CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE IN NEW ZEALAND AT YEARS 7 AND 8

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

Master of Arts
in
Second Language Teaching

at Massey University, Palmerston North,
New Zealand.

Adèle Jeannette Lilly
2001

ABSTRACT

Current literature about the teaching of Japanese in New Zealand has raised a number of issues. However, there has been no attempt made to rank these issues either in terms of priority or in terms of how they may be addressed. In addition, in the existing literature, the writers have not provided any solutions or recommendations themselves.

This research identifies and ranks issues in Japanese language teaching programmes at Years 7 and 8 in the New Zealand school setting. Two professional groups (teachers and principals) were approached to provide the data. Discussions were held in focus groups with teachers of Japanese from around New Zealand. Issues which either constrain or facilitate the implementation of a Japanese language teaching programme were elicited from participating teachers. These issues have been termed "factors" to avoid any negative connotations. Professional responses to the most critical factors were also sought from the teachers. The critical factors generated by teachers were grouped into four broad categories and the focus groups then contributed professional responses to these. Initial results showed that teachers identified "commitment from principal", "pressure and time" and "availability of resources" as being important. Questionnaires were then developed and sent to principals in schools offering Japanese at these levels. Principals identified "commitment from principal", "availability of resources" and "confidence of teachers" as being important.

The results of this study are discussed with reference to the current literature and a number of implications for teaching programmes are proposed. These suggestions are intended to guide schools contemplating the introduction of Japanese or another international language at these levels.

The model developed for group discussions could be used in further research when trying to determine critical factors in the teaching of either other languages or indeed other curriculum areas.

PERSONAL STATEMENT AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank my parents for exposing me to Japanese from the age of five. Amongst my peers I am indeed very fortunate. Credit for my passion for learning languages must also go to my Nana, Una Scott, who later enthused my learning of French. I wish she had been given the same level of support for her studies. More recently, my teaching of international languages has been inspired by the dedication and efforts of my colleagues and students. 心から感謝いたします。

My sincere thanks go to my supervisor, Dr. Cynthia White for her guidance throughout this research. Her constant encouragement and understanding of my needs have been much appreciated. The assistance received through financial grants and study leave from Massey University's School of Language Studies and College of Education has been much appreciated.

I am also extremely grateful to the following people and organisations.

- The management committee of the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education (Massey University) who approved the participation in this research of the facilitators and teachers involved in the *Professional Development for Primary / Intermediate Teachers of Japanese Contract.*
- Gail Spence for her mentorship and willingness to share her vision.
- The facilitators and teachers themselves who so generously gave of their time to explore the critical factors in their Japanese teaching programmes.
- The principals and staff at schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8 who took the time to complete the questionnaire.
- The staff at the Language Teaching Research Centre (Melbourne University) for lending me a machine to transcribe my tapes, distracting me with part time work, and providing a support network away from home.
- Duncan Hedderley for his guidance throughout the analysis of the data and Mark Bebbington for his expertise in displaying and interpreting the data.

My thanks also go to Mike who encouraged me to embark on this study and to his family who have been the best in-laws anyone could want.

To my own family, Mum and Dad, Joy, Julian, Alexander (and most recently Zachariah) who have kept me going through the tough times and also helped ensure the questionnaires were "enveloped", licked, posted and returns collected.

I would also like to acknowledge the gentle support (and sometimes less gentle bullying) of my many colleagues and friends. A huge thank you in particular to Colin, Lone, Sally, Nan, Yevette, Robyn, Mark, Susan, Janet, Karen, Naomi, Maree, Prue, Santi and Bryce.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS

FLES	Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools
FLEX	Foreign Language Experience
LOTE	Languages Other Than English
NZAJLT	New Zealand Association of Japanese Language Teachers
NZALT	New Zealand Association of Language Teachers
SFFJLE	Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education
SLLP	Second Language Learning Project

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the New Zealand government has been encouraging the teaching of international languages at Years 7 and 8 or pre-secondary levels. Along with other organisations such as the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education (SFFJLE), the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT) and the New Zealand Association of Japanese Language Teachers (NZAJLT), the government has provided funding for programmes to be developed in schools at these levels. In 1999, 300 schools were offering Japanese language to 13,913 Years 7 and 8 students. One might then expect that the number of students studying Japanese at secondary level (Year 9 and above) would also increase to take into account the students starting at the lower levels. However, annual statistics released by the Ministry of Education show that rather than increase, the numbers of students studying Japanese at secondary school are declining every year (Ministry of Education, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999). Tracking the movement and choices of students across a number of years is beyond the scope of this study. However it is appropriate to investigate the nature of, and the issues surrounding, the implementation of Japanese language programmes at Years 7 and 8.

