughter] ‘cause they were fresh out of college with all these new ideas, but they also had moments of utter despair and they’d say ‘what should I do, I’ve suddenly realised I have got to do something with this class’ and they haven’t got anything ready. There were a couple of us who were a bit more, able to say, ‘we’ve got five minutes we can get a lesson ready ‘here you go, do this’. And you know they’d say ‘ohohohhh’ and I guess you know the give and take in that situation was awesome. (JulieINT1)

Reciprocity

Each of the paragraphs in this section gives detail of occasions where Julie was either being mentored by, or was mentoring someone else. This reciprocity in the working relationships provided all participants with opportunities to learn from one another.

Although Julie was the main teacher of Japanese at Whero High School, Lynne, one of the senior management team, a former secondary school teacher of Japanese, taught one Year 10 Japanese class and was a mentor for Julie, particularly regarding the moderation of senior students’ (NCEA) internal assessments. Julie regretted that the two of them were not able to team-teach due to the fact that Julie had her Year 13 class timetabled at the same time as Lynne’s Year 10 class. However, they had planned a school trip to Japan together despite having “very different ideas... and had the best trip ever” (personal communication, June 8, 2011). Lynne and Julie also planned a classroom activity together based on the Key Competencies⁵⁷ and the self-reflective aspects of the new curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c). Lynne provided a set of thinking skills in Japanese to go alongside this activity. Even though Lynne had since moved to another school, Julie still kept in contact with her as a colleague and friend.

⁵⁷ See Section 2.4, Footnote 22 for an explanation of the Key Competencies.

Marie (Julie's Head of Faculty, and teacher-in-charge of French) was also a regular sounding board for Julie and a colleague to talk over day-to-day issues with. Julie turned to Marie for help with the French classes in particular. She was open to correction, stating: "I speak to my head of department in French every day, and she is French, and she corrects me all the time which is lovely" (JulieINT2). Julie also acknowledged and accessed the expertise of other teachers at Years 7 and 8 for help with those levels.

Julie sometimes mentored teachers new to the profession, be they teacher trainee students or beginning teachers in their first position at her school. She found that in general they had "lots of fresh ideas...different outlooks and a different approach to things" (JulieINT1). Those who were there to teach languages generally came to Whero High School from secondary teacher education programmes so, like Julie, found the intermediate level classes at Years 7 and 8 a challenge at first. With regard to these levels of learning Julie stated "I think intermediate [level, Years 7 and 8] is always a little bit interesting anyway 'cause it is that slight transition from primary to secondary, it is somewhere in the middle, it's still not quite secondary and it's still not quite primary" (JulieINT1). Another challenge she identified for this level was that the pace of the lessons was tricky to get right and that new teachers generally "tr[ie]d to get the kids too far too quickly" (JulieINT1).

Having regular conversations with Karen, the teacher trainee, also helped Julie focus on the curriculum as they discussed having the Key Competencies as a focus of the planning. She admitted that teaching learners in the classroom to reflect on these competencies was a new challenge "I think we need to have that language in the classroom with our kids and that's what I'm finding really, really difficult to do" (JulieINT2). The templates developed for unit plans incorporating the Key Competencies seemed to Julie to be artificial for languages even when she tried to use equivalent French or Japanese terms in their place. The next step in this process, in order to report on how the students were progressing with the Key Competencies, was to create a rubric for a Year 9 unit plan which tied the Key Competencies in with the traditionally assessed listening, reading, writing and speaking skills. This was still a work in progress as she sought to find a balance between reporting on progress against everything in the curriculum and encouraging self-reflection in her students. Julie did

think that one way through this might be to concentrate on one Key Competency at a time for example, giving students opportunities to think about how they had been participating and contributing in their role plays in the Japanese classroom.

One of Julie's goals while on her Language Immersion Award for a month in a French-speaking country was to "make some units of work that are going to be practical and useful for the staff that I work with" (JulieINT2), referring to the class levels where there were two teachers for French at Years 10 and 11. Julie intended to plan some new units of work for these classes to incorporate the new curriculum and "their interests, and set up some kind of multimedia 'wallwisher'⁵⁸ kind of page where ... I'll interview them before I go and ask them 'what would you like me to find out about for you?'" (JulieINT2). Topics that the students mentioned range from broad topics about how French students text or make use of their free time to very specific ones that interest individual New Zealand students, such as the kinds of musical theatre that French students like. Julie wanted to make use of audio and video clips (interviews with local French teenagers) as well as the online blog to interact with her students while she was away.

Time to reflect—a private dialogue

Finding time to reflect seemed to be the biggest challenge for Julie who was disappointed that she had not even found a few minutes to use the reflection page in her plan-book in the manner she had done in the past. This page was something she set up herself to reflect on her practice at the end of each term. But at the time of the first interview, and when commenting on the previous year, Julie said this page had ended up being a note-taking page of "things to get done over the holidays" instead. (JulieINT1).

By the time of the second interview, Julie had been able to address this lack of reflection time. She had had a teacher education student (Karen) in her classroom, and while she acknowledged that at first "...you feel a little bit like you're on show and as teachers we are so often very isolated in our classrooms and people don't observe us very often" (JulieINT2), she then commented that her involvement in this doctoral

⁵⁸ <http://www.wallwisher.com> is a closed, online interactive page where short messages can be posted (in this case, in French) for others to respond to. Note: the wallwisher URL changed to www.padlet.com in 2013.

study and with Karen had enabled her to think about her practice: “It was a nice experience to be almost reflecting doubly, in two directions, ‘cause I was having lots and lots of discussions with her while she was at the school...so, yeah, all the time I was doing [the e-log for you] we were discussing so many lessons anyway, so it really helped me think about what I was writing to you as well” (Julie INT2). Julie and Karen developed quite a rapport with each other to the extent that even after the practicum was over Karen continued to join Julie in professional discussions by taking part in Friday drinks in the staffroom at Whero High School.

5.6 Julie’s beliefs about language teaching

On several occasions, Julie mentioned aspects of her language teaching practice that gave an insight into her own beliefs about language teaching, and more specifically Japanese language teaching.

Should all teachers teach languages at primary school?

Although Julie thought it would be great if Years 7 and 8 classroom teachers were able to teach an additional language to their own class, she did not think many of them would feel confident to do so, even with the availability of the Learning Languages Series multi-media resources. She went on to say that most classroom teachers were grateful for a specialist to do the job so that they could pass their students over to someone else and gain some non-contact time or downtime. Generally there was little or no reference to the language learning that had occurred during the rest of the week by the regular classroom teacher, though occasionally a younger teacher who had studied either Japanese or French might do some limited follow-up (take the roll or put the date up on the board in the target language). In contrast, science specialist teachers worked alongside the classroom teacher in a team-teaching role at Whero High School. Some discussion had occurred at the languages faculty level about how to improve this situation to enable some equity of provision across the curriculum. Languages specialists were not invited to syndicate⁵⁹ meetings and there “isn’t much of a tie-in ever to what’s happening in their classes” (JulieINT1). There was an acknowledgement that the new teacher of te reo Māori has succeeded in working across the school to help

⁵⁹ Syndicates, comprising three or four classes, are used as an organisational structure within some schools.

develop a wider understanding of tikanga Māori. Julie's situation was not dissimilar to that of the music teacher who is often a lone specialist in the school.

The role of the primary languages classroom

With regard to her own teaching approach, Julie commented that the needs of the students were important to consider ensuring that the language they learnt was “fun and easily memorised” (JulieINT1). Julie had another agenda for this approach as she acknowledged that the classes at Years 7 and 8 were “our sales-pitch time for the secondary programme” and “the aim is to make it as enjoyable as it can be” (JulieINT1).

Despite having taught Japanese to all students at Years 7 and 8, Julie believed that “you sort of have to assume no knowledge” (JulieINT1) when they arrived as Year 9 students. She assumed this “base point of zero” (JulieINT2) because she believed they would have forgotten everything they did in Japanese up to 18 months previously due to the fact they would have studied up to three languages since she had originally taught them. Julie did however acknowledge that Year 9 students who had studied a language at Year 7 or Year 8 were in the majority and that they were “actually primed and ready, they think it's going to be enjoyable... they've got a bit of cultural knowledge already because they've done something already, and I think that's a real key (JulieINT2). She went on to say that students had a “grasp on the fact that some things you just say cause that's how it is, and then they have also had some exposure to the fact that there are some things that perhaps said back-to-front, you know how Japanese sentences are the other way...basic pieces”. She did admit that at this early level the language used in class was mainly “formulaic stuff into which they slot what they want to say, simply because we only see them once a week” (JulieINT2).

Julie's Japanese classroom

Julie had her own physical classroom space for all her Japanese classes, which enabled her to set up her own routines and procedures to fit with the nature of the subject (roll taking, greetings) as well as to display student work and other material relevant to Japanese on the classroom walls.

The Years 7 and 8 students came to Julie's Japanese classes in their homeroom group. This meant that they were used to spending time together as a class the rest of the day.

Sometimes Julie visited homeroom classes in order to find out how best to manage individual students and cater for their needs. She also found that not only did it help if she followed some of the homeroom teacher's routines in her own Japanese classes (e.g. setting up bookwork), but her observations also revealed clues about student behaviour—particularly those students who normally had teacher aide help the rest of the time. (JulieINT1).

Julie enjoyed teaching at Years 7 to 13, partly because it gave her continuity with her programme as the only teacher of Japanese but also because of a certain “freedom” that existed with the Years 7 and 8 programme in terms of expectations: “there’s no restrictions, there’s no guidance and we also don’t have any formal assessment like a ‘test’ kind of assessment. It’s all really good fun teaching”. She put this down to the fact that languages were “seen as a less serious kind of programme” (JulieINT1). The formal reports have a “tiny little square” for a single number (1, 2 or 3) to report on effort (1=exceeds expectations, 2=meets expectations, 3=below expectations). In some ways she liked this as it meant she could just get on with the learning but “there is a part of me that is wary, but so long as we are actually following curriculum guidelines ... (working towards) I don’t want to end up being told [what to do]” (JulieINT1).

Pedagogical decisions about Japanese/beliefs about Japanese teaching

Julie made a conscious decision not to directly teach Japanese script⁶⁰ (*hiragana*, *katakana* and *kanji*) to the Years 7 and 8 classes. She defended this by referring to the lack of time and numerous interruptions in the programme, particularly at the beginning of the school year when *hiragana* is often introduced. She did expose the students to the scripts, helping them to notice the differences between them, and, when writing on the board, Julie used both romanised script (*rōmaji*) and *hiragana*. Also, headings and students’ names were written on the board using Japanese script. While Julie encouraged students to incorporate Japanese script into their work for display she believed that there was simply insufficient time to teach the script directly to the whole class at Years 7 and 8. She would rather the students were able to use more spoken Japanese than remember the 46-item syllabary, stating that even at the end of week five

⁶⁰ Japanese has three scripts in regular use: Hiragana (comprising 46 syllables) usually studied first; Katakana (representing the same syllables as Hiragana) but used for imported words and for emphasis; and Kanji—a combination of pictographic and 1,945 symbols adapted from Chinese characters, 1856 of which are required to be studied in the compulsory years of Japanese schooling.

in term one, the Year 9 students who studied Japanese three times a week for the whole year, were only just becoming familiar with the final few *hiragana* symbols. ‘I’d love to do *hiragana* with my [Years 7 and 8] but I sort of feel like it’s a biggie’ (JulieINT1).

Julie built up the things her students could say in Japanese gradually, beginning with their own name, names and ages of family members (including pets). They did this through lots of pair activities, questionnaires (signature hunts) and poster presentations. Julie felt that being in a school which taught Years 7 to 13 enabled continuity with the programme as students remembered some of the strategies (such as the use of songs to remember the days of the week or names of sports) they had learnt previously.

With regard to her senior secondary level classes, Julie felt that the pressure of assessment (the National Certificate of Educational Achievement or NCEA) impacted on her choice of topics and content and often meant that “the opportunity to do real language things that are maybe more valid sometimes in real life but aren’t going to be assessed for NCEA” (JulieINT1) become fewer. She illustrated this by discussing how free it is at junior levels because “they are not being assessed at the end of it—we are not actually doing formal assessment, we are doing self-assessments—we’re doing more of a reflective thing with the [year] seven and eights [students]” (JulieINT1). This freedom, or ability to go off on a tangent, allowed Julie to choose topics that were relevant to her class. For example, she introduced “household pets, including the labels for the types of pets and the noises they make—in Japanese of course. In terms of **choice** of topic, this is not seen to be something that can be achieved (or is even allowed) with the New Zealand Curriculum, and certainly not at senior levels” (JulieINT1).

When asked if she would prefer not to have any vocabulary lists at senior levels constraining the teacher’s choice of topic, Julie said she would love to have the freedom to choose the words relevant to students’ interests and lives though she did recognise some of the implications if this were to occur—students would need to have access to dictionaries or a wordlist in formal nationally-set examinations. This would reflect real-life situations for language learners who used a range of strategies when they came across unfamiliar words. A comparison was then made with the accepted use of calculators in mathematics examinations. The current alignment of NCEA standards to

the NZ Curriculum was seen by Julie as a good opportunity to raise such issues (JulieINT1).

When thinking about the new portfolio writing and speaking Assessment Standards for NCEA languages, which required students to collect relevant evidence of learning throughout the year and consider its worthiness for inclusion in a final portfolio, Julie said that the students at the girls' school where she currently taught were "really good at this wordy [self-reflective] stuff" (JulieINT2) and wondered how boys would feel about it. She related this back to her own 12-year old son who, she suspected, would not want to write a self-reflection on a key competency, stating "he can't be bothered really" (JulieINT2).

Planning with the students in mind

Julie also mentioned that the organic process of planning meant that what was written down in templates and unit plans such as those presented to ERO was not necessarily how the lessons were delivered:

The whole emphasis on students' needs and what they want to learn means that actually you can't sit down and write a whole unit plan before you teach it because... I have this little thought about what we were doing but their [the students'] thoughts were really different...but it was much more fun doing what they wanted to do—and they were quite engaged in it all.
(JulieINT2)

This realisation that lesson plans do change was highlighted by Julie when she was talking about one of her Years 7 and 8 classes who, when asked what they would like to learn about the topic of 'birthdays', were keen to learn how to talk about presents and cake and how to sing the *Happy Birthday* song in Japanese, which was not at all the focus on dates and months that Julie had had in mind. The result of this was that the documents that Julie contributed to the folders of plans that the faculty were getting ready for the ERO visit did not follow the assigned template at all. Julie felt some guilt about this but was not prepared to submit plans that did not reflect her actual teaching practice.

5.7 Summary

Chapter Five has presented Julie's story as a teacher of Japanese. Julie began her teaching career as a secondary school teacher of Japanese, although her French was much stronger. She made the most of professional learning opportunities in Japan and Australia to increase her confidence and competence in Japanese and went on to become a specialist teacher of Japanese, teaching students from Years 7 to 13. Julie found that teaching students at the pre-secondary Years 7 and 8 levels required a shift in pedagogical approaches and she relied on the support of other colleagues to help her adjust to their learning needs.

Julie was aware that some of the demands that were made of colleagues teaching in other subject areas were not always made of those teaching languages. She was aware that teachers of languages were not required to report on student learning to the same degree as teachers of other subjects. This was particularly the case for teachers of students at primary levels who were required to comment on students' progress towards English language literacy in relation to the new National Standards.

Critical moments for Julie occurred when she felt undermined by her employment arrangement with the senior management of the school. She felt vulnerable as a part-time, non-permanent staff member while the demands of her position seemed to be increasing. In particular Julie found the multi-level senior secondary class very challenging. Julie drew strength from her interactions with others. Her languages classroom and her workplace environment were both places where learning occurred. Students helped other students and staff helped each other. Julie had referred to these acts of mentoring or being mentored as the *tuakana-teina* approach. In the broader context of learning, they are also examples of ZPD in action.

Chapter Six:

Helen: Primary specialist, beginning language teacher

6.1 Introducing Helen

Helen⁶¹ is a European-Pākehā woman in her early 50s. She has taught in primary schools for over 20 years as a generalist classroom teacher. In 2008, at the time of the NOLT08 survey, Helen was also the associate principal of Mangu Primary School (decile 7) and had taught Spanish for nearly ten years. By 2010 however, Helen was in her second year teaching at a different school—Kākāriki Primary School (decile 10). Kākāriki Primary School teaches students from Years 1 to 8 and in 2010 Helen had specific responsibility for the senior students at Years 7 and 8.

Throughout this study, Helen was a generalist classroom teacher, teaching all subjects across the curriculum—including Spanish—to her Year 8 class. Helen's teaching qualifications included a teaching certificate and a partially completed Bachelor of Arts degree. Helen learnt her Spanish through in-country experiences and personal independent study. In 2008 she was completing a level 1 National Certificate for Educational Achievement (NCEA)⁶² Spanish course via distance learning. Helen had also attended numerous professional development courses for primary-specific teachers as well as Spanish-specific professional development courses supported by the Spanish Embassy in New Zealand. As well as these New Zealand-based courses, in 2009 Helen spent one month in Argentina as the recipient of a Ministry of Education Language Immersion Award⁶³.

Helen's story was told to the researcher initially through two interviews, both on 6 March, 2010. The first was an individual interview and the second, a joint interview with Eve. Helen then set up her own online e-log that she gave the title 'Enseño Español' (I teach Spanish). Helen wrote 49 individual entries into this e-log from 7 March to 26 July—beyond the 10-12 weeks expected by the researcher. In addition to these

⁶¹ This is a pseudonym. Helen's classroom name is 'Señora Barker' (Mrs Barker). All names mentioned in Helen's story have been changed.

⁶² See Section 1.4, Footnote 8 for an explanation of NCEA.

⁶³ See Section 1.10, Footnote 17 for an explanation of LIA awards.

individual entries, Helen and Eve jointly wrote several entries that related particularly to the school camps that they ran together in April. A second joint interview with Eve and Helen was conducted on the evening of 4 July, 2010.

6.2 Helen the language learner

Helen's choice of language

Helen is a native speaker of English and rated herself as having beginner/emerging knowledge of te reo Māori, social competency level of French and intermediate/survival level of Spanish.

Helen's interest to learn other languages was first piqued when she was at primary school and her teacher at the time was "an old army guy who learnt French when he was in World War II in France" (HelenINT1). This teacher set up a lunchtime club where Helen went to learn French. However Helen was not sure of the success of these lessons as the French she learnt there no none else ever recognised. Despite this inability to communicate in French, the early start and the associated French club set up by Helen's teacher did not put her off as she later selected French to study at high school.

Helen also studied French at teacher's college and, having also been to Noumea as part of her French language learning, was confident enough in her own knowledge and skills to have applied for a French teaching position at an intermediate (Years 7 and 8) school—had there been one. This was not a situation Helen felt she had any control over:

When I went teaching I never got to teach French, I tried and I think I did it once in a club situation but in those days [late 1970s]... then and right up until languages came in in the late 1990s I could never work out how to fit it in, I only saw teaching French as a separate entity on itself and never thought of integrating it—that was probably maturity as a teacher as much as just seeing the way things were happening and having permission to teach French almost. (HelenINT1)

When asked why, when the opportunity arose more recently, she chose Spanish to teach ahead of the language she was more competent in—French—Helen’s main reason was that despite her own abilities in French, this would not have worked for the students:

I was really trying to do French and once the whole languages came in, and I realised that it could be done, I really wanted to do French but ... because [the local] high school taught Spanish ... if I insisted on doing French it would have been about my needs rather than the kids’ needs. (HelenINT1)

This altruistic view was further evident in Helen’s view that it would not hurt for the students to see her as a language learner too:

If I want to be able to teach learners, to teach a language I should be actually learning another language as well. And it just seemed, it seemed not selfish but it seemed to swim against the tide to persist with teaching French. (HelenINT1)

Working with the new learning area was not something Helen believed should be considered lightly, suggesting that it was more than delivering content: “You can’t do languages as a curriculum area you have to do languages as a person” (HelenINT1). This implied quite a commitment, and she went on to explain how the collegiality and the networking that occurred in the languages teaching community was an essential part of being a teacher of languages, inferring that it would be too hard to be a language teacher on one’s own.

She also believed that compared to other curriculum areas teaching languages was more rewarding:

In other curriculum areas everything else demanded things of you or you had to do it this way or that way but languages gave back to me as much as I gave in return. (HelenINT1).

Helen expressed a sense of gratitude for the opportunities that had been given her as a result of her involvement in languages teaching, although she also described this

fulfilment as being at least partly due to the fact that as a language learner herself she had gained satisfaction from her own ongoing growth and development.

The impact of seeing others succeed

One languages learning opportunity which Helen had seen others benefit from was the Language Immersion Award (LIA) experience. Helen had seen her friend Eve manage the highs and lows of an in-country experience which had been “quite harrowing at times” but ultimately the impact had been a positive one and according to Helen had had “a profound effect on her (Eve’s) language confidence and direction” [of her personal and professional development] (HelenINT1). Watching this growth from the sideline, Helen too wanted to explore this opportunity and so applied and was successful on her second application. Helen had just moved to teach at a new school and, having only just settled into the ‘culture’ of her new school, she went on a one-month experience to Argentina.

During her stay in Argentina Helen kept a blog of her experiences. This was her first attempt at using a blog, which she willingly embarked upon not only in order to ‘meet the expectations of the [LIA reporting] immersion award criteria’ (12.03.10), but also because as a language learner in an authentic context, the blog provided her with a valuable tool to capture her experiences to share with her own students of Spanish back in New Zealand.

Limited language

Helen acknowledged that she has less ability in Spanish than other teachers of Spanish she knew, and that her knowledge would not be sufficient to teach at high school level. However, she makes no apology for not being a fluent speaker:

I am not ashamed of being a learner because I know more than the kids and it’s primary school—we are not teaching them to be fluent speakers. We are teaching them to love learning language and to be able to use it.
(HelenINT1)

Helen was frustrated that she did not have the time to focus on Spanish language in order to improve her personal competency and confidence.

Modelling language learning

In fact, Helen believes that her own ongoing language learning development benefits her students as she models many strategies that support her own language learning with her students.

In the classroom, I occasionally use Google translator if I want to find out the gender of a word, or a noun relevant to what we are doing—or if I want to find out something simple that I’m pretty sure I will recognise when I see it in Spanish. I tell the kids what I am doing and why—it frequently comes up on the data projector in front of the class anyway so I guess it’s classic “modelling”. (07.03.10)

While not in the context of the Māori language learner necessarily, the principle of *ako*⁶⁴ is also evident here as Helen takes responsibility for her own learning and models lifelong learning strategies with all her students.

6.3 Helen the language teacher

Helen was passionate about the teaching of Spanish, believing that the *Learning Languages* area has more to offer teachers personally (as well as professionally) than any other area:

Spanish is the curriculum area in which I have the least content knowledge (i.e. language acquisition) yet it is the curriculum area which has given me the most personal and professional development opportunities. (08.03.10)

Language teaching pivotal

Helen made efforts to incorporate Spanish into all parts of the school day and not just during Spanish time on a Friday. She took advantage of unexpected and unintended learning opportunities as they arose. An example of this was when a friend from Argentina contacted her during class-time via an online message tool that had been left on accidentally. She said the children were able to read the simple Spanish conversation they were having together in real-time and follow the authentic communication about

⁶⁴ See Section 2.4, Footnote 23 for an explanation of *Ako*.

the weather and a recent Argentina-Mexico Football World Cup match. The follow-up conversation with the children was about more than the Spanish language and Helen went on to say that her teaching of Spanish was pivotal to all her teaching:

Languages are now pivotal to my teaching and central to it because everything I do I think how can I involve languages in this and that has probably given me a whole new lease on teaching and it's probably at a time when I was becoming very dry and dull and boring. 'Languages' has completely revitalised the way I teach things and that is significant and that is why I am here and why I am doing this and I would love to do more of it.
(HelenINT1)

Helen's initial teaching resource for Spanish was the Ministry of Education funded 'Si' kit which is one part of the Learning Languages Series (LLS) (Ministry of Education, 1998b)⁶⁵. While Helen found the LLS kit very useful to begin with, she did not follow the recommended 20-minute lessons three times a week as suggested in the LLS introduction as it was not possible, or even appropriate to turn the learning on and off in the primary classroom. Once Helen had gained sufficient confidence in the level of Spanish language she needed for the classroom she found that she only used the Si kit as a safety net every now and then to refer to a specific phrase or vocabulary item.

Using Spanish for classroom routines

Spanish classes at Helen's school were timetabled to occur once a week. However, Helen exposed her regular classroom students to as much Spanish language input and output as possible during the rest of the week through a number of classroom routines. One such routine was the roll call. At the beginning of the year each student was allocated a number in Spanish and at the start of each day, and sometimes at other times during the day, Helen would call out the numbers to determine who was present and who was absent. Students responded to the roll call in Spanish as well. There were sometimes other occasions that might demand checking on attendance—such as during a fire drill, or when students were off-site. Helen is convinced this is an appropriate use of Spanish:

⁶⁵ See Section 1.10, Footnote 16 for a full explanation of the LLS kits.

Helen also used other questions to encourage Spanish language input and output:

¿Como se dice X en español? How do you say X in Spanish?

¿Que pasa? What's happening (today/now)?

¿Te gustaria un dulce? Would you like a sweet?

(12.03.10 and 17.03.10)

This last question worked well in all classes, at choir practice and at the Spanish camp. Students were required to respond in Spanish nominating the colour of the sweet they would like.

6.4 Teaching successes

Spontaneous use of Spanish

Helen measured the success of her language teaching by how readily students were able to use the Spanish language they had learnt: such as the girl who, upon arrival at school on a cool autumn morning volunteered *Hace frio* (it's cold). This led to a conversation later at roll-call about how languages differ in the way intended meaning versus literal meaning occurs. In this case 'it is cold' is used rather than the literal 'it makes cold' (18.03.10). Another spontaneous use of language came from the boy whose task it was to write up the day's learning on the board. He came out with *¿Que pasa?* (What's happening?). This question would normally be said by Helen to be followed by a run-down of the day's activities in English.

Although these were small gains by students, to Helen it demonstrated their ability to use the language in meaningful contexts because they had a need to communicate and they were confident enough to do so in Spanish.

Interestingly, this spontaneous use of Spanish was also how she measured her own language acquisition i.e. by the number of times she 'caught' herself thinking in Spanish or unintentionally using Spanish such as when she was attending a workshop about mathematics teaching and she found herself counting the play money in Spanish (17.03.10).

On another occasion when students were out of the school grounds they used the numbering-off technique in Spanish without any prompting from Helen to check that all were in attendance. They were proud of being able to do so quickly in Spanish while other classes were laboriously responding to names read by the teacher. Helen added that this was also a great safety skill for when students were out hiking in large numbers.

6.5 Helen the team leader

At the time of this study Helen was team leader for all four staff teaching students in the intermediate section (Years 7 and 8) of Kākariki Primary School. Each staff member had a composite class of Year 7 and Year 8 students. Helen was quick to point out that although she was the leader of this teaching team and held overall responsibility for the teaching programme across the curriculum at this level, she was a consultative leader rather than a dictatorial one. That said, she was adamant that all students within this section of the school had the opportunity to learn Spanish every week. The classes were re-configured for the 45-minute Spanish lessons to allow for the fact that some of the students had already had a year of Spanish learning. Eve took the Year 8 students who were most advanced and Helen and one other teacher (Mr R) took the rest of the students at different levels.

Helen's passion for Spanish and her steadfast belief that all students in her section of the school would have the opportunity to learn did not mean that she was any less passionate about supporting staff in her team who were not confident about teaching languages.

6.6 Challenges related to the New Zealand educational policy environment

As reported earlier in Julie's story (see Section 5.4), Helen too felt the impact of some wider New Zealand educational policy decisions on her language teaching.

Crowded curriculum

Helen acknowledged that the generalist nature of primary school teaching meant that there were many areas competing for the time and energy of the teachers. This was

evident in this entry, written at 1.02am in the middle of the term and some two weeks since her previous entry:

Primary school teachers have that much 'pull' on their time and so many curriculum subjects which each seem to be THE most important area of the curriculum, that it is impossible to do any specific one justice or do any particular one well. We are spread very thinly across the curriculum areas and get by doing things adequately when, with more emphasis in fewer areas, we could do so much better. (02.06.10)

While most times Helen seemed to cope well with these challenges, this particular e-log was clearly an outlet for her frustrations, as she continued:

It feels like I am one of those circus performers who can cleverly keep a few plates spinning on long thin canes. Then someone says, "Look, she's clever doing that—let's give her a few more plates to spin," and, inevitably the entire lot comes crashing to the ground—and the audience thinks..."Well, she's pretty useless... she needs to spend more time and effort learning to spin plates before we pay to see that performance again." (Please excuse the 'woe is me' outburst). (02.06.10)

Frustrations: Too much emphasis on literacy and numeracy

A sense of frustration was also evident when the subject of National Standards (Ministry of Education, 2010b)⁶⁶ came into the conversation. These standards were new to schools in 2010—the same year as the recording of the interviews for this study.

National standards is getting talked about a lot more. National standards is something that most primary school teachers probably ignore, ... unless you are politically motivated. Most primary school teachers don't want to know about too much there's too much that they have got to do; they want to keep everything at arm's length just so they can get on and do their job. (HelenJointINT1)

⁶⁶ See Section 5.4, Footnote 56 for an explanation of National Standards.

Helen was frustrated by this emphasis on National Standards and the expectations on teachers to collect more and more data on student performance against these standards to meet what she perceived as someone else's needs. She felt that most teachers did not have time to process the details and most did not want to get involved until they were impacted directly.

I always feel like this on Wednesdays after the maths lecture I have on this Numeracy paper we are doing. It's taken by the maths lecturer equivalent of the Teleban, who incites a vengeful-death-to-all-who follow the God of algorithms or any form of maths done before the Numeracy project was devised. He just happens to have written a lot of the books on the Numeracy project so I have to believe he knows what he's talking about. There seems to be so many ways of being a bad maths teacher now, that it seems a wonder any child learns maths at all. Truly, I could leave teaching over it because, it's just too hard to take in when I don't have the time to devote to learning a whole new way of doing things—as well as keeping up with the Numeracy equivalent of the Koran to learn all the new jargon. My disc is full! (03.06.10)

In contrast, Helen readily shares evidence of the Spanish learning, on class blogs for students and parents, and likes the feeling of ownership over how she teaches the languages curriculum area, a feeling which she has lost in “maths, (or numeracy) and, increasingly, in English” (27.06.10). Despite the fact that her school is very supportive of the Spanish teaching programme, Helen still expresses some disappointment in not being formally required to provide evidence of languages learning:

Spanish chugs along quite nicely because no one else knows the languages curriculum, let alone the language. I have no doubt whatsoever that we are valued for what we do and how we do it—it's just that no one asks questions or asks for hard data. (27.06.10)

6.7 Helen's beliefs about language teaching

Throughout this study, Helen came across as a very busy classroom teacher who was dedicated to the learning of her students. She devoted many hours to her planning and was constantly striving to deliver the curriculum as directed as well as to be creative in how she might accomplish this. Ultimately, Helen was a pragmatic person as is evident in this section about the beliefs that underpinned the decisions she made about her Spanish classes.

More than this is a waste

Helen's beliefs about language teaching were strongly centred on providing the students with opportunities to develop as language learners. She also wanted the students to see themselves as ongoing language learners as they moved to the next level of schooling. Helen wanted them to have enough confidence to learn languages at high school, and at Kākāriki Primary School, Spanish was the language she was using to achieve this. In addition, in order for students to be confident in the language they were learning and using, Helen believed that the language needed to be purposeful and limited:

We are not actually going for content, no, for quantity we are going for quality, a limited quality because we don't need to send them off to high school fluent we need to send them off to high school confident, confident language learners and I think confidence comes from knowing a little very well. (HelenINT1)

At the end of the exercise, the students will have a very small repertoire of vocabulary and structures they will use confidently—but they will have learned HOW to communicate and, ultimately some ground-floor survival skills and problem-solving skills which will stand them in good stead in their travelling or cultural future. (02.04.10)

Helen summed this up by attempting to recall a quote from Apirana Taylor, a New Zealand Māori writer who maintains “it is not important to know millions and billions of words. It is important to know what to do with the ones you do know” (A.Taylor, personal communication, May 20, 2013).

Helen further justified this approach with a couple of unique analogies of her own:

I think it's wasteful teaching kids language that they're not using. It's like putting out too much food for them and then complaining when they don't eat it all, it's wasteful. And I think it's also frustrating, I think the kids need to learn to know how they can use what they've got. (HelenINT1)

This second analogy is from one of Helen's e-logs:

I have neither the desire nor the skills (or time) to fill these kids full of Spanish that they cannot use for an authentic purpose over the course of the year. It seems so wasteful—like buying a wardrobe of clothes because you have the money, they fit, and they look good—but you have nowhere to wear them so they sit in your wardrobe going out of fashion as you put on weight.

Having said that, I have no problem exposing them to a variety of authentic Spanish through texts, YouTube and spontaneous but fleeting relevance—I guess that's like 'window-shopping' to continue the simile. (02.04.10)

Students as users of language

Helen's main reason for limiting the amount of Spanish she teaches the students is so that they become 'users' of the language, not just 'learners' of the language. She sums this up with:

Everything I teach the kids, or, everything we teach the kids, they should be able to use it either in the classroom [or] in a contrived-authentic situation and contrived could even be something like....we have got kids around the place now going 'hola' and that is sort of contrived because we don't normally say 'hola' but it is a greeting it's a contrived authentic situation. (HelenINT1)

She then ensures that numerous opportunities are provided to put the language they do learn into use. Section 8.6 describes the school camp experience that incorporated Spanish language in meaningful contexts for the students and adult helpers alike.

Using Spanish 'outside a Spanish cultural context'

Helen makes the point that the context within which the Spanish language is used in her classes does not always pay attention to a specific Spanish cultural context—the language is used sometimes to perform a classroom function as in this following comment:

It gets the roll over and done with in 20 seconds and the students start the day with everyone speaking a little bit of Spanish at least once a day. It's also an authentic use of the language although not in any cultural context—but I'm OK with that. (08.03.10)

6.8 Summary

Although Helen had studied French at teachers' college over thirty years ago, when she began her teaching career as a generalist classroom teacher in a primary school she felt like she needed permission to teach languages. It was not until she had matured as a teacher and taken part in a number of professional learning opportunities that she began to incorporate languages into her programme. These days Helen actively integrates Spanish into her classroom routines throughout the day regardless of the subject that is on at the time and encourages other teachers in her school to do the same.

Critical moments in Helen's journey that have helped establish her identity as a language teacher include the acceptance by others (and by herself) of her still growing expertise and the opportunities that have opened up for her since she began learning and teaching Spanish. Lave and Wenger (1991) argue for learning to occur in the context in which it is going to be used and Helen is acutely aware of this relationship between teaching and learning and is able to maximise students' learning of Spanish even when her own level of proficiency in the language is still relatively limited.

Chapter Seven:

Eve: Learner-teacher of Spanish

7.1 Introducing Eve

Eve⁶⁷ is a specialist teacher of languages and music. Throughout this study Eve has regularly taught other peoples' classes across a range of primary schools. The three schools Eve taught at in 2008 were Mangu Primary School (decile 7), Parauri Primary School and Piriti Primary School (both decile 8). This model of teaching where a specialist teacher travels to schools is called itinerant teaching. At the time of completing the NOLT08 survey, Eve held a Diploma of Teaching (primary), a Level 2 NCEA Spanish qualification and 100-level university papers in Spanish language.

By the time Phase Three of this study began in 2010, Eve was studying 300-level university papers in Spanish language, she was still teaching one day a week at Parauri Primary School (mainly music with some Spanish), but was now also teaching one day a week at Kākāriki Primary School (mainly Spanish with some music). Kākāriki Primary School is a decile 10 school some 50km and up to an hour and a half drive from home. Eve's friend Helen was a classroom teacher at Kākāriki Primary School. The work at Piriti Primary School ended because there was insufficient funding to continue with the Spanish classes. The work at Mangu Primary School ended after a change of principal meant that Spanish was no longer a priority for the school.

Eve's story was told to the researcher initially through two interviews on 6 March, 2010. The first was an individual interview and the second a joint interview with Helen. Eve then set up her own online e-log that she gave the title 'PhD guinea pig: Diary for Adele Scott who is working on her PhD'. Eve wrote 19 individual entries into this e-log from 7 March to 7 July. In addition to these individual entries, Helen and Eve jointly wrote several entries that related particularly to the school camps that they ran together in April. A second joint interview with Eve and Helen was conducted on the evening of 4 July, 2010.

⁶⁷ This is a pseudonym. Eve's classroom name is 'Señora Warren' (Mrs Warren). All names mentioned in Eve's story have been changed.

The following is an account of Eve's individual online entries and highlights her lived experience as a learner and teacher of languages over the four-month period in which these entries were written.

While family events got a few mentions in Eve's e-log entries, the two dominant (recurring) themes were related firstly, to her personal goal to become more proficient in Spanish and secondly, to her role as a teacher of Spanish in a range of contexts. These two themes frequently crossed the boundaries between her personal and professional lives and are at the heart of her identity as a teacher and learner of Spanish.

7.2 Eve's language learning journey

Studying by distance

Eve eventually would like to be teaching Spanish in a secondary school so for three years had been enrolled in university papers to increase her knowledge and proficiency in the language. Learning Spanish by distance (through a university in another city) meant that Eve could timetable her study around her part-time teaching commitments, but it also meant that from time to time she needed to travel to the university in order to attend short intensive courses. Eve's Spanish study during the first half of 2010 was a 300-level paper in advanced Spanish language involving individual study using a textbook and workbook, regular (a-synchronous) interaction online with fellow students, weekly synchronous online tutorials, written assignment work, one contact course part-way through the semester and a final examination assessing speaking and writing skills.

As a distance learner Eve had to be well organised. The fact that nearly every e-log entry had a reference to her study commitments was testament to her determination to succeed with her Spanish learning. Eve's self-motivation can also be seen in this early entry about her family's interest in her study:

My family were quizzing me yesterday about my course, what I was doing, how I was getting on, what did I hope to achieve... really made me think about the end result, but really I am doing it for me. If there is further

employment down the track, then that would be great, but I love what I am doing now anyway. (15.03.10)

Lack of confidence

Despite this commitment and sense of purpose, Eve was not always confident in her ability to succeed. During the first three weeks in her e-log entries—which coincided with the beginning of the university 12-week semester—Eve talked about “scary tutorials” (09.03.10) and “wrestling with grammar” (15.03.10), about “hitting a brick wall” (24.03.10) and being “ready to throw it away” (24.03.10). This self-doubt would surface again when assessment points loomed—even when she had submitted an assignment and stated she was feeling good, she added a comment that the feeling would only last “until the marks arrive”, not allowing herself to believe that she could have passed well (28.03.10). Another time, as she prepared a presentation for delivery to her classmates at her contact course at the university, Eve was stressed about being a non-fluent speaker of Spanish as she had deduced from the online fora that “most other participants on the course appear to have lived overseas for at least a year or more” (18.04.10).

Language learning strategies

Eve employed a number of strategies to address her anxieties over her studies. These strategies included emailing her tutor for guidance, phoning or meeting her friend J—a languages adviser and Spanish speaker—and welcoming encouragement from her husband who would also help out when Eve experienced technical difficulties during the online tutorials.

Even when Eve wasn't directly focussed on her study materials, she would frequently use other strategies to enhance her own language development. Eve accessed various podcasts, news websites and music stations online from South America and Spain, particularly while she was eating her breakfast or cooking dinner. She also had Skype contact with an Argentinian friend who now lives in Melbourne. They often swapped stories about cultural differences and the challenges of living away from home. Eve also met regularly with her close friend J, with whom she shared conversations about how Spanish works and bounced ideas off her to broaden her understanding.

Ups and downs

As the weeks progressed Eve did begin to see a sense of achievement, commenting after the short intensive course (which included a successful presentation to her classmates) that she had a “sense of completion” (18.03.10), only to quickly realise that the due date for another assignment was not that far away. She did enjoy having some choice in the topic for the next assignment although was confused by the layout of some of the grammar activities in the workbook. Towards the end of the semester Eve decided she would apply for a three-week study scholarship at a University in Spain, although she did not put too much weight on her chances and thought the only way she might get it would be if they “didn’t have too many people applying” (14.05.10).

Eve need not have been worried as her application to study in Spain was successful. Two weeks later when she received notification of a good pass in her university paper she wrote that this “makes my trip even more exciting now—not sure why, but I would have felt like a fraud if I had failed” (06.07.10).

As a language learner, Eve employed many strategies to be successful but she wasn’t complacent about her progress, making the most of opportunities to increase contact with the language and other speakers of Spanish.

7.3 Eve the language teacher

Eve’s comments on her teaching roles in the e-logs portrayed a much more confident person to that of Eve the language learner although she used the phrase ‘learner-teacher’ when referring to herself in the classroom:

I think when I teach languages I think I am way more of a learner-teacher. Before I learnt Spanish and started learning Spanish I think that I thought of myself that [as a teacher] I had to be seen to know what I was doing in front of the children... I feel far more able to say ‘look I don’t know, I don’t know everything’. I think I am way more comfortable in admitting that now than I was—whether that’s a good thing or a bad thing I don’t know. (EveJointINT1)

As a language teacher, Eve was also supportive of others and generous with her time and expertise. Eve had three teaching roles. Firstly, she tutored two individuals—one in her own home and the other over the phone. Secondly, she was an itinerant language teacher adapting to working in three different school environments. Thirdly, Eve was a lead teacher of languages in one of the schools where she actively supported other teachers to introduce the Spanish language not only into their classrooms but also into other activities in the school (newsletter, fashion show, camp).

Tutoring

Eve had been tutoring a teenage girl once a week in her own home for over a year. The girl's secondary school did not offer Spanish and so her mother had approached Eve while she was teaching at Mangu Primary School. Eve saw these Spanish lessons as mutually beneficial:

Tutoring is a good way of reinforcing my previous learning, as I need to be able to explain exactly why we use certain phrases and words. If we come up against something that I am not sure of, we look for clues or, we use the resources and reference books. This also teaches her how to go about searching for information. (27.03.10)

This collaborative, co-constructed approach with students, incorporating the modelling of language learning strategies, underpinned all the teaching and learning contexts Eve was involved in. It also emphasised that language learning is a social activity.

Eve took on another tutoring situation while out at a family function:

The mother of a 15 year old was telling me that the daughter was taking Spanish at school, but the teacher wasn't confident with conversational Spanish. We have arranged to phone once a fortnight to practise... Will be good for me too!! I also put the 'AFS⁶⁸ idea' out there if she is really keen to carry on with a language through to Year 13. (27.03.10)

⁶⁸ American Field Scholarships (AFS), have opportunities for students to experience life overseas. Here Eve is referring to a fully funded award that is part of the Ministry of Education Language Immersion Awards http://www.afs.org.nz/student_exchange/scholarships/#lia. See also Section 1.10, Footnote 17.

Both these tutoring situations, occurring in Eve's own time and out of her home, demonstrated her willingness to support other Spanish learners outside of her formal teaching contexts. Two years later Eve is still tutoring the teenage girl who is completing the Year 13 Cambridge Spanish qualification in 2013 (personal communication, April 6, 2013).

Itinerant teaching

Teaching approximately 200 students a year across three primary schools, Eve acknowledged not just the physical distances she travelled to achieve this but the cognitive stretch to move from 'one end of the scale to the other' in terms of the levels of Spanish she was dealing with in the school classroom versus her own study (Eve 09.03). Eve's description of the classroom learning frequently included the use of songs, games and competitions (with gummy bears as prizes) to engage students and encourage their active use of Spanish not only with each other in the classrooms but also with other speakers via Skype, at school assemblies, and at school camp. She was keen to "build on their personal information so that the senior students *use* Spanish—e.g. introductions and a little about themselves, at the next assembly" (16.03.10).

Sometimes Eve had to adapt to the school's timetable when the allocated classroom for teaching Spanish or even the whole learning time was taken over by something else:

The Parauri Primary School students were really busy trying to finish some artwork for an exhibition so I took the ones who had finished for some revision, and we looked at a puzzle. The puzzle had a lot more information than was known, but we worked in groups and together, and managed to complete it. (16.03.10)

Eve seemed to have influence even when she wasn't there, which seemed to make up for some of the timetable woes. She was delighted when a classroom teacher told her that "the boys spontaneously broke into song (Spanish) when working on the computer yesterday" (16.03.10).

Lead teaching

By far the majority of entries in Eve's e-log about classroom teaching however, were about the Spanish classes at Kākāriki Primary School—the main school she was working at in 2010. Kākāriki Primary School was also where Helen taught full-time. Unlike the other schools where Eve worked part-time, where she appeared only for the classes she taught (sometimes not even seeing the teacher whose students she would be with), Eve's role at Kākāriki Primary School was much more involved.

Eve was employed at Kākāriki Primary School as the Spanish expert. Although she was only there one day a week, Eve's role involved working with up to five teachers to help them prepare for the one 45-minute Spanish lesson they delivered to their own class each week. One of these teachers was Helen. As well as helping and supporting these teachers, Eve also had her own Spanish class which included mainly Year 8 students who were more advanced than some of the other students and who wished to pursue their Spanish studies at a faster rate.

Most of the e-log entries pertaining to Eve's work at Kākāriki Primary School focused on preparation for or de-brief of the two five-day camps at Verde Environmental Camp. Helen and Eve were the organisers of these camps and all Years 7 and 8 students attended one of them. They were held in two consecutive weeks in April. They were no ordinary school camps as they involved all participants (students, teachers, parental and other help) being able to converse in Spanish at specific times—particularly during mealtimes. Although this camp had been held over a number of years, each year Helen and Eve made changes and improvements to its delivery. The work involved in the preparation for camp and excitement around the camp was clearly evidenced in all the interviews and e-logs from both Eve and Helen (see Section 8.6 for a full description of the camp; the section also refers to the joint e-logs by Eve and Helen).

Eve had particular responsibility for the mealtimes including the routines in the dining room and the preparation of the menu that included many Spanish and Mexican dishes. To facilitate the use of Spanish she “made up some A4 posters for the dining room with model sentence and answer structures for both students and parents” (18.04.10), laminating them to ensure longevity.

Eve also included opportunities for students to use their musical skills at the school camp, incorporating these into the Spanish theme: “We are taking the ukuleles out with us, and I have the music (including Spanish songs) on my laptop and in folders for use by the students” (18.04.10).

Eve’s e-log entries after the school camps reported on many of the language successes of all participants. She commented on the success of students, other teachers and parents alike. Specifically she was delighted when students used Spanish in meaningful contexts such when they came up to her after each meal with “*Muy deliciosa comida, Señora Warren*” (That was very delicious Mrs Warren), or when they used “*Permiso*” (Excuse me) to other students sitting at the tables as they moved through the dining room with a jug of water (07.05.10). Other teachers (and parents) were also using Spanish by the end of camp, even though they had not done so before, often with unsolicited help from students who were keen to show what they knew.

When asking students to write how they felt about speaking Spanish before camp, at the start of camp and at the end of camp, Eve notes that “[t]he growth in knowledge since the beginning of the year was striking” (14.05.10). She was clearly very proud of their efforts and of the success of the programme.

7.4 Summary

Eve’s e-logs in particular demonstrated how, over the period that they were written, she made significant progress in her own learning of Spanish as well as making a valuable contribution to the learning of others. She made the most of her own learning opportunities and really understood the ups and downs of being a language learner and used her own learning experiences to support others to make progress.

When teaching Spanish, Eve declared she was more of a learner-teacher than when teaching other subjects. There was a sense that it was ok to be learning alongside the students and that she wasn’t expected to know everything.

Eve’s itinerant teaching role enabled her to experience Spanish teaching in a range of schools—some situations worked better than others for both her and the students. The

uncertainty of this role, due to the inconsistency of support received was a source of stress for Eve. She demonstrated resilience, flexibility and perseverance, although she was not sure if her teaching in some schools was taken very seriously as she often had very little interaction with other staff. Kākārīki Primary School was the exception to this.

Chapter Eight:

Helen and Eve: A synergetic relationship

8.1 Overlapping roles

Helen and Eve have known each other their whole lives, having grown up on neighbouring farms. They went to school and teachers' training college together. After completing their teaching qualifications, Helen became a full-time primary school classroom teacher (responsible for teaching the full breadth of the curriculum), eventually moving into a senior leadership position, while Eve did not teach continuously in the classroom. Eve became an itinerant teacher of music early on in her career so experienced a range of primary school settings in this role. This section shares the story of Helen and Eve and their unique professional relationship as they worked alongside each other to deliver Spanish learning to primary school students.

<i>The merging of Helen and Eve's professional lives</i>						
Year	2003					2010
Teaching	Both teaching at Mangu Primary School Helen: Associate Principal & classroom teacher Eve: ESOL and music teacher			Both move to Kākāriki Primary School		
Learning	Both attend professional development for language teachers	Both study a university languages pedagogy and curriculum planning paper	Eve takes up 1-month Language Immersion Award (LIA) in Argentina	Eve begins studying 100-level Spanish language by distance at university Helen begins NCEA level 1 Spanish	Eve studies 200-level Spanish Helen takes up 1-month LIA in Argentina	Eve studies 300-level Spanish
Key events	Teaching of Spanish begins at Mangu Primary School	Both attend NZALT Conferences in Christchurch (2004) and Auckland (2006)	Mangu Primary School principal moves to Kākāriki Primary School	Both attend NZALT Conference in Wellington Eve receives NZALT Speak Up Award		Both attend NZALT Conference in Queenstown Eve awarded 3-week study scholarship in Spain
This study				NOLT08 survey		Interviews School camp E-logs

Figure 9: *The merging of Helen and Eve's professional lives*

Figure 9 above maps the key events in their professional lives since they began teaching Spanish together. The following story was gleaned from the two joint interviews held with Helen and Eve in March and July of 2010, and two of Helen's e-logs which they both contributed to, as well as field notes and observations made by the researcher who was able to attend four days of a five-day school camp as a participant-observer with Helen and Eve in April 2010. The story proper began much earlier however, when Helen and Eve were teaching together at Mangu Primary School.

8.2 Sharing expertise: The beginning of the Spanish programme

The Spanish teaching at Mangu Primary School began with Helen's class during 2003, at a time when Eve was already employed at the school as a relief teacher⁶⁹. Given that Helen was the full-time classroom teacher, and more experienced than Eve in the latest curriculum developments, Helen saw her role as preparing the scene for Eve's contribution, which initially began with Eve's skills in music being utilised:

Eve came in with amazingly quality skills in music and singing and could do that with the kids whereas my skills at that stage were in crowd management and just those intuitive teaching skills. And so together as a team we could get the best out of each other I could be there just to make sure Eve was comfortable. And also just the whole curriculum jargon and everything Eve could do what she did well and I could sweep around and clear the paths so she could do what she did well until she got up to speed with all those [curriculum] things. (HelenJointINT1)

Both had previously learnt some French—Helen at Teachers' Training College and Eve at high school—though Eve could barely remember this at all. However, together they took up an opportunity to attend some Ministry of Education professional development courses for teaching Spanish in primary schools. Eve was particularly animated about the course that they attended along with two other teachers from their school.