1.1 Terminology

Throughout this thesis the term "international language" is used to refer to languages in the New Zealand context other than English, Te Reo Māori or languages of the Pacific. This is to reflect a recent trend in New Zealand to place the learning of languages in a global context and avoid the exclusive nuance which the term "foreign" conveys. However, to avoid confusion with people or programmes from other countries, the writer will use the term "second language" to refer to the teachers, learners or programmes associated with the international languages. This term is also used in New Zealand by the Ministry of Education to refer to languages being taught in schools. The learning of a "second

language" technically refers to "learning another language either (a) within the culture of that second language...or (b) within one's own native culture where the second language is an accepted *lingua franca* used for education, government, or business within the country" (Brown, 1987, p. 136). Given this definition, a more apt term may be "foreign language" to illustrate a "language that is generally not widely used within the particular community" (Johnstone, 1994, p. 1). However, as the term "second language" is used in most of the documents discussed in this study when referring to "foreign language" this is the term that will appear here unless the latter term is used in a direct quotation.

Issues discussed in this study in relation to the teaching of Japanese at Years 7 and 8 have been termed "factors" as opposed to "problems", "issues" or "concerns", which are all terms that can have negative connotations. The factors which are considered most relevant or crucial have been termed "critical factors". The term "issues" has been used in reference to findings from any existing research.

1.2 Research Aims

The aim of this study is to identify and rank factors which either constrain or facilitate the implementation of Japanese language teaching programmes at Years 7 and 8 in the New Zealand school setting and to explore how these factors might be managed. Teacher supply, teacher competence, adequate and appropriate resources, and the lack of a national policy on languages are well documented in the secondary school (Years 9-13) context. Articulation as it relates to the movement of students from one year level to the next, is also of growing concern amongst second language teachers in New Zealand secondary schools. Past research in relation to the implementation of the mathematics curriculum concentrated on critical factors as "problems" to be "solved" (Knight & Meyer, 1996). In contrast to Knight and Meyer's research, this research asks practising teachers to define the term "critical factors" themselves, allowing not only factors which they perceive as important to be generated, but also both positive and negative factors. These teachers also suggested "professional responses" which could be applied to the critical factors.

This study will inform Boards of Trustees, principals and teachers about the critical factors which need to be considered when embarking on a programme for the teaching of international languages, and in particular Japanese, at Years 7 and 8.

1.3 Research Setting

The setting for this research is the New Zealand Education system. The New Zealand Curriculum Framework (Ministry of Education, 1993) details the seven compulsory essential learning areas one of which is "Language and Languages". The description of this learning area states that "all students benefit from learning another language from the earliest practicable age. Such learning broadens students' general language abilities and brings their own language into sharper focus" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 10). Despite these positive claims, international languages are not a compulsory part of the curriculum at any year level. Therefore the teachers and schools involved in this research have *chosen* to offer Japanese to students as part of their school's curriculum. The new curriculum for Japanese (Ministry of Education, 1998) was published following an 18 month period of consultation after the release of the draft in 1996. The implementation date for *Japanese in the New Zealand Curriculum* was 2000.

1.4 Research Participants

This study consisted of two parts: Part A, focus groups discussions and Part B, questionnaires to schools. The 20-25 teachers who participated in Part A of this study did so as members of a *Professional Development for Primary / Intermediate Teachers of Japanese* programme. The programme was based in five regions across New Zealand (Northland, Waikato, Hawkes Bay, Wellington and Dunedin). The teachers contributed as separate focus groups, led by their regional facilitator for that programme. The participants in Part B of this study were principals in schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8.

1.5 Research Questions

The study seeks to address the following three questions:

1. What are the most critical factors in the implementation of a Japanese programme at Years 7 and 8?
2. Which professional responses do teachers and principals perceive as most relevant to address the identified critical factors?
3. What are the implications for Japanese teaching programmes at Years 7 and 8?