⁶⁹ Relief teacher = a substitute or supply teacher, who fills in for a classroom teacher when s/he is absent through sickness or for other reasons.

It was just, I don't know what I was, it just really fired me and the more I knew about it the more I wanted and it is still going. (EveJointINT1)

8.3 Feeding off each other

The Spanish programme at Mangu Primary School had the ongoing support of the principal who encouraged Helen and Eve in their endeavours to increase the impact of the programme through the school. When the principal moved to a new appointment however, Helen and Eve experienced a marked decline in the support for the learning of Spanish so were delighted when the opportunity arose to teach at the same school their previous principal had moved to.

Although the new school was a 60-90 minute drive from their hometown, Helen and Eve travelled there together at least once a week, and used the time at the end of the working day to unwind and reflect on the day's events. This can be seen in this following extract where Eve interrupts Helen to comment on how the ideas they have seem to take on a life of their own:

Helen We are travelling together and you can unwind...

Eve [interrupting] And we feed off each other, somebody will get an idea and it's here and by the time you have finished it's this massive great thing that we think we can do 'how the hell did we get here?' you know, [as she said this Eve drew a big circle with her arms amidst much laughter and continued with] Eve talks with her hands a lot.

Helen I think we feed off each other's interests and excitement because here's me saying we can do camp around food and here's me thinking it would be very plain and by the time we have finished Eve has got cordon bleu things and this, that, and the other that I could make with meat patties. She would do things that I would never dream of.

Eve Vice versa

(Helen&EveJointINT1)

Helen also described her working relationship with Eve as a “synergy” and went as far as to say that what the two of them together achieved was the equivalent to “the value of three people” (Helen&EveJointINT1).

8.4 Comfortable in each other’s company

Twice during this study joint interviews were held with Helen and Eve to capture the relationship that they share in their professional lives. During the joint interviews they interrupted each other, affirmed what the other was saying with nods, ‘mmm’ or ‘yes indeed’ interspersed throughout. They even occasionally finished each other’s sentences. They are completely comfortable in each other’s company and said as much:

Eve I know that I can say something when Helen is teaching and often she will say ‘please tell me if that is correct or not’. But it is that whole confidence in each other that there is no fear of being seen as something...[interrupted by Helen]

Helen I take far more risks knowing Eve is there and also because I have great faith in her Spanish and I think that models in front of the kids, very much able to model, risk taking. And you know what I said before I am more nervous about making mistakes in front of a New Zealand teacher and that is me and not them that is totally me. But I am not afraid to take risks in front of Mrs Warren. (Helen&EveJointINT1)

This quote also demonstrates Helen’s understanding of the teaching and learning process. In particular she believes that risk-taking is an important aspect of language learning to model to students and that the nature of the relationship she shares with Eve in the classroom enables this to happen. Although not explicitly stated here, this quote is linked to one made earlier where she commented on not being afraid to be seen as a learner, and also where, she states clearly that the goal is not to produce fluent speakers.

Helen and Eve’s relationship is one built on trust. Helen takes more risks with the Spanish language she uses because she trusts Eve to cover her back. They liken this

bond to that of a mate on a battlefield or partner in the police—they look out for each other and complement each other’s skills.

8.5 Shared beliefs about language teaching and learning

It was clear throughout the interviews that Helen and Eve had co-constructed, and indeed were still co-constructing, their beliefs about language teaching and learning.

Not every teacher should have to teach languages

While Eve and Helen were passionate about the teaching of Spanish and believed that being able to teach languages gives you “another string to your bow”, neither of them thought that all teachers at Years 7 and 8 should be required to teach languages, with Eve commenting that “you can do so much damage by teaching a subject that you dislike intensely or have no interest in” (EveJointINT1). Helen also believed that students of a teacher who disliked teaching a particular subject would soon pick up on this attitude so it would be better to leave the teaching of languages to those who wanted to do it well.

An experience Helen had had as a senior staff member leading a team of teachers at Mangu Primary School reinforced this view. In order to encourage the incorporation of languages into all the classrooms in her team, Helen had sent all members to a language course funded by the second language learning funding pool⁷⁰ (Ministry of Education, 2010a). However, many were simply not interested in developing this learning area nor in offering opportunities for their students to learn other languages. This led Helen to realise that something that was so exciting for her was not necessarily going to excite others:

I sent teachers in my team to a language course and it was like throwing pearls before swine it just wasn’t the area that they were interested in—no criticism of them. It’s what was exciting for me, someone else didn’t want a bar of and they went to the course and I am thinking ‘can’t you see this is fun this is great?’ (HelenJointINT1).

⁷⁰ The second language learning funding pool existed from 1999 to 2007 to enable schools to offer language-learning programmes by supporting various initiatives including professional learning for teachers (Ministry of Education, 2010a).

Eve and Helen even commented that it would be better *not* to offer languages at all at Years 7 and 8 if the teachers were not enthusiastic about it.

I think you're better to, for the children, to skip those two years and start it hopefully in the third form or year nine with somebody who is really enthusiastic. Because it's like forcing people to...it's like science if you have no interest your lessons aren't going to be exciting what is the overall feeling, is that child going to take on board about that subject, this is not valued by the teachers so why should I think it's any good. (EveJointINT1)

Principals play a key role in deciding who teaches languages

Helen and Eve recognised that, as the key decision-makers on staffing and curriculum matters, school principals needed educating about who should teach languages. They believed that principals often perceived that native speaker fluency was more important than knowledge of teaching and language teaching pedagogy. They felt that this perception was perhaps due to principals' lack of understanding of how languages are acquired and best taught:

I think principals or boards or whoever does the employing of someone to teach languages, unless they are a language speaker or learner themselves, that the ability to speak the language fluently is one of the least important things... I'm talking primary (HelenJointINT1).

Helen was not suggesting that native speakers would not make good language teachers in primary schools, however she did think that the quality of the language programme was more important than the quantity of language given to the students:

I think people who don't know anything about teaching languages with all due respect think that the better the native speaker the better the quality of teaching. As we know at primary level I believe and I think Eve does too (speaking for her) that it's not quantity it's quality and a love of the language. I think you can blind kids with too much language and it becomes quite terrifying for them and again at primary school you are sending them

on to be language learners of any language at high school.
(HelenJointINT1)

Essential knowledge and skills for primary school teachers

Helen and Eve acknowledged that there is a basic core of knowledge needed across curriculum areas for primary school teachers. While Helen was not keen when there were gaps in her content knowledge for science, she was quite comfortable with demonstrating any gaps in her Spanish language knowledge as this was an opportunity to model language learning strategies to her students. However, she also believed that in order for all teachers to be able to empathise with the language learners and indeed be aware of what the language learning area was all about they should participate in a six-month course at training college. Both Eve and Helen were aware that there was no agreement about what constituted the core knowledge for teachers of languages at primary schools in New Zealand:

You meet people who say 'I have been given Spanish or I have been given German this year to teach—I know nothing about it—I know this other language so now I am going to start learning this'. There seems to be nothing wrong with that at all except I can't see somebody employing a music teacher who didn't know music or employing a classroom teacher who didn't know maths or didn't know how to teach reading. I think you're right there is no entry-level expectation for a language teacher yet.
(EveJointINT1)

Language programmes need to be purposeful

Eve and Helen knew the primary context well and between them worked out the Spanish language content and experiences that would work for their students. They planned the programme around the communicative needs of the students and tried to give them language that could be used in as many settings as possible.

There were a number of events in the school calendar that Helen and Eve took advantage of to maximise students' exposure to all things Spanish. In Term One⁷¹ all students from Kākāriki Primary School attend a five-day education camp. In Term

⁷¹ See Section 4.8, Footnote 42 for an explanation of the New Zealand school year.

Three, International Languages Week (a national week held in August each year) provided a focus to celebrate all languages used by the school community. In 2010 Eve was also planning to add a Spanish café to the Term Four programme for the Year 8 students learning Spanish. The events that have the biggest impact on the language programme were undoubtedly the school camps.

On being in a female-dominated profession

During the second interview Helen and Eve were talking about some of the protesting around the implementation of National Standards, on the time it took to get their heads around what was required, and how they were not inclined to be involved. They digressed slightly to make comment about the female-dominated profession that is teaching and how women were not likely to get politically inspired as they had other things on their minds:

It is my experience that most of my colleagues in the past couple of primary schools I have been at are either married women with children or younger women who maybe don't have children but they are not politically inspired or motivated. The married women with children are usually teaching then going home [to] families [who need their time] and then doing schoolwork. They don't want to take on anything else. There are enough things that get in your way at the moment. The young ones are not necessarily long distance thinking ahead, whatever time they are not teaching they are out socialising. It's evident by most schools having to go for the second round of requests to find someone to be an NZEI⁷² rep so it's not until something really impacts on you as the individual that you get politically inspired and sometimes it is a time thing. Man I just don't have the time, it's hugely time-oriented. Somewhere along the line people say 'you should have balance in your life' well, that is one of the things that has to go. And maybe we are letting other people do the lobbying and everything but I don't have time.

(HelenJointINT1)

⁷² The New Zealand Educational Institute (NZEI) is New Zealand's oldest teachers' organisation (<http://www.nzei.org.nz/>).

Being voted off the island

Although Helen and Eve were teaching in schools where language learning was encouraged and supported, they were quite philosophical about what would happen if staffing numbers were too high across the school. Helen taught all learning areas in the curriculum but described herself as a vulnerable language teacher. She was certain that “when someone is voted off the island the language teacher is possibly the first to go...with a huge apology about how we value you and everything” (HelenJointINT1).

They both acknowledged that these types of decisions were “made outside” of their areas of influence and were ones they had no control over. They were realistic about the tenuous position that language classes had in primary schools. This was the same for music, which Eve taught as well:

At the end of the day, when all budgets are sewn up and everything and ‘well, we are sorry, we just can’t afford a music teacher, you are going to have to go back and do your own music again’—incredible damage can be done to people’s music appreciation... (EveJointINT1)

8.6 Living and breathing Spanish: The school camp like no other

Integrating Spanish language into the camp

The camp, affectionately known now as the ‘Spanish camp’, began spontaneously in 2003 when Helen had responsibility for EOTC (Education Outside the Classroom) experiences for the students at Mangu Primary School. This first camp had 35 Year 8 students (including five international fee-paying students who were accompanied by Eve, their ESOL tutor) and was held on a nearby island at a site regularly used by schools and other groups.

The Spanish programme at Mangu Primary School had not long begun to receive some Ministry of Education funding from a contestable ‘pool’ of second language learning money and Eve had also been appointed to help get the Spanish lessons off the ground at the school. The camp however did not have any specific Spanish focus to start with; rather, it grew from an impromptu fashion parade activity one evening. The students had been learning how to describe items of clothing in class so the parade became an

opportunity for them to show off the language they could remember referring to the clothing they had on at the time. Helen's account of that event demonstrates how she and Eve reflected on what was achieved through this activity and considerations they made for improvements to future camps:

It was reasonably successful although we realised that we could have been far more successful if the kids were better prepared so that they could be more confident taking risks—and more focused/confident on the Spanish language aspect rather than posturing and strutting and getting annoyed when they were reminded they actually needed to say something in Spanish. It was a valuable lesson for us, which we recognised straight away and started discussing how we could improve on it at the next camp.... We do that a lot and it is always done informally and spontaneously as part of our random conversations. Each year I now tend to go straight to my computer and jot down notes under a special folder called: Next year's Camp.
(Joint02.04.2010)

The annual camps that followed evolved to include Spanish language that the students could use in authentic situations. With the goal to have students *communicating in Spanish for authentic purposes*, the natural progression for Helen and Eve was to introduce 'general pleasantries' to be used throughout the day in Spanish as well as a focus on Spanish at mealtimes. This increase in the use of Spanish at camp was aided by Eve's development with her own Spanish learning (firstly with NCEA level 1 Spanish, then with Spanish papers at university) which had surpassed the level that Helen was at. Helen's own confidence in her use of grammatically correct Spanish also increased as together they grew the opportunities for students to use Spanish at camp.

Helen and Eve also had the support of a local languages adviser at camp who encouraged them to use daily phrases in Spanish related to camp life such as '*¿Has lavado las manos? ¿Has cepillado el pelo?*' (Have you washed your hands? Have you brushed your hair?).

As far as the mealtimes went, anyone present, including any parent or other helpers in the kitchen, was required to serve or ask for their food in Spanish. This proved a

challenge all round, especially considering that these helpers on the whole did not speak any language other than English, let alone Spanish. However, this situation created excitement for students who delighted in being able to share their learning with the adults as they helped them to ask for words they didn't know '*Como se dice 'lettuce' por favor?*' (How do you say 'lettuce' please?)' as well as helping them to respond to those who were serving the food: '*¿Te gustaría la avena?*' '*No, gracias. No me gusta la avena*' ('Would you like some porridge?' 'No thank you, I do not want porridge').

In addition to all those attending camp being required to ask for their food in Spanish, there was also a strong emphasis throughout all camp activities on the five Key Competencies⁷³ of the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c) and on the following three at mealtimes in particular: Managing Self, Using (Spanish) language (symbols and text) and Relating to Others. A list of 16 items relating to dining room etiquette was displayed in the dining room at all times. These included 'use your manners—*por favour, non, gracias*' (please, no, thank you). The beginning of a meal began once a brief grace in Spanish was said in unison: '*Gracias por nuestra comida y gracias por nuestro día*' (Thank you for our meal, and thank you for our day).

Other teachers who went on camp with Helen and Eve were all supportive of the rule to use Spanish at mealtimes, although one, Teacher P preferred to use French as that was the language she knew. Teacher R felt pressure to speak in Spanish at school whenever Eve was around while Teacher D was heard some weeks later using Spanish voluntarily in class back at school.

Helen and Eve gave students an opportunity to formally evaluate the camp experience once they had returned to school. Students accepted that Spanish was an integral part of the camp and they gave very specific comments about what how they could use their newly acquired language. Students declared they had been nervous prior to camp as they thought they would go hungry but came away with a sense of achievement having mastered a number of phrases. The following are typical of the many comments Helen and Eve received:

⁷³ See Section 2.4, Footnote 22 for an explanation of the Key Competencies.

One thing I have improved in or achieved this term is Spanish because before we started I knew nothing and now I can ask for meals at camp. Now I won't starve at camp. (AL⁷⁴)

It was really fun speaking Spanish in front of the parents. (PK)

(Joint15.05.10)

The authentic use of Spanish at camp had ongoing influence back in the classroom and was the impetus for many of the Spanish-related classroom routines firstly at Mangu Primary School and then at Kākāriki Primary School where Helen and Eve were teaching at the time I attended the school camp. The routines that developed in the classroom included the numbering off in Spanish to take the roll, counting out materials as they were handed out and the use of the Spanish language for classroom transactions. Students were also aware of the different strategies used to support their learning and commented on these in the feedback:

[I was] more confident because we went over the menu beforehand. (GA)

When I was lined up, I felt better because there were little pieces of paper (telling me) what I should say for food. (BY)

Luckily there were nametags for the food, and the teachers helped a lot. (JE)

I felt really confident because I was checking my book and remembered my Spanish. (CR)

(Joint15.05.10)

Eve and Helen also made comment about the students' feedback, supporting their beliefs about language teaching and the methods they employ to achieve 'users' of Spanish:

Some of the comments are quite delightful. It reinforces our opinion that "less-is-more" and that practice, practice, practice is needed for the language to be meaningful. Also that real contexts are so valuable. It was interesting to see how nervous everyone was at the start. Maybe we hyped

⁷⁴ Codes for the different students.

them up a bit but have no regrets because the achievements felt greater and it made them concentrate for a purpose. (Joint15.05.10)

Participant-observer

As mentioned earlier in Section 3.8, I was invited to attend one of the Years 7 and 8 camps as an adult helper in April 2010. Helen and Eve saw this as an opportunity for me to validate the comments they had been making in their interviews and e-logs. As a participant-observer I was able to stand back and see first-hand the impact of Helen and Eve's enthusiasm and passion on the children's learning of Spanish. I was also struck how the camp allowed the students the opportunity to see how Eve and Helen worked together. I reflected this back to Helen and Eve at the end of the second interview:

There were lots of things that triggered for me because I was part of [the camp] and I was able to observe a lot of the things that you talked about in your e-logs and your first interview about the kids noticing that you were learning when you were asking Eve something and vice versa you were checking things off each other and it was about the collegiality of what you were doing and they could see that happening. But then by the end of the camp they were taking ownership of their learning and you have mentioned it in post camp e-logs about them talking to and teaching not just each other but teaching the parents. And the parents becoming language learners and owning their own learning and what that meant. And you disappearing off one night because you had an assignment to complete and 'Mrs Warren has gone off to do her university work' and that was considered a normal thing for them to be part of but they wouldn't have seen that normally... in the day time they don't see that because you are there for them and them only [at school] but in a camp situation they see you in a quite a different mode.

The observations made at the camp allowed me to experience first-hand the interactions between students, and their authentic use of Spanish. Helen and Eve had brought me into their context and enabled me to be included in these experiences. This was not a predictable event and one that initially I was wary of as my participation had not been planned for. However, participation in the camp allowed me to observe Helen and Eve's

collaboration and friendship, resulting in good practice and good language learning for students.

The venue for the second interview with Helen and Eve occurred during a language teachers' conference, which is the focus of the next section.

8.7 Networking with the wider language teaching community

The New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT) holds an international conference every two years. Helen and Eve have attended several of these conferences together. While they remembered the learning they received at each one, they had particularly fond memories of their first ever conference in Christchurch in 2004 where they presented a session on their primary school Spanish programme. They had not long completed a university paper in language teaching pedagogy together and they found the conference a very affirming experience of their value as language teachers:

It was quite overwhelming when I realised how many really good Spanish teachers and others of academic consequence were there to listen to us when we presented our session, and I felt a bit of a fraud for a while. But then I thought, oh well, this is the reality of learning and teaching a language at primary school, and, whatever people think of us—at least we do a good job of engaging kids in language learning, and we are not afraid to take risks in our own teaching and learning. (H. Barker, personal communication, July 23, 2013)⁷⁵

Helen went on to comment that despite feeling that Spanish language was her weakest area of curriculum content, she realised that her knowledge of the primary teaching context and recent university studies meant she was “singing from the same pedagogical song sheet” as other, more experienced, teachers of languages (H. Barker, personal communication, July 23, 2013).

⁷⁵ The communications in the early part of this section arose post-data collection and sought to clarify earlier points made by Helen and Eve in the interviews and e-logs about the conference they had attended.

Eve too was “gratified by the friendship and respect shown [at these conferences] from those in positions of greater experience and knowledge” (E. Warren, personal communication, July 23, 2013). She also found value in the talks from some of the keynote presenters and acknowledged that the words of wisdom gleaned from these presentations had impacted both her professional and her personal life.

Not all delegates at the NZALT conferences were supportive of languages being taught at the pre-secondary level however, and these opinions were not lost on Helen and Eve who both highlighted two incidents that occurred at the 2006 conference. The first incident involved a secondary school teacher who bemoaned the ‘fact’ that not only did primary school teachers not have perfect accents for the target languages they were teaching but also that all they did was play games, making it hard for secondary school teachers to teach because the students expected fun all the time. The second incident was the message delivered in a presentation given by a university lecturer who did not consider it appropriate for teachers who lacked fluency and cultural experience in the language they were teaching to be teaching languages at primary school level in New Zealand. In the discussion time at the end of the presentation a number of delegates challenged the speaker on his position, including a school principal from an intermediate school where languages were taught, an adviser to schools for languages, and, a primary school teacher of languages. Despite the academic standing of the presenter, neither Helen nor Eve thought that he understood the context of the primary school language classroom and that he “would not last half an hour in the class without alienating many of them” (H. Barker, personal communication, July 23, 2013).

In 2010, the conference was held in Queenstown and came at the end of their time reflecting in their e-logs about their teaching and learning of languages. Since the previous conference in 2008, Helen had had the opportunity to visit Argentina on a Languages Immersion Award (LIA) scholarship and this was also just days before Eve was due to take up her scholarship.

Expectations for conference

Conferences provided an opportunity to focus on languages without the demand to multi-task—to respond to family, school and other staff.

Eve We are always enthusiastic, but [conference] just adds on and layers that enthusiasm to keep going, and it is fun.

Helen The expectations of conference have been met already just meeting people who are doing the same things as you are.

For Helen, conference gatherings are where she felt validated as a languages teacher:

For me it helps validate me as a language teacher because for me Spanish is one of the many things I do and no other curriculum area says ‘come along for a conference’ so it makes Spanish or teaching a language quite special...But the other thing as a primary teacher too it’s brilliant to be taken seriously as a primary school teacher of languages by people who are not only secondary school teachers of languages but tertiary and masters and doctors. (HelenJointINT2)

Planning what to attend

At the Queenstown conference, Helen and Eve were planning to attend some of the conference presentations together as they felt there was merit in both of them hearing the same thing as well as being able to de-brief together and make sense of the key messages afterwards. Both mentioned the importance of presentations that had a focus on intercultural learning with Helen commenting that “the ones on intercultural will tweak my bells” (HelenJointINT2). She recalled a presentation on the importance of intercultural teaching by then Associate Professor Liddicoat at her first conference in Christchurch where she learnt about the South American long farewell at a party (Liddicoat, 2004). This presentation had been “a valuable piece of cultural luggage” which she later experienced for herself in Argentina (HelenJointINT2). This interest in presentations about intercultural learning and teaching were in contrast to any presentations on assessment—a topic that Helen acknowledged as vital but “getting hung up on how and why [we assess] I think is not a priority” (HelenJointINT2).

They were also looking forward to hearing about others’ immersion experiences as teachers, not only to compare with their own immersion experiences but also as Helen says to “go along and support them in a collegial sort of way” (HelenJointINT2).

Although they were not presenting a session at this conference, Eve and Helen reflected on a presentation they had made at a local one-day conference of Spanish teachers. They had been quite pleased with themselves as the presentation was made to high school teachers and it had been well received with several requests for their ideas and resources to be uploaded to the Spanish Teachers' website.

8.8 Seizing the moments together

Eve's imminent trip to Spain, a three-week scholarship that would be a combination of language classes and cultural activities, was a focus of much of the conversation during the second interview of this study. Eve was quite sure that the opportunity to study in Spain would help to consolidate the distance learning of Spanish she had been doing. The timing for Eve's trip coincided with her completing one of her university papers, so she was delighted to be able to put one type of formal study aside and concentrate on the in-country learning experience that the three weeks of immersion alongside the study at the university in Spain would give her.

While there were to be these personal benefits for Eve in attending the three-week university course in Granada, for both Helen and Eve this opportunity was also one that they were ensuring had benefits for the students at Kākāriki School.

We are sharing it with the kids because as soon as we knew we told the kids just to get them excited about it and it includes them and it makes it about them too. (HelenJointINT2)

Helen's determination to make the most of the learning opportunities for students extended to Eve who was keen for her trip to Spain to have the maximum benefit for the students. Eve had asked the students to give her questions they would like answered about daily life in Spain so that they could gain some insight into what life was like over there. They had given her questions about the types of clothing people were wearing in the streets; the kinds of food that were eaten at various times of the day; what music was played on the radio and even how late people went to bed. She was delighted with these questions, commenting that she could not have thought them up herself.

Eve's husband had also bought her a video camera so in addition to finding answers to the questions set by students, Eve had set up an online blog to post photos and video clips to the students while she was away. Eve was also intending to use Skype from time to time to connect with the students in real-time during the school day if possible. Helen had previously done this when she had been on a one-month language immersion award (LIA) to Argentina, and had found that the children were interested in keeping in touch online.

Flexibility of the primary school curriculum

Both teachers attributed the flexibility of the curriculum in primary schools as critical to being able to make space in the lessons to include learning from Eve's study trip:

Helen That is the joy of primary school teaching I think you can seize the moment.

Eve I think you have the freedom to do that because you haven't got this exam or this thing, that you have to reach this certain level before they have to go onto this next year, [or that] you have only got year nines for a term and you have to have them at this level if they want to go onto year ten the next year.

Helen That whole 'seize the moment' thing is ultimately about children's learning. (JointINT2)

Helen first used the term 'seize the moment' in an e-log about a week prior to this interview when she was highlighting the importance of making the most of a learning moment when it came up spontaneously (Helen28.06.10). Even given this perception that the primary school curriculum is flexible enough to allow for the inclusion of unexpected interactions with a teacher who is overseas for three weeks, the willingness, expertise and experience of both teachers to be able to adapt the lessons to incorporate this opportunity should not be underestimated. This experience was demonstrated when Eve was reluctant to state exactly what the students would be learning from her visit:

Eve In some ways I don't want to say we will be learning this, this and this because it depends what opportunities I have and what stuff I can get and what videos I can get and what other things happen to me over there will influence what happens back [here]. (EveJointINT2)

Helen was also keen to point out that the overview plan for the year would be “almost robotic and formulaic” if there were not opportunities such as Eve’s trip to tap into (HelenJointINT2). She talked about the importance of integrating this across other learning areas such as social studies and IT (information technology) as students researched aspects of Spain and the specific location Eve was visiting as well as using the class blog and chat tools to communicate with Eve while she was away.