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis

Chapter One introduces the topic and outlines the purposes of the study, the setting and the organisation of the thesis. Chapter Two provides the background to the study, alongside a review of the literature in relation to the teaching of international languages at Years 7 and 8 with particular focus on Japanese. Chapter Three describes the methodology used in this study giving detailed attention to the focus group discussions used in Part A, and the questionnaire used in Part B. The data generated in Part A is also presented in Chapter Three and the results from Part B are presented in Chapter Four. Chapter Five reflects on the research questions once again in relation to the literature and the findings from this research. Implications and recommendations are also given. Chapter Six concludes this thesis with a summary and possibilities for further research.

CHAPTER TWO
THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHING CONTEXT

"The proportion of students able, by the end of form four [Year 10] to converse with and write to a native speaker of a language other than English or Māori about simple, everyday matters will by ... 2001 be 50 percent" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 27).

The quotation above appeared in a Ministry of Education discussion document which went on to state that the target of 50% was attainable within existing planned expenditure. The 1999 statistical returns show that this target is not being met, in terms of numbers of students entering second language programmes. Only 13,362 or 24.6% of Year 10 students are currently studying a language other than Te Reo Māori or English (Ministry of Education, 1999). There are no findings available in relation to the level of proficiency achieved by these students.

The first section of this chapter sets the scene for the research questions given in the introductory chapter by exploring both the past and current second language teaching and learning situations in New Zealand. This is followed by a look at Years 7 and 8 and then the Japanese specific contexts. Issues pertinent to the implementation of second language programmes in settings in both New Zealand and some overseas countries are also discussed. In this chapter the term "issues" has been used in its broadest sense to cover findings from previous research.

2.1 Teaching International Languages in New Zealand: The political context

There are seven essential learning areas in *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* describing "in broad terms the knowledge and understanding which all students need to acquire" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 4). "Language and Languages" is one of these

learning areas encompassing the learning of English, Te Reo Māori, community languages and international languages.

The curriculum statements for English or Te Reo Māori are the only mandatory documents in the "Language and Languages" essential learning area. However, since 1992 the Ministry of Education has developed curriculum documents to help teachers plan programmes for international languages. Separate documents have been developed for each of the following languages: Chinese, Japanese, Korean (draft) and Spanish. Samoan, which is both a community and an international language also has a curriculum document, and documents are currently being developed for French and German. International languages are not a compulsory component of school curricula but schools teaching them are required to use these documents. If it was to become mandatory for schools to teach international languages, they would need to ensure that sufficient resources and time were made available for successful implementation of the chosen curriculum. Instead however, the interpretation and application of the documents is currently left to individual schools.

Due to a need for consistency in the delivery of second language learning programmes being offered, NZALT has published a policy document for secondary schools on language teaching and learning (NZALT, 1995). The Ministry of Education did not endorse this eleven-page document funded by members of NZALT. However in 1999, this time under contract to the Curriculum Division of the Ministry of Education, NZALT began writing guidelines to support Boards of Trustees and principals as they develop programmes for second language learning at all year levels. These are due to be sent to schools by mid 2001. This commitment from the Ministry of Education has been welcomed by teachers of international languages at all levels though it does not lessen the ongoing calls for the establishment of a national strategy for language learning and teaching. The New Zealand government has been urged by language advocates to deal with the ad hoc nature of language teaching for many decades (Crombie & Paltridge, 1993; Ellis, 2000; Kaplan, 1993; NZALT, 1976; McQueen, 1994; Peddie et al., 1999; Spence, 1999, 2000; University of Waikato Language Institute 1993, Waite 1992). The frustrations that many language teachers experience include the following:

- International languages are optional at all levels of the school curriculum.
- Pressures such as course preparation, resourcing and time affect languages as much as other subject areas but without the same level of support.
- Teachers of languages have to demonstrate continually the relevance of language learning and justify its inclusion or ongoing inclusion in school programmes.

The New Zealand languages debate is clearly reflected in this statement by Rodgers (1989) who makes the point that "perhaps even more than educational programs in other fields, language programs are necessarily political in nature and need to be proposed and planned with political acumen" (p. 25). Here Rodgers is discussing the importance of planning within the relevant political context to ensure the success of an educational programme. This statement can be equally applied to the New Zealand situation.