8.9 Summary

Chapter Eight has presented the unique, synergetic relationship between Helen and Eve. Their professional and personal lives benefited from joint history and teaching experience. The trusting relationship they shared allowed them to give each other permission to grow. This was particularly evident when they worked together at Kākārīki Primary School. In front of other staff and students they were open about learning with and from each other. Together they were the ‘value of three people’, enthusing others to join them, if not with the same enthusiasm, then at least with a willingness to make some effort for the languages cause. Helen and Eve combined their energy to create challenging and meaningful learning experiences for students, culminating in the Spanish camps where the focus was on communicating in Spanish in ‘authentic’ situations.

The principal of Kākārīki Primary School was the main supporter of the Spanish programme from within the school. However, both Eve and Helen were well aware that even there, where they were encouraged to put a lot of energy into the Spanish language programme, they were under no illusion that this same programme could easily be ‘voted off the island’ if there were more important (government-mandated) initiatives requiring more school time.

Is it any wonder that more teachers are not so keen to take up the teaching of an additional language when even passionate and dedicated teachers like Helen and Eve feel that they could lose the opportunity to teach the language they love at the drop of a hat? Eve, ever the pragmatist, was convinced it would not be the end of the road for her if that were to happen—“I was a full-rounded person before I started learning a language”—implying that she had other talents she could draw upon to make a contribution to society (JointINT2).

8.10 Conclusion of case studies

Critical moments and experiences that highlighted challenges, tensions, personal and professional developments and successes as told through the interviews and e-logs have been presented. Their roles were examined through various experiences that have led to the formation of their identities as teachers of languages. Their beliefs about language teaching are also revealed through their responses to the personal and professional challenges that appeared along the way. Critical moments that were evident in these narratives covered a wide range of topics and included the following: dealing with multi-level classes; the pressure of school-wide/government initiatives (numeracy, literacy, differentiation); embracing Information Communications Technology (ICT); working with learners with diverse needs; self-doubts as a language learner; celebrating language student success. These and other incidents (and indeed also the re-telling of these incidents) strengthened Julie, Helen and Eve’s perceptions of their roles as teachers of additional languages and contributed to the development of their language teacher identities.

When considering these three cases in relation to Gee’s (2000) perspectives on identity, regarding their Nature-identities, it is appropriate to mention that all three women are non-native speakers of the language they were teaching. Their Institutional-identities are evidenced by their investment in language learning and teaching and the fact they were actively involved in the roles that were sanctioned by their schools. Each teacher had opportunities to reflect and discuss their practice with others. At different times all three demonstrated the concept of *ako*—as lifelong learners with the ability to learn with and alongside others, questioning, negotiating and validating the various Discourses about their own needs and abilities as language learners and teachers. The Affinity-identities

were strongest for Helen and Eve as they aligned themselves with supportive others, teacher communities and subject associations. All three were in teaching teams that provided the space for making sense of the requirements of the role as well as for sharing and creating opportunities for students to learn and use their newly acquired Spanish and Japanese language skills. Now that the findings from the NOLT08 survey and the cases have been reported, it is fitting to explore the relevance of these in relation to the research questions in the final chapter.

Chapter Nine:

What does it mean to be a teacher of additional languages in New Zealand schools?

9.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an interpretive account of language teachers' lived experiences as presented in the five previous data chapters and interprets the findings in light of the three research questions.

The aim of this study was to investigate who the teachers of languages are in New Zealand schools, what experiences they have, and how they perceive what it is they do both inside and outside the classroom. The mixed-methods design has allowed for the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, giving both breadth and depth to this study. The NOLT08 survey captured the demographic information, academic and professional background of 280 teachers, teaching over 1000 languages classes across 208 schools. Teachers' perceptions of their own knowledge, skills and beliefs about languages teaching and learning were also collected. The NOLT08 survey sought to find the commonalities and differences in teacher practices, and respondents' perceptions of their role as a teacher of additional languages. The three cases then delved deeper into the lived experiences of the three individual teachers of additional languages.

The data from the NOLT08 survey provided mostly frequency data that on first glance might appear to only serve as a snapshot descriptive benchmark for future studies about teachers of languages in New Zealand. However, the themes arising from the many responses to the open-ended questions have allowed for a much greater depth of field than that first glance would suggest. The data from the case studies have allowed for an in-depth look at three teachers' working lives providing a series of snapshots over time—not as rigid or structured as with time-lapse photography but instead offering glimpses from different angles with different lenses, allowing the complexity of each teacher's context to be revealed.

Participants in this mixed-methods study from both the NOLT08 survey and the three in-depth case studies were at varying stages of language teacher identity development. Gee's (2000) four interwoven perspectives of identity (N-Identity, I-identity, D-identity and A-identity) derived from nature, institutions, discourse and affinity experiences are used in this chapter as a framework for understanding language teacher identity development. Suffice to be reminded here of Gee's (2000) definition that identity is "being recognised as a certain kind of person in a given context" (p. 99). Other key research as highlighted in Chapter Two about quality teaching and effective teaching in languages will also inform this discussion.

The following three sections of this chapter will address the three research questions in relation to the findings.

1. What is the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools?
2. How do teachers perceive their *role* as teachers of additional languages, and how does this impact on their *identity*?
3. What is the *place* of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools?

The final section of this chapter will conclude this thesis by considering how these understandings of role and place contribute to the development of the language teacher identity. Implications for policy and practice will be given along with some recommendations for future research.

9.2 What is the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools?

This section reports on the importance of human capital, the qualities of the individuals (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2013) involved in the teaching of languages in New Zealand schools. In this study, teachers shared information about their personal background, their reasons for teaching languages, and the qualifications and experiences that contributed to their current teaching context. The findings reveal that language teachers bring a range of qualifications and experiences to their teaching context and that those

in the secondary and primary sectors neither share the same language learning experiences and expertise nor the same teaching contexts.

Participants in this study were from a range of ethnic and language backgrounds, were highly qualified, mainly female (79%) and were from a range of schools (size and type) throughout New Zealand. Nearly three-quarters of the respondents were teaching in either a secondary school setting or across both secondary and primary sectors, while the remaining 26% were teaching only in primary contexts. Those teaching in secondary schools were more likely to have further tertiary qualifications in addition to their teaching qualifications than those teaching in the primary sector (73.1% for secondary versus 13.9% for primary).

Teachers used the five-level scale given in the NOLT08 survey (see Appendix F Question 23) to state their proficiency in the language(s) they taught. Three-quarters of the teachers reported that they had either Social Competency level (fourth highest level)—meaning they could cope with a wide range of topics, sometimes in new contexts—or Personal Independence level (highest level) of near native/native fluency in the main language they taught. They had accessed the learning of their main language from a variety of sources—over a quarter of them from study at university. Comments about lack of proficiency were more likely to come from primary teachers of languages in the NOLT08 survey than those in the secondary sector. The three case study participants shared different strategies they had for increasing their fluency from formal university study and participation in immersion experiences within New Zealand and overseas alongside less formal but regular contact with other target language speakers through online technologies such as Facebook and Skype. Participants throughout this study were resourceful when trying to maximise their own and their students' exposure to the target language.

Over a third of the survey respondents taught French as their main language with approximately a quarter of participants teaching Japanese. Fewer teachers taught Spanish, German, te reo Māori, Chinese or Samoan as their main language, with the highest proportion of teachers of these languages from the primary sector. Given the NOLT08 survey was a snapshot in time however, no trend is evidenced regarding numbers of those teaching specific languages. Ongoing data about teachers need to be

collected to provide this information. Ministry of Education data do indicate the number of *students* learning specific languages. For the period 2000 to 2013, these data show that the numbers of students learning languages⁷⁶ overall at Years 1 to 8 have increased from 64,016 (13.2% of total student population at these levels)⁷⁷ to 117,174 (24.4%). However, at Years 9 to 13 numbers have decreased from 63,681 (25.9%) to 58,351 (20.56%) students (see Section 1.9 for background to the Ministry of Education statistics). Numbers of students learning Chinese and/or Spanish have been steadily increasing across both sectors while numbers of those learning Japanese have been steadily decreasing across both sectors. Those learning French and/or German at primary levels have been increasing but not so at secondary levels. Such fluctuations in numbers of learners have an impact both on those entering the language teaching profession regarding their choice of language(s) to teach and on those in the classroom already who face declining numbers in the senior secondary school in particular (see discussion on multi-level classes in Section 9.3). To cope with these changes, some teachers who previously taught French and moved to teaching Japanese in the 1990s have gone back to including French in their repertoire, while others have begun to learn Spanish to help meet the demand for learning that language, and no doubt to ensure job security (#127, #144, #167).

Teachers of languages also reported on pedagogical understandings of language teaching. The NOLT08 survey findings illustrate that these understandings come from professional learning and support received from a variety of sources such as formal qualifications, contact with the target language culture, attendance at recognised professional development courses and working with specialist languages advisers. In this study, over 60% of participants responded to an open-ended question about perceived gaps in their own knowledge and skills that they would like to address. The themes that arose for primary teachers in particular were around the need for increased proficiency in the target language and knowledge about the target language they were teaching. Secondary teachers on the other hand were more focused on addressing

⁷⁶ Ministry of Education data for the learning of te reo Māori across all year levels is collected using different methodology from other languages (based on levels of immersion in the language rather than Year levels), so has not been included in numbers represented here. In addition, this new methodology has only been in use since 2008, which limits comparability across the time period in question.

http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/statistics/schooling/july_school_roll_returns/6040

⁷⁷ Students are counted once for every language they learn so totals (and percentages) are an indication only of numbers learning languages in relation to the total student population at these Years levels.

second language acquisition pedagogy in relation to planning from the New Zealand Curriculum (Aitken, Sinnema, & Meyer, 2013; Ministry of Education, 2007c). Both sectors were interested in improving the resources they use to teach languages as well as increasing their knowledge and skills about reporting on student progress.

The diverse language learning experiences teachers bring to the classroom highlight for learners that there are many ways to enrich the language learning experience and that within a specific target language community there is a multitude of ways to view the world. However, as can be seen from the data, this diversity does pose challenges for professional development. On the one hand, all languages and their associated cultural practices have unique features that require language-specific attention. These may be matters relating to the form of a language (use of script, tones), the use of different versions of a language (formal, polite, local), or specific protocols and behaviours that depend on knowledge of different social settings. On the other hand, second language teaching pedagogies can often be shared across languages, enabling generic as well as language-specific professional development opportunities.

In this study, data were collected on the positions language teachers held in the school. Although the impact of such data on the place of languages in general will be discussed further in Section 9.3, it is useful to foreground that discussion here with reference to the types of positions held by teachers of languages. The main responsibility for nearly half the respondents was classroom teaching, although a further 36% had duties in middle management positions as assistant head of department or head of department. This is a higher proportion of teachers than the 29% of the general population of teachers in middle management positions as gathered through the most recent New Zealand Teacher Census (TCen04) (Ministry of Education, 2004). This is an indication that proportionally more teachers of languages than other subject areas have additional middle management responsibilities. This higher proportion is not surprising given that there are fewer teachers of languages overall (8% of all secondary teachers, Ministry of Education, 2004), and therefore fewer people available to take on extra responsibilities. Some may be single-teacher departments or departments with many part-time teachers, adding to the complexity of any middle management leadership role. Only 2% of participants in this study were principals and 7% were in senior management positions, whereas in the general population of teachers, 5% of all teachers were principals and

8% in senior management positions (Ministry of Education, 2004). This indicates that while language teachers are perhaps on a par with other subject areas in terms of representation at senior management level, they are severely under-represented at the level of principal. Given that principals at secondary level generally do not typically teach any classes none were represented in this study. This perhaps raises a cautionary note when comparing the positions held by participants in this study with the general population of teachers. Notwithstanding, given the significant decisions that are made by principals in relation to the curriculum, several studies have sought their views on the implementation of language learning programmes at primary levels in particular. A study by Lilly (2001) of schools teaching Japanese to students at Years 7 and 8 revealed that both principals and teachers regarded the commitment from the principal as being the most critical factor in the implementation of Japanese language programmes. Howard's (2012) findings of principals' perceptions have particular relevance when considering the place of languages and will be discussed in Section 9.3. Accepting that principals have some influence over the timetabling and curriculum decisions, the more languages teachers who rise to this position, the more promising the outlook could be.

It is also interesting to consider the place of gender and positions of responsibility. Data revealed that there were approximately four times as many female respondents as there were males teaching languages (79.3% females: 20.7% males). This is higher than the proportion of females to males in the teacher census data (73% females: 27% males). In the general population of teachers 11% of males and 3% of females filled the role of principal (Ministry of Education, 2004). As mentioned above, language teachers are not well represented at this most senior position of the school. Female language teachers are even less likely to be in this position. It is possible that this low number of female principals is due to the part-time status of some female teachers. However data were not collected in either of these population studies (the current NOLT08 study nor the Ministry of Education TCen04 study) on whether participants were part-time or full-time teachers. In Dwyer and Ryan's (2008) summary⁷⁸ of a stocktake on the status of part-time workers and women's experience of part-time work however, around three times as many women as men are in the part-time workforce in New Zealand; and, in

⁷⁸ This research report was conducted on behalf of New Zealand's National Advisory Council on the Employment of Women. Part-time work is classified as less than 30 hours per week. However, in the teaching service part-time is considered to be less than 20 hours a week.

the teaching service specifically, 24% of females in the primary sector and 15% of females in the secondary sector are part-time (National Equal Opportunities Network, 2012, n.d.).

Many of the data in this section contribute to what Gee (2000) describes as the Nature or N-identity or states of being which cannot be changed at an individual level. Nature-identity has not been explored in any depth in relation to language teacher identity in this study, although it is exemplified through demographic data such as a teacher's gender, age and ethnicity. Regarding this latter aspect, 80% of participants in this study had English as their first language with the remaining 20% having one or more of twelve other languages as their mother tongue. Exploring this aspect of language teacher identity in depth was beyond the scope of this study but future studies could explore the impact on language teachers' I-, A-, and D- identities of those for whom English was not their first language.

Different teaching contexts call for different teaching approaches

In New Zealand, languages have traditionally been taught mainly in secondary schools with numbers only declining when the requirement to study a foreign language was removed from many university science courses in the 1960s-1980s (Peddie, 2003). However, with the increased support for languages programmes at the primary levels from the mid-1990s, there has also been a steady increase in numbers of students learning languages at these earlier levels in particular (Ministry of Education, 2013a). The provision of targeted support for Years 7 and 8 programmes through professional development opportunities for teachers such as the Second Language Learning Project (SLLP) (Gibbs & Holt, 2003; Shearn, 2003), Teacher Professional Development Languages (TPDL) (Harvey et al., 2010; Scott & Butler, 2007a), and the Learning Language Series (LLS) (Education Gazette, 2010) resource are testament to an assumption that language programmes at the primary level have different needs to those at secondary level. However, as seen in Helen's story, the LLS resources may have been provided specifically for the teacher new to teaching languages at Years 7 to 10 but it came with a further assumption that there would be three 20-minute slots of time available to deliver the programme each week. Data from this study highlight the different teaching contexts and the range of ways in which primary schools have been "working towards offering students opportunities for learning a second or subsequent

language” (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 44). The three case studies in this research exemplify this through Julie as the secondary-trained expert teaching from Years 7 to 13, Helen as the Years 7 and 8 classroom teacher, and Eve as the Years 7 and 8 itinerant teacher. As highlighted by these three teachers, their own professional learning needs differed greatly. As a Japanese specialist, Julie needed pedagogies for the pre-secondary teaching context; Helen needed opportunities to increase her own Spanish language proficiency; and Eve needed strategies to manage the range of classrooms and their schools’ expectations about Spanish learning.

Data from the NOLT08 survey revealed that almost half the teachers in this study were working in schools with primary students, although only 40% reported teaching at primary levels. Likewise, over 75% of respondents were teaching in schools with secondary-level students but only 60% reported teaching at Year 9 and above. This does not mean that all teachers should or could teach languages at all Year levels but it could suggest that there are opportunities for some teachers with language teaching expertise to teach beyond the levels they are teaching at currently.

Primary teachers are generalist not specialist teachers

Chapter Two outlined the qualities of an effective teacher and of an effective teacher of languages, drawing on regulations (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2007, 2009), as well as pedagogical considerations (Alton-Lee, 2003; Ellis, 2008, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Newton et al., 2010). While none of these will come as a surprise for teachers in the secondary sector who are expected to be specialists in the subjects they teach, those in the primary sector are generalist teachers and are not usually expected to have specialist content knowledge and pedagogy in all of the subjects they teach. Proficiency in the target language is one measure of such knowledge. Over 70% of those teaching in the primary sector categorised their own language proficiency at the second and third levels of the five-level proficiency scale, namely at the Beginner/Emerging or Intermediate/Survival levels. While this would not be considered sufficient competency or fluency to support student learning through to senior secondary school qualifications, the key point for consideration here is whether it is sufficient for the level of learning required in the primary classroom. The New Zealand Curriculum states that “Level 1 of the curriculum [for languages] is the entry level for students with no prior knowledge of the language being learned, regardless of

their school year” (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 24). The implication being that teachers working with learners at this level would have mastered the achievement objectives set down. Several New Zealand researchers in this field (Daly, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2012; East, 2007; Robertson, 2008; Scott, 2008; Scott & Butler, 2007a, 2007b, 2008) acknowledge that the reality for many primary teachers is that they are learning alongside their students. The Learning Language Series (Ministry of Education, n.d.-c) resource directly encourages teachers to adopt the role of facilitator in the classroom and learn along with their students. This is akin to the concept of *ako* that has been demonstrated by all three case study participants either in their classroom or workplace. However, although it might be acceptable to learn the content alongside the students, teachers still need an understanding of the pedagogy of learning languages to ensure the learning is meaningful. When considering teachers as learners, the importance of teachers having the knowledge, skills, motivation to learn and confidence that they can make a difference but do so with the support of others is key to helping build their capacity (Stoll, McKay, Kember, Cochrane-Smith, & Lytle, n.d.). Given the generic wording of the Achievement Objectives of the New Zealand Curriculum (see Appendix P), schools and teachers need to re-work these into specific learning outcomes for students and apply these to the target language they are offering. Not all of the guidance provided via online resources to help with this task is aligned to the latest 2007 curriculum (see in particular Ministry of Education, n.d.-g, which refers to documents from the 1990s). In addition, navigating the online environment to find the most relevant materials (such as Ministry of Education, n.d.-d) within the ongoing demands of the classroom, is not straightforward for teachers unless they have some knowledge of the particular target language and can make appropriate decisions about the suitability of what is on offer for the age and level of students in front of them.

The responsibility for ensuring teachers have the necessary knowledge, skills, dispositions and pedagogies for the classroom falls firstly at the feet of the providers of initial teacher education programmes. Recent studies push for even greater accountability on graduates of such programmes (Aitken et al., 2013). Currently, there are few options to encourage students to select languages in either their undergraduate or graduate initial teacher education programmes in New Zealand universities. Despite the breadth of the New Zealand Curriculum with eight learning areas, which can be further subdivided into several dozen subjects, many initial teacher education courses

have a strong focus on numeracy and English language literacy. The pursuit of understanding of other languages and language teaching pedagogy is often limited to an overview of te reo Māori and its tikanga. Even those students with prior knowledge and a desire to incorporate languages into their teaching career are offered few opportunities to do so.

Generally, primary teachers do not choose to teach languages

Although this study did not set out to be driven by a statistical analysis of the data, it was impossible to ignore the most (statistically) significant finding: of those teaching additional languages in the primary sector, only 51.3% did so because of personal choice. The number of teachers who chose to teach languages was much higher for those teaching in the secondary sector or across both the primary and secondary sectors (88.6% and 89.7% respectively). This finding may not be at all surprising to those who understand the challenges of learning an additional language. However, for those schools charged with delivering a meaningful programme for learners, this finding has some important considerations. It would be interesting to discover if these same teachers felt similarly about other areas of the curriculum. This aspect will be discussed further in Section 9.3 in relation to identity development.

9.3 How do teachers perceive their role as teachers of additional languages, and how does this impact on their identity?

In order to explore the roles of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools, teachers in this study were asked to share what it is they do. This question explores the discourse teachers use to talk about themselves to reveal their perceptions about their role as a teacher of additional languages. Role, in this study refers to the positions or functions held by teachers of languages. In Chapters Four to Eight, the themes that came to light from participants are related to the contexts they were in, how they enacted the languages curriculum and outside influences on their role. All these aspects contribute to their identity as teachers of additional languages and are discussed here.

Teachers perceive their role differently depending on their context

“Teaching is a highly complex activity, drawing on repertoires of knowledge, practices, professional attributes and values to facilitate academic, social and cultural learning for diverse education settings” (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2009, p. 1). The literature on effective teaching and effective language teaching outlined in Chapter Two gave but a glimpse of the complexity and responsibility teachers are tasked with. Teachers need to have understanding about pedagogical content knowledge—how children learn, content knowledge of the curriculum and subjects they are teaching, and how to put both of these into practice. The New Zealand Teachers Council Registered Teacher Criteria (2009) for fully registered teachers consider Professional Knowledge in Practice, alongside Professional Relationships and Professional Values, to be critical to the teaching role. They further realise these aspects through twelve specific criteria with the most relevant aspect to this study being the sixth criteria, which is the ability to “conceptualise, plan and implement an appropriate learning programme” (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2009). This criteria is exemplified by two key indicators which state that:

“Fully registered teachers make use of their professional knowledge and understanding to build a stimulating, challenging and supportive learning environment that promotes learning and success for all ākonga⁷⁹. Fully registered teachers:

1. articulate clearly the aims of their teaching, give sound professional reasons for adopting these aims, and implement them in their practice
2. through their planning and teaching, demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of relevant content, disciplines and curriculum documents.

(New Zealand Teachers Council, 2009)

For the teacher of additional languages in the New Zealand setting, relevant content includes proficiency in the language they are teaching, knowledge of the form(s) of the target language and use of the language in appropriate contexts. Pedagogical content knowledge includes familiarity with the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c), principles of second language acquisition (SLA) (such as Ellis, 2003,

⁷⁹ Te reo Māori term for ‘learner(s)’ used in all Teachers Council documentation.

2005, 2013), and intercultural language teaching principles (such as Liddicoat, 2007; Newton et al., 2010). Respondents in this study reported on their level of knowledge, skills and understandings of teaching additional languages in relation to these aspects with most being comfortable utilising a range of strategies to incorporate listening, speaking, reading and writing activities; to explain language and cultural features; and, to adapt and develop motivating resources. Respondents were less comfortable incorporating new aspects of the curriculum such as viewing and presenting; planning for diversity; and applying second language acquisition methodology to planning and assessment of additional languages.

Findings revealed that the teachers at primary level (regardless of their reported proficiency level) were less confident about their own ability in nearly all aspects of knowledge and skills compared with those teaching in the secondary sector or across both sectors. When also taking into account proficiency level, where more of those in the primary reported lower proficiency levels than those in the secondary sector, those with lower proficiency were less likely to include many of the knowledge and skills listed than those who reported higher proficiency.

Teachers of additional languages in the primary sector highlighted both lower content (proficiency) and pedagogical content knowledge as areas they would like further development in, suggesting that they themselves did not feel they have sufficient knowledge and skills for the levels they were teaching at. While many participants in the primary sector wanted to improve their own knowledge and use of the target language, they did not always think there was sufficient time to become up-skilled. Some had another language they were more fluent in that they had to put aside to teach one they were required to by the school. Some primary teachers thought that there were not enough opportunities to use the target language in the classroom. In other comments, some primary teachers referred to a lack of expertise (#111, #235), a lack of confidence (#110, #126, #174) and even embarrassment (#94). Many commented that they had little time to fulfil their role as a language teacher.

The Institutional-identity (Gee, 2000) of the primary generalist teacher is in a state of transition as the role is being challenged and teachers are asked to teach additional languages which have traditionally been considered the domain of the secondary school

specialist teacher. In addition, these teachers have been asked to do something they are not qualified to do and that poses a dilemma. As Brooks and Scott (2000) note, “the increasing complexity of most discipline areas means that it is difficult, if not impossible, for individual teachers to be competent in all Key Learning Areas” (p. 54). Primary teachers in this study have either embraced the additional languages challenge and sought out opportunities to learn the target language and how best to teach it, or have resisted it, treating it more like an unnecessary and time-consuming imposition. Part of the discourse around this dilemma is that some teachers in this study from the primary and the secondary sectors believe primary teachers should not teach additional languages. Some New Zealand researchers (Barnard, 2006) also hold this view.

Participants at secondary level were more likely to use the identified knowledge and skills mentioned as an integral part of their lessons than the primary teachers, although they still felt the need for ongoing professional development in aspects relating to second language acquisition methodology. At this level however, teachers also highlighted the pressure of the assessment system. They mentioned the time commitment needed for creating and administering assessment tasks for qualifications. The pressure to give students sufficient opportunities to learn and use the target language in interactive situations was exacerbated by having to manage multi-level classes, particularly at Years 11 to 13. Primary teachers did not feel this same pressure over assessment demands. In fact many participants in the primary sector were not even required to report of student progress in additional languages.