New Zealand is unique in the developed world as a country without a firm policy with regard to the teaching and learning of languages. At the most recent NZALT conference, an address by the Associate Minister of Education referred to the following three government priorities:

- Closing the gaps - addressing the specific education needs of Māori and Pacific peoples;
- Language nests - providing opportunities for community languages to be catered for in schools;
- Settlement policy - dealing with anomalies in immigration services (Rotorua, July, 2000).

International languages did not feature as a top priority for the government despite an acknowledgement that many businesses value the ability to speak another language. The Associate Minister also stated that an already crowded curriculum meant it was unlikely that international languages would be made compulsory through the inclusion of an eighth essential learning area in the future. Voices from the floor were resounding in their disapproval of this response. The language adviser from Germany stated that "learning a second or possibly a third language is not a question of compulsion - learning another

language other than one's own is what we [in Europe] simply call good education" (July 5, 2000). A member of the NZALT executive who is also a teacher of science and international languages was equally strong when he added that "there is plenty of compulsion in schools already, why not include languages as well?" (July 5, 2000).

These comments are an echo of earlier ones made by Hunt in the National Business Review when referring to Europe, Holland and Scandinavia in particular, where "several languages are taught to children from their primary school years, just as science and mathematics are taught" (1994, p. 54). He went on to say that in Europe " there is no opportunity, as is the case in New Zealand, for pupils to adopt a mindset against learning a foreign tongue". The move away from the "high-school language tokenism" we have in New Zealand is being addressed but not through the much needed and requested national languages policy.

Ellis (2000), in his key message to the NZALT conference delegates considering the issues associated with successful second language learning, clearly agrees with the sentiment that the government needs to provide a national languages policy. He argues that an official languages policy for New Zealand should require students to learn two second languages while at school. He suggests that Te Reo Māori or a community language be studied at primary school and an international language at secondary school. He cites Singleton (1989) who claims that the introduction of an international language at primary school level does not necessarily result in higher levels of proficiency. Kirkpatrick (1995), has a related view arguing that in Australia only easy languages such as Indonesian, Malay and some European languages should be taught at primary and lower secondary levels leaving "difficult Asian languages" such as Modern Standard Chinese, Japanese and Korean to be introduced in the final two years of secondary schooling. He does say that students could study other languages at the lower levels as long as they either have a background in the language, are strongly motivated or have already proven themselves to be adept at learning languages (p. 6). Communicative competence is seen as the goal and "there seems little point in wasting resources to provide learners with what can be no more than a cursory introduction to 'difficult' Asian languages" (p. 11).

Interestingly, New Zealand schools teaching international languages at Years 7 and 8 say something different. In the review of the Second Language Learning Project (SLLP) to the Ministry of Education, Peddie et al. report that 72 % of schools involved stated that second languages should be compulsory in the primary school curriculum (Peddie et al., 1999, p. 106). This is perhaps because studying a second language provides benefits aside from proficiency. Some of these benefits are acknowledged in the New Zealand Curriculum Framework where it is considered that learning another language "enriches them [the students] intellectually, socially and culturally, offers an understanding of the ways in which other people think and behave, and furthers international relations and trade" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 10). Peddie et al. also question whether students in Years 7 and 8 in New Zealand schools can be classed as "young learners" as they are eleven to thirteen year-olds and could therefore be considered as "young adolescents" (1999, p. 37). A further description of the SLLP is given in section 2.2.

Also behind the push for a national languages policy is the president of NZALT Gail Spence. G. Spence (personal communication, November 21, 2000) believes strongly in empowering language teachers personally, professionally and politically. The international advisers, with the support of the then New Zealand Council for Teacher Education and NZALT in 1998 and 1999 respectively, ran workshops nationwide to enable teachers in charge of international language programmes in primary, intermediate and secondary schools to provide effective leadership and management. These "Leading Languages" workshops gave teachers the skills to deal with some of the frustrations mentioned earlier and move from being guardians to advocates of second language learning.

2.2 Teaching International Languages at Years 7 and 8

Ewing deemed the attitudes towards the inclusion of foreign languages in intermediate (Years 7 and 8) schools prior to 1960 in New Zealand to be "unsatisfactory" (1970, p. 256). Schools were therefore encouraged through the 1961 revised English syllabus to extend more able students through the study of French, Latin, Italian, Te Reo Māori or Esperanto. Further recommendations were made in 1964 in an official statement of policy by the

officer for foreign languages at the Department of Education about the language to be offered at this level, the length of time to be allocated and programme of delivery (Ewing, 1970, p. 257).

A more recent publication, *New Zealand Parents' Guide to Primary School* (Harris, 1996) acknowledges that schools have strategies in place to encourage children to maintain their first language, but only token mention is made of other languages (other than English or Te Reo Māori) in the following statement: "The other languages which may be covered (but not necessarily at primary school) by this section of the curriculum are languages of Asian and European countries. Programmes offered will be dependent on the identified needs of each school's community" (Harris, 1996, p. 51).

This does not mean that there is little second language teaching in New Zealand primary schools, rather, that it is not often seen to be important enough to integrate into a school's curriculum. In contrast to Harris's cursory mention of second language learning in primary school programmes, Kennedy's research (1995), focusing on the extent to which all Years 7 and 8 students were given the opportunity to learn a second language, represents the start of a move by the Ministry of Education towards the promotion of second language learning at these levels. Her research was undertaken as "an initial step towards developing policy to advance the teaching of second languages for forms 1 to 4 [Years 7-10] students" (Kennedy, 1995, p. 14). Kennedy's research is the first official attempt to collect data on the second language teaching situation at Years 7 and 8. Until 1996, the only data available relating to languages through the March and July statistical returns completed by schools for the Ministry of Education concerned Year 9 and above. Kennedy's figures are impressive. Given that Te Reo Māori is included as a second language in this research, it is not surprising to find that 50% of all form 1 (Year 7) and 53% of all form 2 (Year 8) students were given the opportunity to learn a second language in 1994. Of the schools which responded, 32.6% offered Te Reo Māori with the next highest percentage being 9.3% of responding schools offering Japanese. Some of the issues highlighted by Kennedy are pertinent to this research and are examined in section 2.4.

Further support from the Ministry of Education for second language learning has come about through the following projects:

i) The Telecom Distance Learning Project: 1996-1997, provided the necessary technology for schools in remote areas to access language learning (Williams, 1997).

ii) The Second Language Learning Project: 1995-1999, and the Second Language Funding Pool: 2000-2001, have provided ongoing funding to schools to increase the quality and quantity of second language learning at Years 7-10. The three main goals of the programmes are "the development of communicative competence; the development of sociocultural awareness and the mastery of language learning skills and 'how to learn' skills" (Request for Proposal, June, 1995 p. 3, cited in Peddie et al., 1999, p. 14).

iii) The development of the International Language Series, a multi-media resource for the teaching of second languages to primary school students designed for the teacher with little or no knowledge of the selected language. This series was released in 1998 with the Spanish and Japanese packages, followed by the French and German packages in 2000.

iv) The regional advisers in international languages joined the existing team of native speaker consultants in 1998 to provide a wealth of support to schools.

Given this increase in government support, the teaching situation for international languages in New Zealand is ripe for further development at this level.

2.3 Japanese Language Teaching in New Zealand

Even though the focus of research completed by Aschoff (1991, 1992) in particular, and Haugh (1997) is on the teaching of Japanese at secondary school level, together these documents give a useful overview of the Japanese language teaching situation to 1997. One of Aschoff's main points is that the Japanese language curriculum should not be language driven as this represents an "outdated and overly narrow" view of Asia or Japan literacy (1991, p. 1). He would prefer to see courses covering aspects such as history, politics, economics and science as well. However this point pales into insignificance once

he gets further into the report and begins to outline some of the problems facing the teaching of Japanese in New Zealand. He cites three problems previously identified by Wevers (Aschoff, 1991, p. 9) and acknowledges that while there had been progress made in some areas, the problems had not gone away since the completion of the earlier study. Aschoff's other document (1992) details reasons given by teachers, students and parents for studying Japanese language in New Zealand secondary schools. Again the findings point to the importance of presenting the Japanese language to students in a broad social, historical and economic context to ensure that the needs of students are met.

The Japan Forum (2000) promotes a similar view of language relevance through its annual international lesson planning contest for teachers of Japanese. The Japan Forum sees that this relevance would come through "educating for cultural understanding and global awareness" as a "salient part of Japanese language education". This statement does come with an acknowledgement that "views on how to treat cultural subjects and on the objectives of cultural understanding...vary widely, and common practical teaching methods have yet to be established" (The Japan Forum, 2000, p. 5).