***Teachers’ beliefs about how the languages curriculum should be enacted—
using additional languages as a tool for communication***

Additional languages have only been allocated a separate learning area in the New Zealand Curriculum since 2007 (Ministry of Education, 2007c), and associated curriculum level guidelines (Ministry of Education, 2002f, 2007b, 2012a, n.d.-d, n.d.-e) have only been available for a relatively short time. However, prior to this time, there were language-specific guidelines to support the teaching of languages under the previous New Zealand Curriculum Framework (Ministry of Education, 1993, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 1998a, 2002c, 2002d). These latter resources were well understood and used by secondary teachers of languages and, along with the release of the principles of instructed second language acquisition (Ellis, 2005), there has been a set of common

understandings and shared practices from which planning, curriculum and assessment decisions have been made.

However, much expectation is placed on teachers in the most recent New Zealand Curriculum, which has a vision for confident, connected, actively involved, lifelong learners who are supported by teachers who promote student learning through a co-constructive pedagogy (Ministry of Education, 2007c). In the *Learning Languages* area specifically, the challenges are to include viewing and presenting skills in addition to the traditional four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, alongside a renewed emphasis on communication and intercultural communicative competence. Learning progression statements for additional languages adapted from the Council of Europe's (2001) framework are given in generic terms with language-specific guidelines having been relegated to second-tier online support documents. This is a lot for teachers to manage and participants in this study from the secondary sector frequently reminisced about previous documentation, many mentioning the time needed to make changes to programmes and to take on board new thinking. Secondary teachers also referred to the change to the assessment system from a norm-referenced system to standards-based assessment system (as documented by East & Scott, 2011) which has occurred since 2000, putting more emphasis on reporting on work that occurs in class time, effectively adding the role of examiner to the teachers' workloads. This has impacted on the role of additional language teachers in particular as they must now spend more class time on preparing students for assessments which maybe more valid and authentic—in that they assess the ability of students to interact in the target language in more authentic situations than previously—but the pressure to create meaningful assessment tasks that meet specific criteria has increased greatly.

Again, the data from the NOLT08 survey revealed different effects on the role, place and identity of language teachers between the sectors. The teachers teaching in the primary sector had lower reported use of the language strategies in their lessons than teachers in the secondary sector or those teaching across both sectors. Also, those with higher reported proficiency used a wider range of language teaching strategies than those with lower reported proficiency. The case studies exemplified other aspects of the New Zealand Curriculum. All three case study participants made regular reference to

incorporating the key competencies⁸⁰ and pedagogies for learning. Helen and Eve's "Spanish camp" was a strong example of facilitating shared learning:

Students learn as they engage in shared activities and conversations with other people, including family members and people in the wider community. Teachers encourage this process by cultivating the class as a learning community. In such a community, everyone, including the teacher, is a learner; learning conversations and learning partnerships are encouraged; and challenge, support, and feedback are always available. As they engage in reflective discourse with others, students build the language that they need to take their learning further. (Ministry of Education, 2007c, p. 34)

The focus of the camp was to use Spanish in as many authentic situations as possible and the children tried out their Spanish language skills with each other as well as with the adult helpers (including some parents) who had even less ability than the students.

While participants' reported proficiency at primary level was not always high in the target language, and in some cases was not much ahead of their students, they seemed to have sufficient proficiency to contribute to the teaching of languages in their own classrooms and to involve students in the lessons. In this study, teachers involved students through using chunks of language in meaningful, authentic contexts (Ellis, 2008) as much as possible, as demonstrated by case study participants Helen and Eve. Helen and Eve were adamant about the importance of making effective use of known words and creating opportunities to use known vocabulary over the range of skills and in a range of contexts (Ellis, 2013), stating that "more than this is a waste" (HelenINT1). The Office for Standards in Education (2009) in the United Kingdom, and Erlam (2005, 2006) in New Zealand also encourage the use of language as a tool for communication and not only as an object to be studied. This emphasises that the primary teacher's role as a language teacher was different to that of a secondary school language teacher because the goals of the primary languages programmes are less constrained.

⁸⁰ See Section 2.4, Footnote 22 for an explanation of the Key Competencies.

Language teaching and learning beyond the classroom—an investment of self

Becoming a teacher of languages is an investment of self (Danielewicz, 2001; Norton, 2010), meaning that the teaching of languages requires more than delivering lessons about language patterns and sentence structures. A number of teachers of additional languages were involved in activities outside of the classroom and outside of the expectations of their institution. Sometimes these commitments were for their students, such as organising and running local camps and overseas trips to a target language community, or teaching additional classes to enable students to have extra input and practice prior to examinations. Other activities were for teachers' own learning and included participating in online and face-to-face support networks for teachers of languages as well as further study, both formal and informal. In this study attendance at conferences and one-day workshops featured strongly as opportunities for professional development. All these activities demonstrate an investment of self, a personal commitment of both time and finances by these teachers. They also demonstrate a willingness to contribute to the wider languages teaching and learning communities. Results from this study show that the role and identity of language teachers extend way outside of the classroom. Helen and Eve's Spanish camp is a good example of the commitment to ensure relevant learning experiences for students. Several secondary teachers in this study mentioned holding extra classes for students when the timetable did not allow for different year levels (or small classes) to be taught separately.

Participation in communities such as the support networks for language teachers is an active process, and a source of identity that involves a mutuality (not necessarily entailing equality or respect) and an opportunity to negotiate meaning about shared practice (Wenger, 1998, p. 56). Gee (2000) calls these communities "affinity groups", and the activities or experiences that are shared when these groups meet contribute to the affinity-identity of the participants. The commonalities of the activities, the tensions shared and challenges overcome bring the participants together. Online communities provide on-demand access to support and would be especially relevant for those teachers who, due to perhaps being the only teacher of languages in the school and feeling isolated, are bereft of regular input from colleagues (#170).

9.4 What is the place of the teaching of additional languages in New Zealand schools?

The place of language teaching in New Zealand schools is very complex. This complexity comes partly from the lack of compulsion and regulation around the teaching of additional languages at a national level. Furthermore, while the secondary sector has a history of teaching additional languages, there is no commonly understood way of implementing languages programmes in the primary sector. The challenges of ensuring students have access to quality sustainable language programmes are great, and for some teachers in the classroom, they can seem too hard to manage. The complexity can therefore be seen at a number of levels—the level of policy and government; the level of the school; and at the level of the classroom. In this study, these levels are the sources of power which contribute to the development of the institutional perspective or “I-identity” (Gee, 2000) of the participants. In so doing, these institutions determine the value, status and place of the teaching of additional languages in schools in New Zealand.

The place of languages as determined at government and policy level

The New Zealand Curriculum mandates seven out of eight learning areas for implementation in schools

The statement about the place of the newest learning area in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007c) is very clear. While the other seven learning areas are required to be offered to all students in Years 1 to 10 via “effectively taught programmes of learning”, schools with students in Years 7 to 10 should only be “working towards offering students opportunities for learning a second or subsequent language” (p. 44). This means that schools are not required to offer any additional languages programmes to students at Years 1 to 6 and, even at Years 7 to 10, schools might offer a programme but students are not required to take up the offer. Perhaps it is not surprising therefore that with the number of other demands, schools will avoid committing too much effort to additional languages because of this weak statement in the New Zealand Curriculum.

Professional development for teachers of additional languages available for some teachers

The Ministry of Education does however support professional development programmes for staff in schools working towards a programme of learning for languages. Support has been given in the form of resources, pedagogy and classroom support packages (Education Gazette, 2010; Ministry of Education; Uniservices, 2013). Ministry of Education-funded evaluations of these programmes have shown them to be very successful (Harvey et al., 2010; Scott & Butler, 2007a) but they are not meeting the needs of all teachers. Some researchers (Goodson, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994) are cautious about offering a one-size-fits all professional development model. They argue for teachers' lives and priorities to be understood in order to be able to build an effective professional community. Many participants in this study expressed a willingness to pursue extra study or professional development opportunities but were often held back by the time and financial commitment required, frequently citing small or non-existent budgets in their schools to support such endeavours.

Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) and universities' initial teacher education courses have little room for languages content and pedagogy courses

Through the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), the government also has influence over the initial teacher education programmes it chooses to fund at universities in New Zealand. However, in recent years, universities themselves have been making cutbacks to initial teacher education programmes and staffing by moving from the more expensive three- or four-year programmes for primary initial teacher education to one-year-graduate programmes. Initial teacher education programmes for secondary are usually one-year graduate programmes. Initial teacher education programmes at primary level do not have space to devote to all the curriculum areas and many teaching-qualified, experienced teacher educators whose teaching specialisms are in the arts or languages areas have been made redundant as a result of such programme restructures. From the researcher's personal experience, unless students enter the programme being able to speak an additional language, they are unlikely to be motivated to incorporate languages into their teaching programmes in schools.

The New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA): Literacy in English is valued, contributions from additional languages are not

The New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) is a Crown Entity, which administers the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA), the main national qualification for senior secondary students in New Zealand. It too places value on subjects by allocating credits for literacy (in English) to over 600 achievement standards in 45 subject domains (out of a possible 936: L. Douch, personal communication, 27 March, 2014). However, despite the link between the benefits of learning additional languages on first language literacy, there are no literacy credits allocated to achievement standards for additional languages.

Education Review Office (ERO) rarely visits languages classrooms

The Education Review Office (ERO) is a government department, charged with evaluating and reporting on the education and care of students in schools. ERO typically visits every school once in a three-year cycle and reports on how well the school is attending to its own goals as well as those identified by the government. Teams of ERO reviewers spend several days on-site meeting with staff, visiting classrooms and reading documentation provided by the school. In this study, case study participants said they had never met an ERO reviewer and none had ever visited a languages classroom. This could signal that the inclusion of additional languages in the national curriculum is not valued sufficiently to be included in the goals for ERO to monitor.

The place of languages as determined at school level

Teachers as advocates for languages in schools

On top of the regular day-to-day demands of teaching (planning, curriculum delivery, assessment, playground duty, pastoral care of students to name a few), language teachers have the additional burden of frequently feeling the need to advocate for the configuration of language classes at particular levels and for specific languages. Schools, being self-governing, make decisions about subjects they support in the curriculum. Boards of Trustees (BoT), principals and those in the senior management teams are charged with the power to make such decisions and can and do make changes about languages programmes regularly. Participants in this study frequently made reference to the impact of such decisions on languages programmes. Case study participants in this study were acutely aware of the tenuous place languages held in primary schools in

particular. All three related decisions made by their principals that impacted on their ability as teachers to deliver effective language(s) programmes. Just at the time Julie was contemplating moving schools to improve her employment situation, the principal resigned and she was able to secure a permanent position and receive better support as the teacher of Japanese. The reverse situation occurred in the school Eve and Helen jointly taught at, when a change of principal meant that Spanish was no longer well supported, so their former principal encouraged them to join her at her new school—which they did. The importance of leadership for the advocacy of languages teaching and learning cannot be understated.

Undervaluing of additional languages

Other decisions made at the school level illustrated inequitable treatment of languages programmes, impacting on the teacher and the students. Examples include the special needs support person having a break from supporting the special needs students during Japanese time in Julie's story; or in Eve's story, the classroom teacher not being there so that the Spanish learning is not reinforced throughout the week. In addition, although teachers in the primary sector were required to make regular links between student learning and their achievement in literacy and numeracy, they were not required to report on how additional languages might contribute to this. In fact, in some cases there was no requirement to report on progress at all. Although extra reporting might seem onerous to some teachers, the contribution additional languages makes to English language literacy is a debate that is well overdue.

An outcome of this extra involvement is that teachers of additional languages are frequently drawn into the current debates around the over-crowded curriculum at primary level, small senior classes at secondary level, and the importance of English language literacy, and consequently into roles of advocacy. The undervaluing of languages as a curriculum area can then be seen to be undervaluing of languages teachers.

Class sizes and the timetable

Key issues highlighted by teachers in this study relate to increased diversity in Year 9 classes (due to students who have had some prior learning studying alongside students who are learning languages for the first time) and increased multi-level senior

secondary classes (due to attrition). For those teaching across the two sectors the challenges often related to negotiating the expectations of working in different contexts.

Although the majority of teachers in this study (85%) had classes of 50-60 minutes duration, this statistic alone does not begin to show the complexities of the offerings. Just over 40% of participants declared they had multi-level classes. For participants at primary level, teaching Years 7 and 8 students together is the norm rather than the exception. However, when solely considering the senior classes (Years 11, 12 and 13) at secondary school, Japanese classes had the highest proportion of multi-level classes (24.7%), followed by German (22.5%), Spanish (21.4%) and French (15.7%). At these levels of schooling where the curriculum demands and assessment requirements vary greatly from one year-level to the next, the situation of having more than one level and sometimes more than one qualification type and level in the same class time, albeit with small numbers of students, is extremely challenging. Despite these challenges many teachers did mention a wide range of strategies to support students' learning, the implementation of which usually went unnoticed or unrecognised by the school management even though teachers gave of their own time.

In the primary school classroom, having sufficient time to incorporate a languages programme into an already busy curriculum was mentioned by a number of teachers in this study. Secondary teachers on the other hand perceived timetable issues to be responsible for high attrition rates although this does not line up with McLauchlan's (2007) statement that timetable issues are not a reason for students to stop studying an additional language. From another perspective, it is unlikely that other curriculum areas would be subjected to this notion of having to 'fit in' to an already crowded curriculum. The role and identity of a teacher of mathematics for example, is not going to be undervalued because of a need to constantly battle for a place in the school timetable.

The place of languages as determined at classroom level

Access to languages is not equitable

In the primary sector in particular, access to languages classes is inconsistent across schools. The wide variety of offerings is still prevalent since the findings of a study about Japanese classes a decade ago (Lilly, 2001). Although data are collected by the Ministry of Education on numbers of students studying additional languages in the

primary sector, they are not straightforward to interpret as students may be studying more than one language in any given year for as little as a few hours or as much as once or twice a week.

Not all teachers chose to teach an additional language, nor were they confident in their ability to do so

This study did not set out to measure the quality of additional languages programmes. However, it did reveal teachers' reported understandings and use of a range of widely accepted set of knowledge and skills. Those participants who declared lower levels of proficiency in the language they were teaching also declared a lower level of understanding of and ability to use a range of accepted strategies. This was particularly prevalent at primary level. This is not to say that the teaching that was occurring was poor, rather that some primary teachers saw it as their role to deliver a short lesson incorporating some target language and cultural practices every now and then (if time permitted) but they were not always confident with the material they were presenting or their own proficiency in the target language. Some other participants saw it as their role to become as proficient as possible in the target language in order to incorporate additional language learning throughout the school day in addition to some specialist language teaching time. Those in the former category were also most likely to have been asked to or required to teach an additional language, rather than making a personal decision to do so.

9.5 Conclusions: How understandings of role and place contribute to the development of the language teacher identity

This study draws on socio-cultural definitions of identity which consider teachers' understandings of their role, place and identity through their understandings of their relationship to their world and their lived experiences (Gee, 2000; Norton, 2000). Data were gathered from 280 participants in a national online survey (the NOLT08 survey) and from the interviews and e-logs of three case study participants. These data gathering tools provided opportunities for teachers of additional languages to participate in the storying of languages teaching in New Zealand. Not only was research possible from

these narratives but teachers also engaged in a “deeper critical observation of themselves” (Harbon & Moloney, 2013, p. 7). If we return to Gee’s (2000) phrasing, it is through these narratives, that we can begin to recognise participants in this study as certain kinds of people (teachers of additional languages) in given contexts (primary and secondary school settings).

A model for next steps and recommendations for future research

Gee’s four perspectives on identity development have been a useful lens through which to reflect on the development of the language teacher identity in New Zealand. The four perspectives of N-identity, I-identity, D-identity and A-identity have been considered in the previous discussion. As Gee (2000) asserts, “these four identity perspectives are *not* separate from each other. They interrelate in complex and important ways” (p. 101). In Chapter Two (Figure 3, Section 2.3) I presented my representation of three of these perspectives for considering the literature relevant to the study. This figure is revisited here:

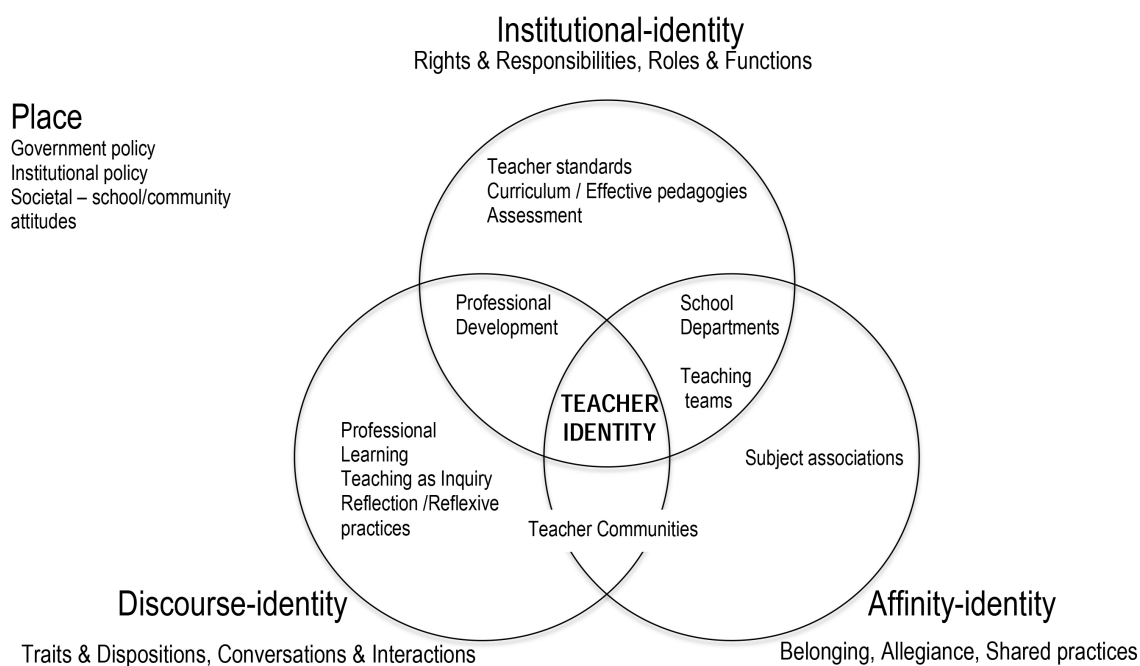


Figure 10: Figure 2 revisited

Now, I would like to propose a closer look at the relationship between two of the identity perspectives as they came to light in this study through Figure 11. This figure shows the interrelationship between the I-identity and the A-identity as a model towards understanding the current situation in New Zealand that can then be used to determine implications and recommendations. Depending on the quadrant teachers and schools are in, and the traits that pertain to that group, the Discourse-identity alters.

	Low Affinity-identity	High Affinity-identity
High Institutional-identity	<p>1 <i>Engaged school</i> Committed to ongoing languages programme & development of teaching staff</p> <p><i>Reluctant, possibly disengaged teacher</i> Low commitment to own development as language learner & teacher</p>	<p>2 <i>Engaged school</i> Committed to ongoing languages programme & development of teaching staff</p> <p><i>Engaged teacher</i> Maximizes languages-learning opportunities for students and themselves</p>
Low Institutional-identity	<p>3 <i>Disengaged school</i> Low commitment to ongoing languages programme & development of teaching staff</p> <p><i>Reluctant, unsupported teacher</i> Low commitment to own development as language learner & teacher</p>	<p>4 <i>Disengaged school</i> Low commitment to ongoing languages programme & development of teaching staff</p> <p><i>Engaged but unsupported teacher</i> Maximizes languages-learning opportunities for students</p>

Figure 11: Institutional-identity vs Affinity-identity

Teachers in the first quadrant have high support from their institutions but are, at best, compliant in their role as a teacher of languages. They deliver the lessons as required but do not see themselves as language learners or teachers and do not engage with others in the wider language teaching community.

Teachers in the second quadrant have a strong identity as a teacher of languages. They have high agency and high locus of control. They are confident teachers of languages and have the support of their institutions. They also have high personal investment in language learning and teaching and use every opportunity available to expose their students to the learning. They belong to affinity groups and seek opportunities or spaces to gather with like-minded people to use their language and share their ideas about language learning and teaching with others. These could be face-to-face or virtual

spaces. In this study teachers in this quadrant are in contexts that allow them to be resilient and adaptable; they can find a balance between policy and practice; and, they are committed to finding compromises.

The third quadrant represents schools and teachers that have little experience or desire to include an additional languages programme in their curriculum. In this study teachers in this quadrant are in contexts where languages are neglected and everything is simply too hard to work out.

Teachers in the fourth quadrant have high affinity-identity but have low institutional identity. For one reason or another they are not well supported in their institutions and this weakens their overall identity as a language teacher. In this study teachers in this quadrant are in contexts that push them so far that they eventually push them out. For all three cases in this study, their identity as a teacher of additional languages was more important to them than the position they held in their school.

There are a number of implications for policy and practice that can be drawn from a model such as this. However the implications will depend on the goal that is being considered.

If the goal is to ensure that all students have opportunities to access high quality programmes for additional languages, then disengaged schools need to support those teachers on their own staff who are engaged with languages. If they do not, then there is a danger that those teachers could move away and the students would miss out.

If the goal is to improve the outcomes for teachers and students in quadrants 1 & 3, then the discourse will be about teachers being supported to engage with the benefits of learning an additional language and providing opportunities for students to learn an additional language. If the goal is to improve the outcomes of teachers and students in quadrants 2 & 4, then the discourse will be about teachers seeking out further supported-opportunities (perhaps at an alternative institution for those in quadrant 4).

If the goal is to improve the outcomes for teachers and students in quadrants 1 & 2, then the discourse will be about celebrating the success stories, having a reward for the

schools, giving staff incentives. If the goal is to engage the disengaged schools in quadrants 3 & 4, then the discourse will be about enabling schools through funding and staffing to realise the benefits of learning an additional language and providing opportunities for students to learn an additional language.

If the goal is to ensure that ALL schools and all teachers are indeed delivering an effective additional languages programme, then the actions by policymakers and professional learning providers need first to identify schools and teachers in the third and fourth quadrants. Disengaged schools would require different strategies to disengaged or unsupported teachers, however the following actions would be likely to have a positive effect on schools and teachers in all four quadrants, and it is worth considering these points for further debate.

An important consideration would be mandating the learning of additional languages at Years 1 to 10 alongside the seven other learning areas of the New Zealand Curriculum. To achieve this there would need to be a policy review at government level and a genuine effort by stakeholder groups such as language associations for such a policy to be successful.

Another consideration would be determining entry-level knowledge and pedagogy for the teaching of languages at Level 1 of the New Zealand Curriculum. This would need to occur alongside the provision of support for initial teacher education providers who would need to provide appropriate content and pedagogy courses. One way this could be achieved is to utilise experts who are familiar with both the demands of the classroom context and the direction of the new learning area. Former regional languages advisers are ideally knowledgeable in both contexts. Strengthening the links between initial teacher education providers and language associations through representation on curriculum planning groups would also ensure that there was ongoing input relevant to the needs of the teaching sector.

Finally it would be important to ensure that additional languages programmes were made a priority area for school reviews and Education Review Office (ERO) visits. ERO need to make languages a priority area for reporting. Reporting on the impact of the learning of additional languages on student groups could be incorporated into

existing mechanisms such as those used for determining how student learning outcomes are improved in relation to the values and the key competencies of the New Zealand Curriculum. The reporting on the learning of additional languages would also readily contribute to evidence of students' literacy skills in English as students are given opportunities to compare and contrast language patterns, sounds and meanings. Political will would be needed to ensure such changes were implemented and to enable ERO personnel to be guided in the type of evidence collected.

Although a laudable goal to some, these actions would not be do-able in the current policy environment of leaving some decisions up to self-managing schools. As highlighted in this study, there is a mismatch between government policy, school-level decisions and research on quality programmes for additional languages. This mismatch is due to competing ideologies. Firstly, is the ideology about the importance of a broad education that includes opportunities for linguistic and cultural richness. This ideology is currently partially supported (although not compulsory) through the learning and teaching of languages at the Years 7 to 10 levels. Secondly, there is a community ideology that acknowledges an increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse population made up of parents who want the home languages to be recognised and maintained. A third ideology is the desire for students at senior secondary levels of the curriculum to achieve qualifications from a broad range of subject areas, including languages.

These competing ideologies sit within the context of self-managing school environments where decisions are based on what is practical and what is achievable with limited funds, limited timetables and limited staff. Students and teachers are also within these environments. Complexity theory would class this as a wicked problem, one that is viewed very differently by each of the stakeholders and one that cannot be solved by a single attempt at a solution.

Contributions to research and limitations of this study

This study has highlighted the importance of the teachers' voice in unveiling their perceptions of their role as teachers of additional languages. This was the first time such data have been collected. It has also uncovered important information about language teachers' perceptions of their role and how this impacts on their identity as teachers of

additional languages. As well as this, this study has provided important information regarding the background and profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand schools.

The NOLT08 survey instrument has served its purpose to gather data from a sector of the education community that has previously not been questioned in such depth. Therefore this instrument can be considered as a benchmark tool for gathering such information. However, six years have now passed since the NOLT08 survey data were collected and it may very well be that teachers' teaching contexts have changed. It is now time for further data to be collected not only to update the profile of the language teaching profession but also to ponder aspects such as the presence in the classroom of students who are native speakers of the language being taught, or the increased use of technology in the classroom and the possible impact these aspects may have on the teaching and learning of additional languages. The NZALT Executive is considering using the NOLT08 survey as a baseline tool for this ongoing collection of data on the profession.

While teachers of all languages were invited to respond to the main national survey in this study only one respondent was teaching a Pasifika language as their main language. If further surveys are to be conducted it is hoped that more teachers of Pasifika languages would participate, in order for findings from this current study to be validated, or otherwise, for this section of the teaching community.

Future studies could replicate some of the demographic items specific to language teaching to allow for comparability across different cohorts of language-teacher professionals even where the key research questions may be different. It is worth noting that self-reporting entails inherent limitations. The data gathered in this study relied on self-reporting by teachers in the scale used to rate their own proficiency in the languages they taught (Q20), the reporting on their own knowledge and skills (Q34), and their use of language learning strategies in the classroom (Q36). Although beyond the scope of this current study, future studies could incorporate classroom observations to verify such claims.

In the case studies, e-logs were used over several months to record participants' lived experiences in the classroom thus enabling their voices to be heard in a manner that met their needs. A potential limitation of the data is the different number of e-log entries from the case study participants from Eve (19), Helen (49) and Julie (9). The e-logs were used over several months to record participants' lived experiences in the classroom thus enabling their voices to be heard in a manner that met their needs. The participants engaged with their reflections in different ways, within the time available to them, resulting in different quantities of data. I do not consider the different number of e-log entries as a limitation since on the one hand, it was methodologically crucial to respect the autonomy of the participants, and since, on the other hand, the primary goal of the exercise lay firmly with the content of what was said rather than the amount of comments provided. The three case study participants came from distinctive teaching contexts and brought different experiences to their classroom contexts. This said, it is acknowledged that there were no male teachers represented, nor were there younger teachers or teachers of te reo Māori or Pasifika languages represented in the case study data in this study. More such case studies would enrich the understandings of the profile of teachers of additional languages in New Zealand providing different characteristics, interpretations and conclusions.

This study has also made a contribution to our understanding of what it is to be a teacher of additional languages in New Zealand with recommendations for school leadership, policy makers, teacher education providers and those charged with supporting teachers of languages in the school context.

Although there were over 300 respondents to the survey it is not known what the total population of those teaching languages in New Zealand schools is, so it is not possible to generalise the findings into every school teaching languages. Participants who responded to the NOLT08 survey did so voluntarily. Some teachers possibly thought the survey was only for those teaching languages in a full-time capacity as specialist teachers so did not complete the survey.

Closing words—Take heart

Participants in this study can take heart that the language teaching profession in New Zealand is made up of well-qualified, resilient, resourceful, reflective teachers who are supportive of one another. Regular reflection on one's practice and sharing the narratives are powerful ways to maintain that resilience. However, it would pay current teachers of languages to note that until such a time that the learning of additional languages is the norm, they will need to continue to advocate for the rights of all students to access quality additional languages programmes. This takes commitment, time, and the support of affinity groups such as language associations.

Primary teachers who speak more than one language and who are interested in sharing this language with their students should seek out teachers such as those represented in the case studies here to discover ways to incorporate languages in their classroom programme.

Aspiring teachers entering the teaching profession and those providing the initial teacher education programmes should be aware that the learning of additional languages may in the future become a compulsory part of the New Zealand Curriculum and the time to learn another language and its associated pedagogies is now.

Remember these words of advice from Helen:

You can't do languages as a curriculum area you have to do languages as a person. (Helen INT1)

References

- Aitken, G., Sinnema, C., & Meyer, F. (2013). *Initial teacher education outcomes: Standards for graduating teachers*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Alton-Lee, A. (2003). *Quality teaching for diverse students in schooling: Best evidence synthesis. Report to the Ministry of Education*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Angelo, T. (2009). Tokelau. In S. Levine (Ed.), *Pacific ways: Government and politics in the Pacific islands* (pp. 221-225). Wellington, NZ: Victoria University Press.
- Barnard, R. (2006, 2-5 July). *International languages in primary schools: Aims, constraints, and one way forward*. Paper presented at the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers Biennial International Conference, Auckland, NZ.
- Bassey, M. (1999). *Case study research in educational settings*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Batstone, R., & Ellis, R. (2009). Principled grammar teaching. *System*, 37, 194-204. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2008.09.006
- Berg, B. L. (2009). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bishop, R. (2003). Changing power relations in education: Kaupapa Māori messages for 'mainstream' education in Aotearoa/New Zealand. *Comparative Education*, 39(2), 221-238. doi: 10.1080/03050060302555
- Bishop, R., Berryman, M., Cavanagh, T., & Teddy, L. (2009). Te kotahitanga: Addressing educational disparities facing Māori students in New Zealand. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(5), 734-742. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2009.01.009
- Bochner, A. P. (2005). Interpretive and narrative. In J. L. Paul (Ed.), *Introduction to the philosophies of research and criticism in education and the social sciences* (pp. 65-67). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. London: Continuum.
- Britzman, D. (2003). *Practice makes practice: A critical study of learning to teach*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Brooks, L., & Scott, C. (2000). Teachers' professional self-concept. In S. Dinham, & C. Scott (Eds.), *Teaching in context* (pp. 36-55). Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.

- Brophy, J. (1999). *Teaching* (Vol. 1). Brussels and Geneva: International Academy of Education & International Bureau of Education, UNESCO.
- Brown, H. D. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle Road, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods* (4th ed.). Melbourne: Longman.
- Butler, D. L., Lauscher, H. N., Jarvis-Selinger, S., & Beckingham, B. (2004). Collaboration and self-regulation in teachers' professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(5), 435-455. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2004.04.003
- Byram, M. (2008). *From foreign language education to education for intercultural citizenship: Essays and reflections*. (Vol. 17). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M., Lapkin, S., Lo Bianco, J., Met, M., & Scott, A. (2010). Fremdsprachendidaktik in englischsprachigen Ländern. In W. Hallet, & F. Königs (Eds.), *Handbuch Fremdsprachendidaktik* (pp. 28-35). Seelze-Velber: Klett-Kallmeyer.
- Centre of Excellence for Research in Inclusive Education. (Ed.). (2013). *Inclusive education: Perspectives on professional practice*. Auckland, NZ: Dunmore Publishing.
- Charmaz, K. (2004). Grounded theory. In M. S. Lewis-Beck, A. Bryman, & T. F. Liao (Eds.), *The Sage encyclopedia of social science research methods* (pp. 441-445). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1987). Teachers' personal knowledge: What counts as 'personal' in studies of the personal. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(6), 487-500. doi: 10.1080/0022027870190602
- Cook, L. (1997). *Population characteristics (Census 96)*. Retrieved from [http://www2.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/pasfull/pasfull.nsf/web/Hot+Off+The+Press+Population+Characteristics+\(Census+96\)+1996+Census+of+Population+and+Dwellings?open](http://www2.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/pasfull/pasfull.nsf/web/Hot+Off+The+Press+Population+Characteristics+(Census+96)+1996+Census+of+Population+and+Dwellings?open)
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages*. Strasbourg: Cambridge University Press.
- Cowie, B., Hipkins, R., Boyd, S., Bull, A., Keown, P., McGee, C., . . . Yates, R. (2009). *Curriculum implementation exploratory studies: Report to the Ministry of Education*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/_data/assets/pdf_file/0008/57824/930_CI_ESS.pdf
- Crafton, L., & Kaiser, E. The language of collaboration: Dialogue and identity in teacher professional development. *Improving Schools*, 14(2), 104-116. doi: 10.1177/1365480211410437

- Creswell, J., & Plano Clark, V. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J., Plano Clark, V., & Garrett, A. (2008). Methodological issues in conducting mixed methods research designs. In M. M. Bergman (Ed.), *Advances in mixed methods research* (pp. 66-83). London: Sage Publications.
- Crichton, H., & Templeton, B. (2010). Curriculum for excellence: The way forward for primary languages in Scotland? *Language Learning Journal*, 38(2), 139-147. doi: 10.1080/09571731003790391
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Crows Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- Crozet, C., & Liddicoat, A. (2000). Teaching culture as an integrated part of language: Implications for the aims, approaches and pedagogies of language teaching. In A. Liddicoat, & C. Crozet (Eds.), *Teaching languages, teaching cultures* (pp. 1-18). Melbourne: Applied Linguistics Association of Australia.
- Daly, N. (2008). Not empty vessels: New Zealand pre-service additional language teacher identity. *Waikato Journal of Education*, 14, 5-13.
- Daly, N. (2010a). Context, content, and education: Six language teachers in a New Zealand primary school setting discuss their language teaching practice. *Babel*, 45(2/3), 51-58.
- Daly, N. (2010b). An evolving picture: First-year primary language teachers describe their work and the relevance of their language teacher education after six months. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 36, 39-46.
- Daly, N. (2012). Learning languages in New Zealand primary settings: Two case studies. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 38, 18-28.
- Danielewicz, J. (2001). *Teaching selves: Identity, pedagogy and teacher education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2001). Standard setting in teaching: Changes in licensing, certification, and assessment. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of research in teaching* (4 ed., pp. 751-776). Washington: American Educational Research Association.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.
- Deaf Aotearoa New Zealand. (n.d). *NZ Sign Language: Interesting facts*. Auckland, NZ. Retrieved from <http://www.deaf.co.nz/nz-sign-language/about-sign-language/interesting-facts>
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*. New York: Free Press.

- DfES. (2002). *Languages for all, languages for life: A strategy for England*. Nottingham, UK: Department for Education and Skills.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration and processing*. New York: Routledge.
- Dwyer, M., & Ryan, R. (2008). *Women and part-time work: A stocktake of recent research*. Wellington, NZ: National Advisory Council on the Employment of Women.
- East, M. (2007). Commentary: Learning languages in New Zealand: How successful can it be? *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 33, 7-10.
- East, M., & Scott, A. (2011). Assessing the foreign language proficiency of high school students in New Zealand: From the traditional to the innovative. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 8(2), 179-189. doi: 10.1080/15434303.2010.538779
- East, M., Shackelford, N., & Spence, G. (2007). Promoting a multilingual future for Aotearoa/New Zealand. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 17(1), 11-28. doi: 10.1075/japc.17.1.03eas
- Education Gazette. (2010). *Language resources find classroom favour*. Retrieved from <http://www.edgazette.govt.nz/articles/Article.aspx?ArticleId=8124>
- Ellis, R. (2000). What makes for successful second language learning? *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 26, 37-48.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2005). *Instructed second language acquisition: A literature review*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *Principles of instructed second language acquisition*. Retrieved from <http://www.cal.org/resources/Digest/instructed2ndlang.html>
- Ellis, R. (2013, 15 June). *Eleven principles of instructed language learning*. Paper presented at the Languages are Principle, Massey LangSem Conference, Napier, New Zealand.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Hacker, P. (2005). *Evaluation of the second language learning funding pool. (1999-2003)*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from <http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/curriculum/5783>
- Eraut, M. (2007). Learning from other people in the workplace. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(4), 403-422. doi: 10.1080/03054980701425706
- Erikson, E. (1973). What makes school ethnography 'ethnographic'? *Council on Anthropology and Education Newsletter*, 4(2), 10-19.
- Erlam, R. (2005). Maximising instructional effectiveness in the language classroom. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 31, 38-40, 50.

- Erlam, R. (2006). *Draft learning languages in the New Zealand curriculum: Implications for pedagogy and assessment*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from http://www.tki.org.nz/r/nzcurriculum/whats_happening/learn_language_e.php
- Erlam, R., & Sakui, K. (2006). *Instructed second language acquisition: Case studies*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- European Commission. (2012). *First European survey on language competences: Final report*. Brussels: European Commission.
- Ezzy, D. (2002). *Qualitative analysis: Practices and innovation*. London: Routledge.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Foreman-Peck, J. (2008). Costing Babel: The contribution of language skills to exporting and productivity. *Quarterly Economic Bulletin*, Julian Hodge Institute of Applied Macroeconomics.
- Franken, M., May, S., & McComish, J. (2008). *Pasifika languages research and guidelines project: Literature review*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Freeman, D. (1996). Redefining the relationship between research and what teachers know. In K. M. Bailey, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp. 88-115). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1992). *What's worth fighting for in your school? Working together for improvement*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press in association with the Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation.
- Gee, J. (1992). *The social mind: Language, ideology, and social practice*. New York: Bergin and Garvey.
- Gee, J. (1999). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method* (3rd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Gee, J. (2000). Identity as an analytic lens for research in education. *Review of Research in Education*, 25(2000-2001), 99-125. doi: 10.2307/1167322
- Gee, J. (2009). Reflections on reading Cope and Kalantzis' "Multiliteracies": New literacies, new learning". *Pedagogies: An International Journal*, 4, 196-204. doi: 10.1080/15544800903076077
- Gibbs, C. (2003). Explaining effective teaching: Self-efficacy and thought control of action. *Journal of Educational Enquiry*, 4(2), 1-14. <http://www.ojs.unisa.edu.au/index.php/EDEQ/index>
- Gibbs, C., & Holt, R. (2003). *The teaching of international languages in New Zealand schools in years 7 and 8. An evaluation study: Report to the Ministry of Education*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.

- Gillham, B. (2000). *Case study research methods*. London: Continuum.
- Glesne, C. (2005). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. Boston, MA: Pearson, Allyn and Bacon.
- Goodson, I. (1992). Sponsoring the teacher's voice: Teachers' lives and teacher development. In A. Hargreaves, & M. Fullan (Eds.), *Understanding teacher development* (pp. 110-121). London: Cassell.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255-274. doi: 10.3102/01623737011003255
- Guba, E. (Ed.). (1990). *The paradigm dialog*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Haddock, D. (1998a). *TESOLANZ professional standards project: Core competencies profile*. Wellington, NZ: TESOLANZ.
- Haddock, D. (1998b). *TESOLANZ professional standards project: Profile of the TESOL profession*. Wellington, NZ: TESOLANZ.
- Harbon, L., & Moloney, R. (Eds.). (2013). *Language teachers' narratives of practice*. Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Hargreaves, A. (1992). Cultures of teaching: A focus for change. In A. Hargreaves, & M. Fullan (Eds.), *Understanding teacher development* (pp. 216-240). London: Cassell.
- Hargreaves, A. (1994). *Changing teachers, changing times*. London: Cassell.
- Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. (2013). The power of professional capital. *Journal of Staff Development*, 34(3), 36-39.
- Harvey, S., Conway, C., Richards, H., & Roskvist, A. (2010). *Evaluation of teacher professional development languages (TPDL) in years 7-10 and the impact on language learning opportunities and outcomes for students: A report to the Ministry of Education*. Auckland, NZ: Auckland University of Technology.
- Hattie, J. (2003, October). *Teachers make a difference: What is the research evidence?* Paper presented at the Australian Council for Educational Research Annual Conference: Building Teacher Quality, Melbourne, VIC.
- Howard, J. (2012). Teaching and learning languages in New Zealand primary schools: Principals' perspectives. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 38, 29-38.
- Human Rights Commission. (2008). *Languages in Aotearoa: Statement on language policy*. Wellington, NZ: Human Rights Commission.
- Human Rights Commission. (2013). *A new era in the right to sign: Report of the New Zealand Sign Language inquiry*. Auckland, NZ: Human Rights Commission.

- International Olympic Committee. (2008). *The Beijing olympics*. Beijing. Retrieved from <http://en.beijing2008.cn/>
- Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(2), 112-133. doi: 10.1177/1558689806298224
- Jones, S., Torres, V., & Arminio, J. (2006). *Negotiating the complexities of qualitative research in higher education: Fundamental elements and issues*. New York: Routledge.
- Kleinhenz, E., & Ingvarson, L. (2007). *Standards for teaching: Theoretical underpinnings and applications*. Wellington, NZ: New Zealand Teachers Council.
- Kohler, M., Harbon, L., Fischmann, V., McLaughlin, M., & Liddicoat, A. J. (2006). Quality teaching: Views from the profession. *Babel, 40*(3), 23-30.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Kwakman, K. (2003). Factors affecting teachers' participation in professional learning activities. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19*(2), 149-170. doi: 10.1016/S0742-051X(02)00101-4
- Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (Eds.). (2008). *Sociocultural theory and the teaching of second languages*. London: Equinox.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Liddicoat, A. (2004). Intercultural language teaching: Principles for practice. *New Zealand Language Teacher, 30*, 17-23.
- Liddicoat, A. (2006). A review of the literature: Professional knowledge and standards for language teaching. *Babel, 40*(3), 7-22.
- Liddicoat, A. (2007). *Language choices in the intercultural classroom*. Retrieved from <http://www.iltlp.unisa.edu.au/papers.html>
- Lilly, A. (2001). *Critical factors in the teaching of Japanese in New Zealand in years 7 and 8* (Unpublished master's thesis, School of Language Studies, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand).
- Lo Bianco, J. (1987). *National policy on languages*. Canberra: The Australian Government Publishing Service.
- Lo Bianco, J. (2009). *Second languages and Australian schooling*. Melbourne, Vic: ACER Press.
- Māori Language Act. (1987). Wellington, NZ: Government Printer.

- Māori Language Commission. (n.d.). *Māori language commission: About us*. Retrieved from http://www.tetaurawhiri.govt.nz/english/about_e/
- May, S. (2011). The disciplinary constraints of SLA and TESOL: Additive bilingualism and second language acquisition, teaching and learning. *Linguistics and Education*, 22, 233-247.
- McCaffery, J., & McFall-McCaffery, J. T. (2010). O tatou o anga'i i fea/Okutauo ki fe? Where are we heading? Pacific languages in Aotearoa/New Zealand. *AlterNative*, 6(Special Pacific Edition), 86-121.
- McGee, A., Ashton, K., Dunn, K., & Taniwaki, T. (2013). *Japanese language education in New Zealand: An evaluative literature review of the decline in students since 2005*. Palmerston North, NZ: Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education. Retrieved from <http://www.sasakawa.co.nz/PDFs/Hot News/2013 JLE Literature Review.pdf>
- McLachlan, A. (2009). Modern languages in the primary curriculum: Are we creating conditions for success? *Language Learning Journal*, 2, 183-203. doi: 10.1080/09571730902928078
- McLauchlan, A. (2007). *The negative L2 climate: Understanding attrition among second language students*. Napier, NZ: Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education.
- McLeod, J., Brown, S., & Hapeta, J. (2011). A bicultural model, partnering settlers and indigenous communities: Examining the relationship between the principles of the *Treaty of Waitangi* and health and physical education. In S. Brown (Ed.), *Issues and controversies in physical education: Policy, power, and pedagogy* (pp. 3-13). Auckland, NZ: Pearson.
- Mead, H. (2003). *Tikanga Māori: Living by Māori values*. Wellington, NZ: Huia.
- Meadows, R. (2013, August 8). *Language barrier hurts exporters*. Retrieved from <http://www.stuff.co.nz/business/better-business/9015039/Language-barrier-hurts-exporters>
- Ministry for Culture and Heritage. (2013). *History of the Māori language: Te wiki o te reo Māori*. Retrieved from <http://www.nzhistory.net.nz/culture/maori-language-week/history-of-the-maori-language>
- Ministry of Business Innovation and Development. (2009). *Outbound travel by New Zealand residents*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Business Innovation and Development. Retrieved from <http://www.med.govt.nz/sectors-industries/tourism/pdf-docs-library/tourism-research-and-data/other-research-and-reports/tourism-sector-profiles/outbound-report.pdf>
- Ministry of Education. (1993). *The New Zealand curriculum framework: Te marautanga o Aotearoa*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (1994). *Education for the 21st century*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.

- Ministry of Education. (1995a). *Chinese in the New Zealand curriculum*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (1995b). *Spanish in the New Zealand curriculum*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (1996). *Samoan in the New Zealand curriculum*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (1998a). *Japanese in the New Zealand curriculum*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (1998b). *¡Sí! An introduction to Spanish*. Wellington, NZ: Wickliffe.
- Ministry of Education. (1998c). *Teacher census*. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/data_collections/teacher_census
- Ministry of Education. (2001). *Teacher census*. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/data_collections/teacher_census
- Ministry of Education. (2002a). Building professional capability: The literacy network. *Curriculum Update: He kōrero marautanga*, 50.
- Ministry of Education. (2002b). *Curriculum stocktake report to Minister of Education, September 2002*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2002c). *French in the New Zealand curriculum*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (2002d). *German in the New Zealand curriculum*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (2002e). Learning languages. *Curriculum Update: He kōrero marautanga*, 52.
- Ministry of Education. (2002f). *Learning languages: A guide for New Zealand schools*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (2002g). Ministry of Education professional development programmes in 2003. *Curriculum Update: He kōrero marautanga*, 51.
- Ministry of Education. (2003). *Language enhancing the achievement of Pasifika*. Retrieved from <http://leap.tki.org.nz/>
- Ministry of Education. (2004). *Teacher census*. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/data_collections/teacher_census
- Ministry of Education. (2005). *Making a bigger difference for all students: Hangaia he huarahi hei whakarewa ake i ngā tauira katoa: Schooling strategy 2005-2010*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education. (2007a). *Curriculum documents: The New Zealand curriculum*. Retrieved from <http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/Curriculum-documents/The-New-Zealand-Curriculum>
- Ministry of Education. (2007b). *The generic framework for teaching and learning languages in English-medium schools (wallchart)*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media. Retrieved from <http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/Curriculum-resources/NZC-resource-bank/Learning-languages/Key-resources>
- Ministry of Education. (2007c). *The New Zealand curriculum for English-medium teaching and learning in years 1-13*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (2008). *The New Zealand education system: An overview*. Wellington, NZ: The International Division, Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2009a). *Managing for success: The Māori education strategy, 2008-2012 (Updated 2009)*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2009b). *Te aho arataki marau mō te ako i Te Reo Māori - Kura Auraki: Curriculum guidelines for teaching and learning Te Reo Māori in English-medium schools: Years 1-13*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (2010a). *Learning languages funding pool*. Retrieved from http://www.tki.org.nz/r/language/funding_pool/2006_07_funding_e.html
- Ministry of Education. (2010b). *National standards*. Retrieved from <http://www.minedu.govt.nz/theMinistry/EducationInitiatives/NationalStandards.aspx>
- Ministry of Education. (2010c). *OECD review on evaluation and assessment frameworks for improving school outcomes: New Zealand country background report 2010*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2010d). *Te marautanga o Aotearoa*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education. (2012a). *Learning languages curriculum guide*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2012b). *Māori language in education*. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/statistics/maori_education/schooling/6040
- Ministry of Education. (2013a). *July school roll returns (2000-2013)*. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/statistics/schooling/july_school_roll_returns/6052
- Ministry of Education. (2013b). *Pasifika education*. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/topics/pasifika_education
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-a). *Eight education priorities*. Retrieved from <http://educationcounts.edcentre.govt.nz/themes/schooling/eight-priorities.html>

- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-b). *Language immersion opportunities*. Retrieved from <http://language-immersion.tki.org.nz>
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-c). *Learning languages series*. Retrieved from <http://learning-languages.tki.org.nz/Learning-Languages-in-the-NZ-Curriculum/Learning-Language-Series>
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-d). *Learning languages: Curriculum guides*. Retrieved from <http://learning-languages-guides.tki.org.nz/>
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-e). *New Zealand curriculum guides senior secondary: Learning languages*. Retrieved from <http://seniorsecondary.tki.org.nz/Learning-languages>
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-f). *Professional learning: Focus and priorities*. Retrieved from http://www.tki.org.nz/r/governance/prof_learn/focus_e.php
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-g). *Resources: Learning languages*. Retrieved from <http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/The-New-Zealand-Curriculum/Learning-areas/Learning-languages/Resources-Learning-languages>
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-h). *Te reo Māori in English-medium schools*. Retrieved from <http://tereomaori.tki.org.nz/>
- Ministry of Education. (n.d.-i). *Thumbs up! Introduction: Welcome to NZSL*. Retrieved from <http://nzsl.tki.org.nz/Introduction>
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade. (2013). *Pacific*. Retrieved from <http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Foreign-Relations/Pacific/index.php>
- Ministry of Justice, & Ministry of Pacific Island Affairs. (2000). *Pacific peoples' constitution report*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Pacific Island Affairs.
- National Equal Opportunities Network. (2012). *New Zealand census of women's participation*. Wellington, NZ: Human Rights Commission.
- National Equal Opportunities Network. (n.d.). *Framework for the future: EEO progress for women*. Retrieved from <http://www.neon.org.nz/eeogroups/eeoprogressforwomen/frameworkwomen/>
- New Zealand Association of Language Teachers. (1990). National languages-in-education policy in New Zealand. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 16(2/3), 17-20.
- New Zealand Association of Language Teachers. (2014). *Constitution and working rules: Our guiding documents*. Retrieved from <http://www.nzalt.org.nz/constitution-working-rules/>
- New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade. (n.d.). *New Zealand aid programme: Where we work - Tokelau*. Retrieved from <http://www.aid.govt.nz/where-we-work/pacific/tokelau>

- New Zealand Qualifications Authority. (2007). *The New Zealand register of quality assured qualifications*. Wellington, NZ: NZQA.
- New Zealand Sign Language Act. (2006). Wellington, NZ: Government Printer.
- New Zealand Teachers Council. (2004). *Code of ethics for registered teachers*. Retrieved from <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/content/code-ethics-registered-teachers-0>
- New Zealand Teachers Council. (2007). *Graduating teacher standards*. Retrieved from <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/education/gts/>
- New Zealand Teachers Council. (2009). *Registered teacher criteria*. Wellington, NZ: NZTC.
- New Zealand Teachers Council. (2011a). *Guidelines for induction and mentoring and mentor teachers*. Wellington, NZ: NZTC.
- New Zealand Teachers Council. (2011b). *Tātaiako: Cultural competencies for teachers of Māori learners*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- New Zealand Teachers Council. (2012). *Registration policy*. New Zealand Teachers Council. Retrieved from <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/required/regteachers.htm>
- Newton, J., Yates, E., Shearn, S., & Nowitzki, W. (2010). *Intercultural communicative language teaching: Implications for effective teaching and learning*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.
- Norton, B. (2010). Language and identity. In N. Hornberger, & S. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 349-369). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Nuthall, G. (2002). Social constructivist teaching and the shaping of students' knowledge and thinking. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Social constructivist teaching: Affordances and constraints* (pp. 43-79). Boston, MA: Elsevier.
- Nuthall, G. (2007). *The hidden lives of learners*. Wellington, NZ: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.
- Office for Standards in Education. (2009). *Improving primary teachers' subject knowledge across the curriculum*. London: Ofsted.
- Palmer, P. J. (2007). *The courage to teach: Exploring the inner landscape of a teacher's life. 10th anniversary edition*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Peddie, R. (2003). Languages in New Zealand: Population, politics and policy. In R. Barnard, & T. Glynn (Eds.), *Bilingual children's language and literacy development* (pp. 8-35). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

- Post Primary Teachers Association. (2013). *Professional learning and development*. Wellington, NZ: Post Primary Teachers Association.
- Rhodes, N., & Pufahl, I. (2009). *Foreign language teaching in U.S. schools: Results of a national survey. Executive summary*. Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics. Retrieved from <http://www.cal.org/projects/archive/flsurvey.html>
- Robertson, J. (2008, 6-9 July). *Implementation of the 'Learning Languages' learning area: Realities in three upper primary schools*. Paper presented at the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers International Biennial conference, Wellington, NZ.
- Rogoff, B. (1994). Developing understanding of the idea of communities of learners. *Mind, Culture, and Activity*, 1(4), 209-229. doi: 10.1080/10749039409524673
- Rogoff, B. (2003). *The cultural nature of human development*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Royal Commission on Social Policy. (1988). *The April report*. Wellington, NZ: Royal Commission on Social Policy.
- Scarino, A., & Liddicoat, A. (2009). *Teaching and learning languages: A guide*. Melbourne: Curriculum Corporation.
- Scott, A. (2008). Developing pedagogical content knowledge. In R. Bourke, A. Lawrence, A. McGee, J. O'Neill, & J. Curzon (Eds.), *Talk about learning: Working alongside teachers* (pp. 149-156). North Shore, NZ: Pearson Education New Zealand.
- Scott, A., & Butler, P. (2007a). *Evaluation of pilot programmes for effective teaching in languages, years 7 and 8: Final evaluation report*. Palmerston North, NZ: Massey University.
- Scott, A., & Butler, P. (2007b). 'My teacher is learning like us': Teachers and students as language learners. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 33, 11-16.
- Scott, A., & Butler, P. (2008). Motivation in language classrooms: Using the ten commandments as a framework. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 34, 48-53.
- Sewell, A. (2006). *Teachers and children learning together: Developing a community of learners in a primary classroom* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand).
- Shackleford, N. (1997). The case of the disappearing languages policy. *TESOLANZ Journal*, 5, 1-14.
- Sharples, P. (2006). Speech. *New Zealand Journal of Teachers' Work*, 3(1), 3-11.
- Shearn, S. (2003). *Attitudes to foreign language learning in New Zealand schools* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand).