Ellis (2000) however, argues for language to be "treated as a 'tool' not as an 'object' ", defining successful language learning in the following four ways:

- success in public examinations;
- ability to communicate in a second language;
- learner autonomy;
- the motivation to learn a second language.

He argues for communicative ability to be the focus of language learning and calls for "both the method of instruction and the examinations" to emphasise these abilities (Ellis, 2000 p. 47). Ellis therefore places more importance on giving students adequate opportunities to acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills through inspiring students "to see that learning language has a real place in their lives" (Ellis, 2000 p. 47).

Haugh (1997) examines the Japanese teaching situation in New Zealand when the draft of *Japanese in the New Zealand Curriculum* was in its consultation period and makes

comparisons between the previous draft syllabus and the then proposed draft curriculum. One of his main criticisms of the draft curriculum - that the language level indicators did not clearly express progression in the four language skills (1997, p. 19) - was addressed in the final document. In relation to this research, the most pertinent comment about the new curriculum acknowledges the links made to programme planning in primary and intermediate schools and the flexibility of the eight levels, albeit with the usual constraints of external examination prescriptions and requirements from Year 11 up (1997, p. 16). Haugh (1997, p. 18) also recognises the attempts in the draft curriculum "to encourage greater integration of language and culture through the inclusion of socio-cultural aspects" which is an improvement on the previous syllabus and goes some of the way towards addressing the issues raised by Aschoff mentioned earlier.

A report by Williams written on behalf of the management committee for the SFFJLE provides a detailed summary of Japanese language teaching programme in New Zealand schools. The aim of the research was "to collect information about the needs of teachers of Japanese in New Zealand schools" in order to help inform the activities of the SFFJLE (Williams, 1997, p. 1). Of particular interest to this research is Williams's overview of the primary and intermediate Japanese language teaching situation. She comments on the need for teachers at this level to have opportunities to gain proficiency in the Japanese language as well as to have access to courses in second language teaching methodology (Williams, 1997, pp. 35-38). Williams suggests this could be done both in the current preservice teacher education programmes and through ongoing inservice and professional development programmes for those already in the classroom. These and other listed needs reflect some of the critical factors revealed in this research and will be discussed further in section 2.4.1.

The validity of these comments needs to be revisited since the introduction of two initiatives. First, the joint Ministry of Education and SFFJLE funded professional development programmes (1997 - present) and second, resources such as *HAI!, An Introduction to Japanese* (Copeland, Wilson and Associates Ltd., 1998). This study will

shed some light on these areas from the perspective of teachers and principals at Years 7 and 8 schools.

Many of the recommendations of the research discussed (Aschoff, 1991, 1992; Haugh, 1997; Williams, 1997) have been implemented over the last decade. The main three groups responsible for this have been the Ministry of Education, NZALT (see section 2.2) and SFFJLE (see section 3.3.2).

Table 2.1 details the increase in the number of students learning Japanese at Years 7 and 8 over the last three years in particular and is a reflection of the concentrated support received at this level.

Table 2.1 Number of Students of Japanese Language at Years 7& 8: 1996-1999

	Year 7			**Year 8**		
Year	**Japanese**	Second Languages	Total No. of Year 7 students	**Japanese**	Second Languages	Total No. of Year 8 students
1996	**3910**	11211	58598	**4973**	13669	52525
1997	**3254**	11097	60827	**4247**	13464	53463
1998	**4736**	13615	62159	**5869**	16144	54692
1999	**6215**	16034	65172	**7698**	19304	55390

Source: NZ Ministry of Education, Data Management and Analysis 2000

Taking this information a step further, the percentage increase in the number of students learning Japanese can be calculated. In 1996 for example, 34.8% of Year 7 students learning a second language were learning Japanese (representing 6.6% of all Year 7 students). By 1999 those percentages had increased to 38.7% and 9.5% respectively. For Year 8 the percentage of students learning Japanese grew from 36.3% of those learning a second language (representing 9.4% of all Year 8 students) in 1996, to 39.8% and 13.8% respectively in 1999.

2.4 Issues for Second Language Teaching Programmes

2.4.1 Issues for New Zealand programmes

As far back as 1970, Ewing identified some of the issues which would impact on the "ultimate success or failure of teaching a second language to able primary school pupils" (p. 258). The two main ones were "the supply of sufficiently qualified language teachers and the extent to which a form two [Year 8] course can be integrated with a form three [Year 9] course" (p. 258).