- Smit, B., & Fritz, E. (2008). Understanding teacher identity from a symbolic interactionist perspective: Two ethnographic narratives. *South African Journal of Education*, 28, 91-101.
- Smith, H. (2004). *Attitudes of teacher educators in Aotearoa New Zealand towards bilingualism and language diversity* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand).
- Spence, G. (2004). The practice of policy in New Zealand. *Current issues in language planning*, 5(4), 389-406. doi: 10.1080/14664200408668265
- Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stake, R. (2003). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (2nd ed., pp. 134-164). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Statistics New Zealand. (1996). *1996 census data*. Retrieved from <http://www.stats.govt.nz/Census/1996-census-data.aspx>
- Statistics New Zealand. (2001). *2001 census data*. Retrieved from <http://www.statistics.govt.nz/Census/2001-census-data.aspx>
- Statistics New Zealand. (2006a). *2006 census data*. Retrieved from <http://www.stats.govt.nz/census/default.htm>
- Statistics New Zealand. (2006b). *QuickStats about culture and identity*. Retrieved from <http://www.stats.govt.nz/Census/2006CensusHomePage/QuickStats/quickstats-about-a-subject/culture-and-identity.aspx>
- Statistics New Zealand. (2012). *Profile of Tokelau Ata o Tokelau: 2011 Tokelau census of population and dwellings/ Tuhiga Igoa a Tokelau 2011 mo te faitau aofaki o agata ma na fale*. Wellington, NZ: Statistics New Zealand. Retrieved from http://www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/people_and_communities/pacific_peoples/2011-tokelau-census-landing-page/2011-tokelau-profile-report.aspx
- Statistics New Zealand. (2013a). *2013 census data: Ethnic group profiles*. Retrieved from http://www.stats.govt.nz/Census/2013-census/profile-and-summary-reports/ethnic-profiles.aspx?request_value=24706 - 24706
- Statistics New Zealand. (2013b). *2013 census data: Languages spoken*. Retrieved from <http://www.stats.govt.nz/Census/2013-census/info-about-2013-census-data/information-by-variable/language-spoken.aspx>
- Stoll, L., McKay, J., Kember, D., Cochrane-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. (n.d.). *Teachers as learners*. Retrieved from <http://www.educationalleaders.govt.nz/Pedagogy-and-assessment/Leading-professional-learning/Teachers-as-learners>
- Sudman, S., & Bradburn, N. (1982). *Asking questions*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Sunwolf, & Frey, L. (2001). Storytelling: The power of narrative communication and interpretation. In W. Robinson, & H. Giles (Eds.), *The new handbook of language and social psychology* (pp. 119-135). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Swain, P., & Ulu, A. (2010). *Rethinking Tokelau education policy: Tokelau and the role of New Zealand volunteers (July 2000-June 2010)*. Wellington, NZ: Volunteer Service Abroad.
- Te Puni Kōkiri. (2010). *Ngā waiaro atu ki te reo Māori: Attitudes toward the Māori language*. Wellington, NZ: Te Puni Kōkiri.
- The Cyclopedia Company Limited. (1903). *The cyclopedia of New Zealand [Canterbury Provincial District]: Mr. Gerrit Van Asch*. Retrieved from <http://nzetc.victoria.ac.nz/tm/scholarly/tei-Cyc03Cycl-t1-body1-d3-d19-d16.html>
- The Education Act. (1989). Wellington, NZ: Government Printer. Retrieved from <http://www.legislation.govt.nz/act/public/1989/0080/latest/whole.html> - DLM175961
- The Māori Language Commission. (2013). *Kōrero Māori: Tikanga Māori. Protocols overview*. Retrieved from <http://www.korero.maori.nz/forlearners/protocols>
- The Nuffield Languages Inquiry. (2000). *Languages: The next generation*. London: The Nuffield Foundation.
- The Royal Society of New Zealand. (2013). *Languages in Aotearoa New Zealand*. Wellington, NZ. Retrieved from <http://www.royalsociety.org.nz/expert-advice/information-papers/yr2013/languages-in-aotearoa-new-zealand/>
- The Treasury. (2012). *New Zealand economic and financial overview 2012. External sector: Principal trading partners*. Retrieved from <http://www.treasury.govt.nz/economy/overview/2012/22.htm>
- Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H., & Fung, I. (2007). *Teacher professional learning and development: Best evidence synthesis iteration (BES)*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Treaty of Waitangi Act. (1975). Wellington, NZ: Government Printer.
- UNESCO. (2008). *The international year of languages*. Retrieved from <http://www.unesco.kz/new/en/unesco/news/2128>
- Uniservices. (2013). *New Zealand TPD: Teacher professional development languages*. Auckland, NZ: Uniservices.
- University of Otago. (n.d.). *What does Pasifika mean?* Retrieved from <http://oil.otago.ac.nz/oil/module10/What-does-pasifika-mean-.html>
- Van Houten, J. (2012). Policy perspectives from the USA. In M. Byram, & L. Parmenter (Eds.), *The common European framework of reference: The*

- globalisation of language education policy* (pp. 159-168). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. Ontario, Canada: State University of New York Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.
- Waitangi Tribunal. (1989). *Report of the Waitangi tribunal on the te reo Māori claim: April 1986* (2nd ed.). Wellington, NZ: Department of Justice.
- Waitangi Tribunal. (2013). *About the tribunal*. Retrieved from <http://www.waitangi-tribunal.govt.nz/>
- Waite, J. (1992a). *Aotearoa: Speaking for ourselves. Part A: The overview*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Waite, J. (1992b). *Aotearoa: Speaking for ourselves. Part B: The issues*. Wellington, NZ: Ministry of Education.
- Watts, N. (1992). *The use of French in exporting and tourism: Report on surveys conducted into the use of French in exporting and tourism in New Zealand in 1992*. Palmerston North, NZ: Massey University.
- Watts, N., & Trlin, A. (1999). *Utilisation of immigrant language resources in international business, trade and tourism in New Zealand*. Palmerston North, NZ: Massey University.
- Webster-Wright, A. (2009). Reframing professional development through understanding authentic professional learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 79, 702-739. doi: 10.3102/0034654308330970
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- White, C. (2007). Innovation and identity in distance language learning and teaching. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 97-110. doi: 10.2167/illt45.0
- White, C., & Ding, A. (2009). Identity and the self in e-language teaching. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 333-349). Dublin, Ireland: Multilingual Matters.
- Willis, J. W. (Ed.). (2007). *Foundations of qualitative research: Interpretive and critical approaches*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. (2012). *Applications of case study research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Appendices

Appendix A: Phase One: Information sheet: Key stakeholders



SCHOOL OF CURRICULUM
AND PEDAGOGY
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
T 64 6 356 9099
F 64 6 351 3472
www.massey.ac.nz

Professional development for teachers of languages: Teacher self-efficacy and the impact on the implementation of the new learning area in New Zealand.

INFORMATION SHEET- Key Stakeholders

Introduction

In light of the recent introduction of the Learning Languages area in the New Zealand Curriculum for schools, a cross-sectional national survey of teachers of languages from year 1-13 will be conducted to determine their prior level of education, professional development experience, current professional development opportunities as well as their own efficacy beliefs about teaching languages. In order to ensure that the survey questions elicit appropriate information about the nature of language teaching in New Zealand schools, key stakeholders will be interviewed. The interviewer will be Adèle Scott, PhD Student at Massey University College of Education, Palmerston North.

Participant Recruitment

You have been chosen because of your experience in the area of second language learning and teaching and because of your current role as a leader in this field.

A representative from each of the following groups will be interviewed: the Ministry of Education, Year 1-6 teachers, Year 7-8 teachers, Year 9-13 teachers, the writing group for the 'Learning Languages learning area, School Support Services Regional Learning Languages Advisors and the NZ Association of Language Teachers.

Project Procedures

- The information gathered will be used to help develop the questions for the national survey of teachers of languages.*
- Your responses to the interview questions will only be used by Adèle for her University study. All data will be kept for five (5) years after the completion of the PhD. It will be stored in a secure place.*
- Findings from this study could also appear in relevant conference publications and journals.*
- A culture of confidentiality will be promoted in the interview and anonymity and confidentiality of all participants will be preserved in any publications.*
- On completion of this study a summary of the findings will be made available to participants on request.*

Participant involvement

- 1. You will be invited to trial an online questionnaire that will take about 20 minutes to complete. You will be asked to complete this questionnaire no more than two days before the interview.*
- 2. You will then be invited to participate in a 10-15 minute phone interview which will examine the appropriateness of the questions for wider dissemination. The interview will take place in late July 2008 at a time and place convenient to both you and the researcher.*

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any particular question;*
- withdraw from the study at any time during participation;*
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;*
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;*
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.*
- ask for the digital audio recording to be turned off at any time during the interview.*

Project Contacts

Please do not hesitate to contact Adèle and/or one of her supervisors if you have any questions about the project.

Researcher

*Adèle Scott PhD Student at Massey University College of Education, Palmerston North
Email a.j.scott@massey.ac.nz Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 8990*

Supervisors

*Professor Cynthia White College of Humanities, School of Language Studies.
Email c.j.white@massey.ac.nz Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 7711*

*Dr. Lone Jorgensen College of Education, School of Curriculum and Pedagogy.
Email l.m.jorgensen@massey.ac.nz Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 8702*

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 08/15. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 04 801 5799 x 6929, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix B: Phase One: Interview schedule: Key stakeholders

**Professional development for teachers of languages:
Teacher self-efficacy and the impact on the implementation of the new learning area in New Zealand.
Interview Schedule - Key Stakeholder**

The Key Stakeholders have been chosen because of their experience in the area of second language learning and teaching and because of their current role as a leader in this field. They will include a representative from each of the following groups: the Ministry of Education, Year 1-6 teachers, Year 7-8 teachers, Year 9-13 teachers, the writing group for the 'Learning Languages learning area, School Support Services Regional Learning Languages Advisors and the NZ Association of Language Teachers.

The Key Stakeholders will be interviewed individually and will be asked about the suitability of the proposed questions for the **National Online Language Teachers' Survey**. The feedback from these interviews will be used to improve the survey before it is used.

Name:
Position:
Location:
Date:

The National Online Language Teachers' Survey	
Category	Aspect
General	<p>Information about the survey</p> <p>Definition of 'second language'</p> <p>School background (Q1-5)</p> <p>About You (Q6-9)</p> <p>Your Teaching Career (Q10-16)</p>
	<p>Feedback on suitability of the questions asked in the draft version of the National Online Language Teachers' Survey</p> <p>Suggestions for alterations to wording / Ambiguous terms used / Anything missing?</p>

	You as a Language(s) Teacher (Q17-18)	
	Sector specific questions (Q25-27)	
	Language Teaching Experience (Q28)	
	Classroom Practice (Q29)	
	Length of time to complete online survey	
	Comments on accessibility of questions to the participant – especially in relation Te Tiriti o Waitangi considerations Comments on layout /technical issues	

Appendix C: Phase One: Consent form: Key stakeholders



SCHOOL OF CURRICULUM
AND PEDAGOGY
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
T 64 6 356 9099
F 64 6 351 3472
www.massey.ac.nz

Professional development for teachers of languages: Teacher self-efficacy and the impact on the implementation of the new learning area in New Zealand.

CONSENT FORM – Key Stakeholders

This consent form will be held for a period of five (5) years after completion of the research

I have read the Information Sheet for Key Stakeholders and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

Please circle as appropriate:

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Full Name - printed _____

Appendix D: Phase Two: Advertisement: Invitation to participate in NOLT08 survey

Advertising for NOLT08 survey

Education Gazette online

The screenshot shows the Education Gazette website interface. At the top, it displays 'Education Gazette New Zealand', 'Volume 87 Number 13 28 July 2008', and a search bar. The main navigation menu includes Home, Articles, Vacancies, Notices, Calendar, About us, Subscribe, and Submit. The 'Notices' section is active, showing a search box and a 'Submit a notice' button. The main content area features a 'Teacher interest' section with the title 'Language Teachers' Online Survey'. The text invites second language teachers to participate in a survey to examine the nature of second language teaching in NZ schools. It states the survey will be available from Friday 8 August at <http://www.nzait.org.nz>. The survey is part of a PhD research project by Adele Scott of Massey University College of Education. A 'Back to top' link is provided. The footer includes 'About Us - Conditions of Use - Contact Us' and 'Copyright © New Zealand Ministry of Education'. On the right side, there are several sidebar links: 'Vacancies' (737 listed), 'Official Notices', 'Principal View', 'Principal View (pdf)', 'Info for Schools (pdf)', and 'Board View'.

Hardcopy advertisement for Education Gazette, Education Review

**National Language Teachers' Survey
Invitation to participate**

ALL teachers currently teaching a second language at any level (Years 1-13) are invited to participate in a research project that will examine the nature of second language teaching in New Zealand schools.

The online survey will be available from Friday 8 August, 2008 at <http://www.nzait.org.nz>. Participants will be asked to provide information about their qualifications, language learning and teaching experiences.

The research project is being conducted by Adèle Scott as part of her PhD requirements. Adèle is a Senior Lecturer at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, College of Education, Massey University, Palmerston North; Phone (06) 351 3390 or email a.j.scott@massey.ac.nz

 **Massey University**

Te Kōwhiri
Ki Pōwhiri

Language teachers invited to join online survey

Language teachers are being given a chance to take part in a Massey University online survey designed to find out what makes them tick.

The first of its kind, it is being run by senior lecturer Adele Scott in a bid to find out about the people teaching languages in our schools. As part of her PhD on professional development for teachers of languages, she hopes the data collected will help inform current and future initiatives for this new learning area.

"The ministry is of course keen to

see this learning area succeed but is cautious about making the learning of second languages compulsory," said Adele.

"Without the data on who is in the sector at this point in time, it is difficult to determine where the needs might be. The new learning area will certainly pose some challenges for schools, but there is definitely a lot to gain from its inclusion in the curriculum."

All teachers currently teaching a second language (other than ESOL) at any level are invited to participate in the research. They will be asked

to provide information about their qualifications, language learning and teaching experiences.

The data will be gathered in two stages. First, all participants will be asked to complete the online survey to provide an initial set of information about their background and experience. Results from this survey will create the framework for the second stage, which will involve a limited number of case study interviews and will take about 20 to 25 minutes.

The survey is available at <http://www.nzalt.org.nz>.

Postcard

National Online Language Teachers' Survey
Invitation to participate

ALL teachers currently teaching a second language (other than ESOL) at any level (Years 1-13) are invited to participate in a research project that will examine the nature of second language teaching in New Zealand schools.

The online survey will be available at:
<http://www.nzalt.org.nz> on Friday 8 August, 2008 and must be completed by Monday 1 September, 2008.

Deadline Extended!

Massey University
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
Te Kōwhiri o Te Mātauranga

He taonga ngā reo katoa:
All languages are to be treasured.

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Adele Scott is a Senior Lecturer at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, College of Education, Massey University. The research project is being conducted as part of her requirement to complete her PhD.

The data will be gathered in two stages. First, participants will be asked to complete an online survey to provide an initial set of information about their background - qualifications, language learning experiences and teaching experience. Results from this will inform the framework for the second stage, which will involve a limited number of case study interviews.

The online survey will be available at <http://www.nzalt.org.nz> on Friday 8 August 2008.

Completion of the survey is required before Monday 1 September 2008. On completion of the survey, participants will have the option to enter a draw for languages prizes. The contact information supplied for this draw will not be used in the analysis of responses to the survey questions.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, Southern B, Application 08/15. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee, Southern B, phone (04) 801 5799, ext 6929 or email humaneithicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

For more information, contact Adele Scott, phone (06) 351 3390 or email a.j.scott@massey.ac.nz

Appendix E: Phase Two: Information for respondents: From NOLT08 survey

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Welcome

KIA ORA	KIA ORANA	
HOLA	TALOFA LAVA	GUTEN TAG
TALOHA NI	MALO E LELEI	
你好	FAKALOFA LAHI ATU	SALVE
こんにちは	BONJOUR	

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey. The next two pages will inform you about the purpose of the research and give information about your rights as a participant.

The survey itself will take 20-25 minutes to complete.

Information about this Survey - Teacher Participants

Introduction

This survey is being conducted by **Adèle Scott** as part of her PhD: ***Professional development for teachers of languages: Teacher self-efficacy and the impact on the implementation of the new learning area in New Zealand.***

Adèle is also a Senior Lecturer at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, College of Education, Massey University.

Teachers who are currently teaching a second language (other than ESOL) at any year level (1-13) who are interested in providing information about their background - qualifications, language learning experiences, teaching experience - have been invited to participate in this research project. The research will examine the nature of second language teaching in New Zealand schools.

The data will be gathered in two stages. First, all participants will be asked to complete this online survey to provide an initial set of information about their background and experience. Results from this survey will inform the framework for the second stage, which will involve a limited number of case study interviews.

This online survey will be open from 12:00am 08/08/2008.

Participant Recruitment

You have been invited to participate because you are teaching a second language in a New Zealand school. A second language is defined as any language other than the language of instruction. In this case, it does not include ESOL.

Project Procedures

- The information gathered will be used to determine the current situation regarding the second language teaching community in New Zealand schools.
- Your responses to the survey questions will only be used by Adèle for her University study. All data will be kept securely for five (5) years after the completion of the PhD. It will be stored in a secure place and will be password-protected. The data will be archived at the end of the study in a form that will not identify any of the participants and will become part of a longitudinal database for future comparisons of the language teaching profession.
- Although you will be asked for information about your school, individual participants will not be identified. All attempts will be taken to ensure that the anonymity and confidentiality of all participants and schools will be preserved in any publications arising from the research. If you do choose to identify your school it will be automatically entered into a draw for some languages prizes.
- A summary of the survey findings will be made available to participants on www.nzalt.org.nz in 2009. Findings from the survey could also appear in relevant conference publications and journals. Findings from the

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

completed study will not be made available until 2012.

Participant Involvement

- Completion of the survey implies informed consent and that you have read and agreed to the conditions set out here.
- This online survey will take about 20-25 minutes to complete.

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation to participate. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any particular question;
- withdraw from the study at any time during participation, without explanation;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your school name will not be used;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts

Please do not hesitate to contact Adèle and/or one of her supervisors if you have any questions about the project.

See next page for contact details

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Contact Details

Researcher

Adèle Scott, PhD Student at Massey University College of Education, Palmerston North.
Email a.j.scott@massey.ac.nz
Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 8990

Supervisors

Professor Cynthia White, Massey University College of Humanities, School of Language Studies.
Email c.j.white@massey.ac.nz
Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 7711

Dr. Lone Jorgensen, Head of School, Massey University College of Education, School of Curriculum and Pedagogy.

Email l.m.jorgensen@massey.ac.nz
Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 8702

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 08/15. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 04 801 5799 x 6929, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix F: National Online Language Teachers' survey

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Definition of 'Second Language'

Please keep in mind the following as you complete this survey:

Second Language: Any language learned after acquiring the first language as a child. The term 'second language' may, in fact, encompass a third, fourth, or fifth language as additional languages are learned. (Ministry of Education, 2002)

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

School Background

Please respond as requested

1. School name:

2. School type:

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| <input type="radio"/> Contributing Primary (Y0-6) | <input type="radio"/> Kura Kaupapa Māori | <input type="radio"/> Wharekura |
| <input type="radio"/> Full Primary (Y0-8) | <input type="radio"/> Secondary (Y7-13) | <input type="radio"/> Area School (Y0-13) |
| <input type="radio"/> Intermediate/Middle School | <input type="radio"/> Secondary (Y9-13) | <input type="radio"/> Special School |
| <input type="radio"/> Other (please specify) | | |

3. School decile:

4. School size:

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="radio"/> 7-50 students | <input type="radio"/> 301-500 students | <input type="radio"/> 1601-2000 students |
| <input type="radio"/> 51-100 students | <input type="radio"/> 501-850 students | <input type="radio"/> 2001+ students |
| <input type="radio"/> 101-150 students | <input type="radio"/> 851-1200 students | |
| <input type="radio"/> 151-300 students | <input type="radio"/> 1201-1600 students | |

5. Region:

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| <input type="radio"/> Northland | <input type="radio"/> Hawkes Bay | <input type="radio"/> Nelson-Malborough |
| <input type="radio"/> Auckland | <input type="radio"/> Taranaki | <input type="radio"/> West Coast |
| <input type="radio"/> Waikato | <input type="radio"/> Manawatu-Wanganui | <input type="radio"/> Canterbury |
| <input type="radio"/> Bay of Plenty | <input type="radio"/> Wairarapa | <input type="radio"/> Otago |
| <input type="radio"/> Gisborne | <input type="radio"/> Wellington | <input type="radio"/> Southland |

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

About You

6. Your ethnicity (please select as many as apply):

- | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> NZ Māori | <input type="checkbox"/> Tongan | <input type="checkbox"/> Chinese |
| <input type="checkbox"/> NZ European/Pakeha | <input type="checkbox"/> Niuean | <input type="checkbox"/> Indian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Samoan | <input type="checkbox"/> Tokelauan | <input type="checkbox"/> South East Asian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cook Islands Māori | <input type="checkbox"/> Fijian | <input type="checkbox"/> Japanese |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please state) | | |

7. Your gender:

- Male
- Female

8. Your age:

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> 20-24 years | <input type="radio"/> 35-39 years | <input type="radio"/> 50-54 years |
| <input type="radio"/> 25-29 years | <input type="radio"/> 40-44 years | <input type="radio"/> 55-59 years |
| <input type="radio"/> 30-34 years | <input type="radio"/> 45-49 years | <input type="radio"/> 60+ years |

9. What is your mother tongue/first language?

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Your Teaching Career

10. Your current position (*please select ONE response*):

- Principal
- Teaching Principal
- Assistant/Deputy/Associate Principal
- Head of Department/Head of Syndicate/Dean
- Assistant HOD/HOS
- Classroom Teacher
- Teacher Aide
- Language teacher from outside the school
- Language teacher assistant
- Other (please specify)

11. How long have you been teaching? *Please state number of years - count ALL years teaching (not just teaching languages), regardless of whether you worked part-time or full-time. Do NOT count time you were on study leave or unpaid leave:*

12. What is your highest qualification in TEACHING?

- No teaching qualification
- Certificate
- Diploma/Graduate Diploma
- Degree
- Honours Degree
- Postgraduate Diploma
- Masters Degree
- Doctorate
- Other (please specify)

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

13. What is your highest TERTIARY qualification that is not a teaching qualification?

- No other tertiary qualification
- Certificate
- Diploma/Graduate Diploma
- Degree
- Honours Degree
- Postgraduate Diploma
- Masters Degree
- Doctorate
- Other (please specify)

14. Teacher registration in New Zealand – are you:

- Fully registered
- Registered subject to confirmation
- Provisionally registered
- Not registered but have Limited Authority to Teach (LAT)
- None of these

15. What led you to teach languages? (*Please select ONE response*)

- Personal choice
- I applied for a teaching position that included teaching languages
- I was assigned or required to teach languages
- Other (please specify)

16. What are your aspirations for the next five years? (*Please select ONE response*)

- Stay in teaching
- Have a career break and then go back to teaching
- Leave teaching
- Other (please specify)

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

You as a Language(s) Teacher

17. What language(s) are you TEACHING in 2008, and at which level(s)? (Please select as many as apply)

	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5	Y6	Y7	Y8	Y9	Y10	Y11	Y12	Y13
Te Reo Māori	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
New Zealand Sign Language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Samoan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other Pacific languages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Chinese	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
German	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Japanese	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Latin	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Spanish	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other language(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

If other, please specify:

18. Have you been a participant in any of the following one-year professional learning programmes? (Please select ONE response)

- No.
- Yes. Christchurch, 2006 (available Christchurch & Nelson): Teacher Professional Development in Languages - Japanese & French Years 7 & 8
- Yes. Auckland, 2005 (available Auckland & Northland): Teacher Professional Development in Languages - German & Spanish Years 7 & 8
- Yes. Auckland, 2006 (available Auckland & Northland): Teacher Professional Development in Languages - German & Spanish Years 7 & 8
- Yes. Auckland, 2007 (available nationally): Teacher Professional Development in Languages - Chinese, French, German, Japanese & Spanish Years 7 & 8
- Yes. Auckland, 2008 (available nationally): Teacher Professional Development in Languages - Chinese, French, German, Japanese & Spanish Years 7-10

19. Have you taught second language(s) (including English as an additional language) outside New Zealand?

- Yes No

If YES, please specify which LANGUAGE(S), for how many YEARS, and in which COUNTRY(IES):

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Your Language of Choice

For the following section please respond in relation to the ONE language you teach most often in 2008.

20. What is the ONE language you teach most often in 2008?

- Te Reo Māori
- New Zealand Sign Language
- Samoan
- Chinese
- French
- German
- Japanese
- Latin
- Spanish
- Other (please specify)

21. How did you LEARN the language identified in Question 20? (Please select as many as apply)

- Already a speaker
- In-country experience
- Personal independent study
- Studied at high school as a secondary student
- Attended night courses
- University study
- Other (please specify)

22. What qualification(s) do you have in the language identified in Question 20?

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Your Language Learning

23. Which of the following language(s) have you learnt before today? Rate your ability in each language from 1-5.

1. No knowledge of this language

2. Beginner/emerging – e.g. I can understand and use basic greetings and expressions

3. Intermediate/survival – e.g. I can cope with daily conversations on familiar topics

4. Social competency – e.g. I can cope with a wide range of topics sometimes in new contexts

5. Personal independence – e.g. near native/native fluency

	1	2	3	4	5
Te Reo Māori	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
New Zealand Sign Language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Samoan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cook Island Māori	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tongan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Niuean	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tokelauan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mandarin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cantonese	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
French	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
German	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Japanese	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Latin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spanish	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

If other, please specify:

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

24. What PROFESSIONAL LEARNING opportunities have you had in second language teaching methodology and pedagogy? (Please select as many as apply in relation to ANY of the languages identified in Question 23)

- None
- One-day courses
- In-school support from languages adviser or equivalent
- Personal independent study
- Part of a Ministry-funded programme
- In-country courses
- University study - single papers
- Other (please specify)

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Official Languages of New Zealand

Te Reo Māori and New Zealand Sign Language are official languages of New Zealand. Please complete the following questions about Te Reo Māori and New Zealand Sign Language in your school.

25. How is Te Reo Māori taught at your school? *(Please select as many as apply)*

- Not taught
- Taught as the language of instruction across all learning areas
- Taught as a first language
- Taught as a second language

Comment here on how **Te Reo Māori me ngā tikanga** is integrated into the life of the school:

26. How is New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL) taught at your school? *(Please select as many as apply)*

- Not taught
- Taught as the language of instruction across all learning areas
- Taught as a first language
- Taught as a second language

Comment here on how **NZSL** is integrated into the life of the school:

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Sector Specific Questions

Please answer **Questions 27 and 28** if you are teaching in the **secondary sector** in 2008 (Year 9 and up).

Please answer **Questions 29 and 30** if you are teaching in the **primary sector** in 2008 (Year 8 and below).

Please complete **ALL four questions** if you are teaching across **both primary and secondary sectors** in 2008.

NB:

- **MODE** refers to whether you teach languages to your own class or to someone else's class
- Please take care with the drop down menus!

27. SECONDARY TEACHERS ONLY: If you currently teach Year 9-13 students in subject areas other than languages, what subject(s) do you teach? (Please leave blank if you do not teach Year 9-13 students)

- No other subject
- Arts
- Commerce
- English (including ESOL)
- Health and Physical Well-Being
- Mathematics
- Sciences
- Social Sciences
- Technology
- Other (please specify)

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

28. SECONDARY TEACHERS ONLY: How do you teach second languages to Year 9-13 students? Please respond for each class or group in which you teach languages (please leave blank if you do not teach Year 9-13 students).

For multi-year level classes, please select the younger year level and use the comment box to explain fully.

	Year level	Language taught	Number of teaching sessions per week	Length of teaching session	Number of weeks of instruction in a year	Number of students in class	Mode
Class 1	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 3	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 4	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 5	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 6	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

Please use the comment box to explain multi-level teaching or other arrangements for classes listed:

29. PRIMARY and INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS ONLY: If you currently teach Year 0-8 students, what year level(s) do you teach? (Please leave blank if you do not teach Year 0-8 students)

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Year 0 | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 3 | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 6 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Year 1 | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 4 | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 7 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Year 2 | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 8 |

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

30. PRIMARY and INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS ONLY: How do you teach second languages to Year 0-8 students? Please respond for each class or group in which you teach languages (please leave blank if you do not teach Year 0-8 students).

For multi-year level classes, please select the younger year level and use the comment box to explain fully.

	Year level	Language taught	Number of teaching sessions per week	Length of teaching session	Number of weeks of instruction in a year	Number of students in class	Mode
Class 1	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 3	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 4	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 5	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Class 6	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

Please use the comment box to explain multi-level teaching or other arrangements for classes listed:

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Student Learning

31. Please nominate ONE class from the previous section (Question 28 and/or Question 30) that you will refer to for Question 32, regarding student learning:

Q28 (secondary) or Q30 (primary/intermediate)?

Class 1,2,3,4,5 or 6 from Q28 or Q30:

32. Please indicate your perceptions of how many students in this class are achieving the following:

	Few or none of the students	Less than half of the students	Half of the students	More than half of the students	Most of the students
a. My students use the target language in the classroom frequently	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. My students use the target language outside the language lesson time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. My students initiate communication in the target language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. My students are confident participating in the target language classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. My students are willing to take part in the language activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. My students are curious about language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. My students are able to talk about their language learning experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. My students are willing to explore the target language through reading and writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i. My students communicate with each other in the target language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j. My students are engaged in the lessons	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k. My students ask spontaneous questions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l. My students are able to talk about how they learn the target language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Language Teaching Experience

33. What languages have you taught (at this and other schools) and for how many years? (Please select ONE response per row)

	Not taught	0-1 year	1-2 years	2-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-25 years	26-30 years	31-35 years	More than 35 years
Te Reo Māori	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
New Zealand Sign Language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Samoan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other Pacific languages	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chinese	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
French	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
German	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Japanese	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Latin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spanish	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other language(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please comment:

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Knowledge and Skill in Second Language Teaching and Learning

34. At this point in time, please rate your level of knowledge and skill to:

	Little knowledge and/or skill	Know of this, but not ready to put into practice	Familiar with and use sometimes	An integral part of my teaching and learning
a. Talk to students about their language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Adapt and develop resources that motivate student language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. Use a variety of language learning strategies and activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. Explain language and cultural features specific to the target language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Plan for diversity and different needs of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. Incorporate <i>listening and speaking</i> activities into my lessons	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. Incorporate <i>reading and writing</i> activities into my lessons	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. Incorporate <i>viewing and presenting</i> activities into my lessons	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i. Discuss how students learn an additional language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j. Plan next learning steps based on student needs and progress	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k. Foster explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l. Give meaningful feedback to students on their language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
m. Discuss second language acquisition (SLA) and teaching methodologies with colleagues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
n. Reflect on the effectiveness of the SLA and teaching methodologies that I use	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
o. Apply SLA methodology when assessing students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
p. Apply SLA methodology when developing resources	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
q. Use evidence-based SLA methodology	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

35. What gaps in your knowledge and skills do you want to address in the next 12 months?

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Language Teaching Strategies

36. To what extent do your language lessons focus on the following:

	All the time	Often	Seldom	Not at all
a. Revising previous work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Checking homework	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. Pronunciation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. Using the language for basic classroom interactions (including management)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Communicative tasks, which involve genuine exchanges of meaning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. Setting clear, achievable learning goals with the students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. Grammar explanations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. Vocabulary input and practice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i. Using a dictionary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j. Discussing cultural beliefs and behaviours	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k. Using ICT to support language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l. Using games and songs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
m. Listening to audio recordings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
n. Communicative fluency	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
o. Grammatical accuracy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
p. Correcting student work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
q. Giving feedback to students on their progress	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
r. Setting homework	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please comment as appropriate:

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Decisions about Second Language Learning and Teaching

37. At this point in time, please indicate how often the following occurs:

	All the time	Often	Seldom	Not at all
a. I ensure that students have access to learning languages in my school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I plan for my own professional learning for languages	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I select languages professional learning opportunities based on my own needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I select languages professional learning opportunities based on my students' needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Other people choose my languages professional learning opportunities for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I reflect on my own professional learning for languages	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. I work with others when planning language lessons	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. I use resources aligned to the target language curriculum guidelines	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i. I plan language lessons from the New Zealand Curriculum (2007)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j. My learning about languages contributes to student confidence, motivation and communicative competence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k. I seek feedback on my language teaching	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l. I have opportunities to see good languages teaching practice in action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
m. I use second language research and professional journals to inform my practice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
n. I ensure that students have opportunities to be successful in the target language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
o. I have an impact on school-wide practice and policies that support second language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Please comment as appropriate:

National Online Language Teachers' Survey

Any further comments

38. Do you have any further comments about your language teaching and learning?

39. Would you like to be involved in the second stage of this research which will involve a limited number of case study interviews in 2009?

NB: interviews will be about 40 minutes long.

Yes

No

If yes please provide a current email address

Appendix G: Phase Three: Information sheet: Case study participants



SCHOOL OF CURRICULUM
AND PEDAGOGY
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
T 64 6 356 9099
F 64 6 351 3472
www.massey.ac.nz

Effective professional learning for teachers of languages: What it means to teach languages in instructed settings in New Zealand schools.

INFORMATION SHEET- Teacher Participants (Interview)

Introduction

A cross-sectional national survey has been conducted to determine the current language learning and teaching experiences of teachers of languages from year 1-13 in New Zealand schools. Various themes have arisen from the data and in-depth interviews with a few teachers will now take place focusing mainly on the decisions they make as a teacher and learner of languages. *The interviewer will be Adèle Scott, PhD Student at Massey University College of Education, Palmerston North.*

Participant Recruitment

You have been invited to participate because you are teaching (target language) in a New Zealand school and you have previously indicated a willingness to be involved in the next stage of data collection for this project. Four teachers will be involved in this stage to enable a range of experiences to be collected.

Project Procedures

- *The information gathered will be used to explore the themes that have arisen from the national survey in more depth.*
- *Your responses to the interview questions and your personal written and/or audio reflections will only be used by Adèle for her University study. All data will be kept securely for five (5) years after the completion of the PhD. It will be stored in a secure place and be password-protected. The data will be archived at the end of the study in a form that will not identify any of the participants and will become part of a longitudinal database for future comparisons of the language teaching profession.*
- *Findings from this study could also appear in relevant conference publications and journals.*
- *Anonymity and confidentiality of all participants will be preserved in any publications.*
- *On completion of this study a summary of the findings will be made available to participants on request.*

Participant involvement

You will be invited to participate in two 30—45 minute interviews. The interviews will take place in term one and two 2010 at a time and place convenient to both you and the researcher. During the time between the two interviews you will be invited to record your thoughts about the decisions you make as a language learner and teacher. The frequency and nature of these recordings will be negotiated with you at the first interview and may range from daily 'entries' (to a blog / electronic document / Googledoc) to contact with the researcher (via Skype /email / text). This would be for up to 30 minutes per week.

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- *decline to answer any particular question;*
- *withdraw from the study at any time during participation;*

- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.
- ask for the digital audio recording to be turned off at any time during the interviews.

Project Contacts

Please do not hesitate to contact Adèle and/or one of her supervisors if you have any questions about the project.

Researcher

Adèle Scott PhD Student at Massey University College of Education, Palmerston North
Email a.j.scott@massey.ac.nz Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 8990

Supervisors

Professor Cynthia White College of Humanities, School of Language Studies.

Email c.j.white@massey.ac.nz Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 7711

Dr. Lone Jorgensen College of Education, School of Curriculum and Pedagogy.

Email l.m.jorgensen@massey.ac.nz Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 8702

Dr. France Grenaudier-Klijn College of Humanities, School of Language Studies.

Email f.grenaudier-klijn@massey.ac.nz Phone: (06) 3569099 ext 7795

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 09/72. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone: 04 801 5799 x 6929. Email: humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix H: Phase Three: Interview schedule: Case study participants

**Effective professional learning for teachers of languages:
What it means to teach languages in instructed settings in New Zealand schools.
Interview Schedule – Teacher Participants**

The participants in these individual interviews have self-selected to participate in an in-depth case study.

Name:
Position:
Location:
Date:

Possible questions – the National Online Language Teachers' Survey will generate further questions	
<p>General Background questions</p>	<p>Language Learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prior learning experiences of Japanese (Spanish) and other languages • Time spent in Japan (Spanish-speaking country) <p>Language Teaching</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Levels taught • Types of schools • Types of programmes <p>Professional Development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generic programmes /courses attended • What they see as important in a professional learning programme • How they make use of learning from professional development
<p>Specific to Language Teaching and Learning</p>	<p>Language Learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do they measure their own proficiency? • What motivated them to learn Japanese (Spanish)? • How do they learn best? • What helps/hinders their ability to increase their knowledge of Japanese (Spanish)?

	<p>Language Teaching</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the main pedagogies/methodologies they know about/ use in the classroom when teaching languages • What works well/ not so well? • How do they measure their success as a teacher of Japanese (Spanish)? <p>Perceived needs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What has helped/hindered their professional development in the past? • What are their needs for professional learning for Japanese (Spanish)? • How might they address some of those needs?
<p>Decision Making</p>	<p>Where do you seek support from for your teaching and learning of languages? Who do you contact when you have a query about your language learning or teaching? How often do you have contact? What benefit to you gain from this contact?</p>

Appendix I: Phase Three: Consent form, interviews and audio recording: Case study participants



Massey University
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
Te Kupenga o Te Mātauranga

SCHOOL OF CURRICULUM
AND PEDAGOGY
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
T 64 6 356 9099
F 64 6 351 3472
www.massey.ac.nz

Professional development for teachers of languages: Teacher self-efficacy and the impact on the implementation of the new learning area in New Zealand.

CONSENT FORM -TEACHERS

This consent form will be held for a period of five (5) years after completion of the research

I have read the Information Sheet for Teachers and have had the details of the study explained to me.
My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions
at any time.

Please circle as appropriate:

I agree / do not agree to the interview being audio recorded.

I wish / do not wish to have the audio recordings returned to me

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature: **Date:**

Full Name - printed

Appendix J: Phase Three: Authority for release of transcripts: Case study participants



SCHOOL OF CURRICULUM
AND PEDAGOGY
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
T 64 6 356 9099
F 64 6 351 3472
www.massey.ac.nz

Effective professional learning for teachers of languages: What it means to teach languages in instructed settings in New Zealand schools.

AUTHORITY FOR THE RELEASE OF TRANSCRIPTS

I confirm that I have had the opportunity to read and amend the transcript of the interview/s conducted with me.

I agree that the edited transcript and extracts from this may be used by the researcher, *Adèle Scott* in reports and publications arising from the research.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Full Name - printed _____

Appendix K: Phase Three: Confidentiality agreement: Transcriber



SCHOOL OF CURRICULUM
AND PEDAGOGY
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
T 64 6 356 9099
F 64 6 351 3472
www.massey.ac.nz

***Effective professional learning for teachers of languages:
What it means to teach languages in instructed settings in New
Zealand schools.***

TRANSCRIBER'S CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I (Full Name - printed) agree to
transcribe the recordings provided to me.

I agree to keep confidential all the information provided to me.

I will not make any copies of the transcripts or keep any record of them, other than those
required for the project.

Signature: **Date:**

Appendix L: Phase Three: Case study data collection: Timeframe and codes

<i>Date</i>	<i>Participant(s)</i>	<i>Data type</i>	<i>Code in thesis</i>
March 6, 2010	Eve	Interview 1	EveINT1
March 6, 2010	Helen	Interview 1	HelenINT1
March 6, 2010	Eve and Helen	Interview 1: Joint	EveJointINT1 HelenJointINT1
March 6, 2010	Julie	Interview 1	JulieINT1
March 7 - July 8	Eve	e-log entries (12)	dd.mm.yy
March 7- July 8 (+ Sept invite to join class blog)	Helen	e-log entries (20)	dd.mm.yy
15 May	Eve and Helen	Joint e-log entry	Joint15.05.10
March 13 – June 13	Julie	e-log entries (10)	dd.mm.yy
April 27 -30, 2010	Eve & Helen, approximately 50 children & the researcher	Researcher's notes as a participant-observer at the Years 7 & 8 'Spanish' camp	
July 4, 2010	Eve and Helen	Interview 2: Joint	HelenJointINT2 EveJointINT2
Sept 6, 2010	Julie	Interview 2	JulieINT2

Appendix M: Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Approval letters 2008 and 2010



Massey University

30 July 2008

Adèle Scott
School of Curriculum & Pedagogy
PN900

OFFICE OF THE ASSISTANT
TO THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
(Research Ethics)
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North 4442
New Zealand
T 64 6 350 5573/350 5575
F 64 6 350 5622
humanethics@massey.ac.nz
animalethics@massey.ac.nz
gtc@massey.ac.nz
www.massey.ac.nz

Dear Adèle

Re: HEC: Southern B Application – 08/15
Professional development for teachers of languages: Teacher self-efficacy and the impact on the implementation of the new learning area in New Zealand

Thank you for your letter dated 28 July 2008.

On behalf of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B I am pleased to advise you that the ethics of your application are now approved. Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, reapproval must be requested.

If the nature, content, location, procedures or personnel of your approved application change, please advise the Secretary of the Committee.

Yours sincerely

Dr Karl Pajo, Chair
Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B

cc Prof Cynthia White
School of Language Studies
PN231

Dr Lone Jorgensen
School of Curriculum & Pedagogy
PN900

Prof Paul Spoonley, HoS
School of Language Studies
PN231

Massey University Human Ethics Committee
Accredited by the Health Research Council

Te Kūmanga
ki Pāreharao



MASSEY UNIVERSITY

17 December 2009

Ms Adele Scott
School of Curriculum & Pedagogy
PN900

Dear Adele

Re: HEC: Southern B Application – 09/72
Effective professional learning for teachers of languages: What it means to teach languages in instructed settings in New Zealand schools

Thank you for your letter dated 17 December 2009.

On behalf of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B I am pleased to advise you that the ethics of your application are now approved. Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, reapproval must be requested.

If the nature, content, location, procedures or personnel of your approved application change, please advise the Secretary of the Committee.

Yours sincerely

Dr Karl Pajo, Chair
Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B

cc Prof Cynthia White
School of Language Studies
PN231

Dr Lone Jorgensen
School of Curriculum & Pedagogy
PN900

Dr France Grenaudier-Klijn
School of Language Studies
PN231

Dr Alison Kearney, HoS
School of Curriculum & Pedagogy
PN900

Ms Roseanne MacGillivray
Graduate School of Education
PN900

Massey University Human Ethics Committee
Accredited by the Health Research Council

Te Kunenga
ki Pūrehuroa

Research Ethics Office, Massey University, Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North 4442, New Zealand
T +64 6 350 5573 +64 6 350 5575 F +64 6 350 5622
E humanethics@massey.ac.nz animaethics@massey.ac.nz gtc@massey.ac.nz
www.massey.ac.nz

Appendix N: Countries where respondents have taught English or other languages

	ESOL	French	German	Afrikaans	Indonesian	Japanese	Spanish	Other
Japan	34	3	2					
France	20		1				1	
Germany	11	1						Latin
UK	7	19	6				6	
New Caledonia	3	1						
Mexico	3							
Italy	3							
Spain	3							
China	2							
Kuwait	2							
Switzerland	2							
Canada	1	2						
Australia	1	3	2		2	1		Latin
USA			1			1	4	Navajo
South Africa	1	3	1	2				
Fiji	1							
Tahiti	1							
Tonga	1	1						
Jordan	1	1						
Egypt	1							
Indonesia	1							
Pakistan	1	1						
Croatia	1							
Norway	1							
Cook Islands	1							
Sweden	1							
Russia	1							
Taiwan	1							
Paraguay	1							
Panama	1							
Argentina	1							
Thailand	1							
Bahrain		1	1					
Zimbabwe		1						
Brunei		1						
Holland						1		
Poland		1						
Total	110	39	14	2	2	3	11	individual

Appendix O: Respondents' reported knowledge and skills

	Little knowledge and/or skill		Know of this, but not ready to put into practice		Familiar with and use sometimes		An integral part of my teaching and learning		Missing	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
f. Incorporate listening and speaking activities into my lessons	3	1.1	4	1.4	35	12.5	231	82.5	7	2.5
d. Explain language and cultural features specific to the target language	3	1.1	7	2.5	45	16.1	217	77.5	8	2.9
c. Use a variety of language learning strategies and activities	1	0.4	7	2.5	62	22.1	202	72.1	8	2.9
g. Incorporate reading and writing activities into my lessons	4	1.4	9	3.2	51	18.2	207	73.9	9	3.2
b. Adapt and develop resources that motivate student language learning	2	0.7	10	3.6	65	23.2	196	70.0	7	2.5
i. Give meaningful feedback to students on their language learning	5	1.8	12	4.3	95	33.9	158	56.4	10	3.6
j. Plan next learning steps based on student needs and progress	8	2.9	20	7.1	85	30.4	158	56.4	9	3.2
k. Foster explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures	5	1.8	20	7.1	95	33.9	151	53.9	9	3.2
a. Talk to students about their language learning	10	3.6	22	7.9	94	33.6	145	51.8	9	3.2
e. Plan for diversity and different needs of students	7	2.5	22	7.9	132	47.1	110	39.3	9	3.2
h. Incorporate viewing and presenting activities into my lessons	16	5.7	24	8.6	128	45.7	104	37.1	8	2.9
n. Reflect on the effectiveness of the SLA and teaching methodologies that I use	22	7.9	30	10.7	103	36.8	117	41.8	8	2.9
p. Apply SLA methodology when developing resources	30	10.7	36	12.9	95	33.9	107	38.2	12	4.3
i. Discuss how students learn an additional language	18	6.4	44	15.7	125	44.6	85	30.4	8	2.9
o. Apply SLA methodology when assessing students	33	11.8	48	17.1	95	33.9	90	32.1	14	5.0
m. Discuss second language acquisition (SLA) and teaching methodologies with colleagues	29	10.4	54	19.3	105	37.5	83	29.6	9	3.2
q. Use evidence-based SLA methodology	36	12.9	55	19.6	103	36.8	71	25.4	15	5.4

Appendix P: Achievement Objectives: *Learning Languages*

Levels 1 and 2

The achievement objectives in the **Communication** strand provide the basis for assessment. The two supporting strands, **Language knowledge** and **Cultural knowledge**, are only assessed indirectly through their contribution to the **Communication** strand.

Proficiency descriptor

Students can understand and use familiar expressions and everyday vocabulary. Students can interact in a simple way in supported situations. (Adapted from Common European Framework for Languages, Global Scale Level A1: Basic User; Council of Europe, 2001.)

Communication

In selected linguistic and sociocultural contexts, students will:

Selecting and using language, symbols, and texts to communicate

- Receive and produce information.

Managing self and relating to others

- Produce and respond to questions and requests.

Participating and contributing in communities

- Show social awareness when interacting with others.

Language knowledge

Students will:

- Recognise that the target language is organised in particular ways.
- Make connections with their own language(s).

Cultural knowledge

Students will:

- Recognise that the target culture(s) is (are) organised in particular ways.
- Make connections with known culture(s).

Ministry of Education. (2007). *The New Zealand curriculum for English-medium teaching and learning in years 1-13*. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.