Some 25 years later teacher supply was still found to be an issue in schools deciding not to continue offering second languages (Kennedy, 1995, p. 22). Funding, an already full timetable and lack of support from Board of Trustees or parents also featured prominently in these decisions. Anecdotal responses to the question of whether to offer a second language to students at Years 7 and 8, indicated that if the language was offered informally or through the regular programme then this was not perceived as second language learning. This type of response indicates confusion about what is considered an appropriate form of delivery for a second language programme at this level. The assumption made here is that the programme is only legitimate if the secondary school model of timetabling languages with their own time slot is used. Other researchers have also commented on teacher supply as a problem (Peddie et al., 1999, p. 80; Wevers, 1988, cited in Aschoff, 1991). Wevers also makes comment about the inadequacy of teaching resources and the absence of a national languages policy.

Articulation, or, "the process of providing a smooth and logical transition from an elementary to a secondary program and ensuring continuity from one FLES [foreign languages in elementary school] classroom to another" (Wilson, 1988), is a process which, according to Williams (1997), is not being addressed adequately in New Zealand. She makes the following observations about learner behaviour based on responses from secondary school teachers who have students entering Year 9 classes with prior Japanese language learning experience. They comment on students

- who are 'switched off' by their primary school experience of Japanese;

- whose pronunciation is incomprehensible;
- who have been confused and bewildered by the introduction of ungraded material;
- who have been taught inaccurate language patterns;
- who have unrealistic expectations of the course they will follow in secondary school;
- who have not developed good learning skills and strategies;
- whose teachers have not understood that in New Zealand language learning, the emphasis is on the learning rather than the teaching. (Williams, 1997, p. 30)

Other issues for New Zealand programmes are highlighted in the report by Peddie et al. (1999) which provides an evaluation of the SLLP. This report relates specifically to the teaching of second languages at primary and intermediate schools and is the most comprehensive and up-to-date commentary on the current situation in New Zealand. Although the research by Peddie et al. was not released prior to the commencement of this study on the critical factors in Japanese teaching programmes at Years 7 and 8, it has provided a useful backdrop to the comparison of the issues and the analysis of the data collected. Teacher supply and articulation continue to have relevance as can be seen from the following summary of issues identified by Peddie et al:

- language selection and continuation
- the goals of school language programmes
- programme organisation - timetabling, selection of students, dropout policies
- the need for resource sharing and development for the primary sector
- teacher supply and continuity
- the various roles of the classroom teachers during SLLP lessons
- the crowded nature of the Years 7 and 8 curriculum
- issues relating to the articulation of programmes between primary and local secondary schools. (1999, p. 4)

The findings from Peddie et al. also revealed that:

- A combination of adequate time for learning and understanding of good communicative teaching is important if lessons are to be enjoyable as well as effective.
- The greater the language teaching skills of the teacher delivering the lesson, the more effective the learning.
- Schools have different needs and need the flexibility to explore the best practice for their local conditions. (Ministry of Education, 1999)

To help address the needs of Japanese teachers, there was ongoing consultation with and support for teachers throughout the development of the new curriculum statement. This support came in the form of professional development programmes and resource development and was targeted initially at teachers in secondary schools. More recently, the SFFJLE and the Ministry of Education (through the SLLP) have been addressing some of the needs of teachers in primary and intermediate schools as well by providing professional development support programmes (see section 2.2). While this kind of support does not deal with problems associated with articulation or teacher supply, it does provide these teachers with ongoing contact with experienced specialist teachers of Japanese who have both secondary and primary teaching backgrounds.

2.4.2 Issues for overseas programmes

Characteristics and quotations pertinent to this research are given below. Links are made as appropriate to the New Zealand situation.

Australia

In 1992 the Commonwealth Government of Australia requested that each state nominate eight languages other than English (LOTE) to attract funding for enrolments at Year 12 (equivalent to Year 13 in New Zealand). The state of Victoria took this one step further and declared the learning of a LOTE compulsory to Year 10 (equivalent to Year 11 in New Zealand). Key issues identified in the strategy document relate to the following:

- providing for a range of languages

- teacher supply
- catering for country students
- continuity and transition
- retention rates. (Directorate of School Education, 1993)

In keeping with previous developments in other languages, the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia Limited published a profile of Japanese (Marriott, Neustupny and Spence-Brown, 1994). While only a few pages are devoted to the primary school situation, the comprehensive nature of the document and wide range of issues covered provide a solid basis for the planning of policy and programmes at all levels.

Scotland

In his evaluation of the learning of foreign languages at primary schools in Scotland, Johnstone applauds the different pilot programmes as being "generally successful in promoting a favourable attitude to foreign-language learning" (1994, p. 2). The national pilot projects covered four languages and used the embedding model as a basis for programme delivery. The emphasis was on relating the foreign language to aspects of the primary school curriculum rather than teaching it as a separate entity. The implication of the embedding approach promoted by Johnstone (1994, p. 61), is that classroom teachers need to be fluent in two or more languages and can integrate these as appropriate in the following five areas: language, environmental studies, mathematics, expressive arts, religious and moral education. This holistic approach is what Aschoff (1991) advocates for New Zealand and would not impact on the already crowded curriculum.

The main staffing model in the Scottish pilot programmes was based on "teachers from secondary schools making regular visits to associated primary schools in order to work alongside primary-school class teachers" (Johnstone, 1994, p. 2). Once the pilot programmes were completed the classroom teacher in the primary schools had more input and responsibility and the secondary teacher was less likely to be involved. Peddie et al. allude to the role of the classroom teacher as being an issue in the New Zealand context as frequently the teacher from outside the school is left alone without the support of the classroom teacher (1999, p. 82).

USA

Pesola (1988) outlines the five different types of international language programmes used in primary (elementary) schools and the problems associated with them in terms of articulation. She states that a primary school programme will have limited lasting success if it had "insufficient planning, inappropriate goals, unrealistic promises, lack of materials, unqualified teachers and inadequate time allocations" (p. 3). She goes on to say that "no graduate from an elementary school foreign language program should be placed with beginners in the middle or junior high school" (p. 6). For students to continue with their study of an international language to a point where they gain some degree of fluency, Pesola argues that the communication between teachers at all levels must include the sharing of "accurate descriptions of course goals and outcomes...evaluation procedures which accurately measure student achievement and proficiency" and a stronger emphasis on "subject-content instruction" (p. 10).

According to Pesola, horizontal articulation is about ensuring that "children in each elementary school...have similar experiences with each language if middle school teachers are expected to build on what was [previously] learned" (p. 9). In a small country like New Zealand, horizontal articulation is possible with the International Language Series programme (Copeland, Wilson and Associates Ltd., 1998) which provides a package complete with teacher guide, lesson plans, worksheets videos and audio-tapes (see section 2.2). However, the time allowances across composite primary and intermediate schools are so diverse (Kennedy, 1994) that not all schools reach the same outcomes by the same time. Subject-content instruction as suggested by Pesola could be an option for New Zealand and though it would mean that languages would not have to be separately timetabled, it would mean a particularly huge shift in planning and thinking for teachers and policy makers alike.

Davis-Wiley's research (1994) summarises evaluations from students, parents and teachers in relation to a year-long foreign language programme delivered to grades 1-5 students by graduate foreign language education students in Tennessee. The classroom teacher stays in the room and the Total Physical Response method of language instruction is used (Davis-

Wiley, 1994). Concerns included articulation to higher grades, lack of homework and a desire for languages other than Spanish to be offered (p. 5).

Many of the programmes being delivered in New Zealand schools at Years 7 and 8 appear similar to the Foreign Language Experience (FLEX) programme described by both Pesola and Davis-Wiley where students receive an introduction to the learning of languages and foreign cultures.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined the past and current second language teaching situations in New Zealand, making particular reference to the teaching of Japanese. The issues and implications associated with the lack of a national languages policy alongside the recent wealth of support given to the teaching of second languages at primary and intermediate schools have been highlighted. Issues in second language teaching programmes in New Zealand and overseas such as teacher supply, teacher proficiency (including second language teaching methodology), the type of programme offered and articulation have been discussed and will be revisited in Chapter Five in light of the results of this study.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY AND DATA

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology chosen for this research. The qualitative methods and results from facilitator and focus group contributions are discussed followed by an explanation of the quantitative methods used in the questionnaire sent to principals. Figure 3.1 below outlines the process.

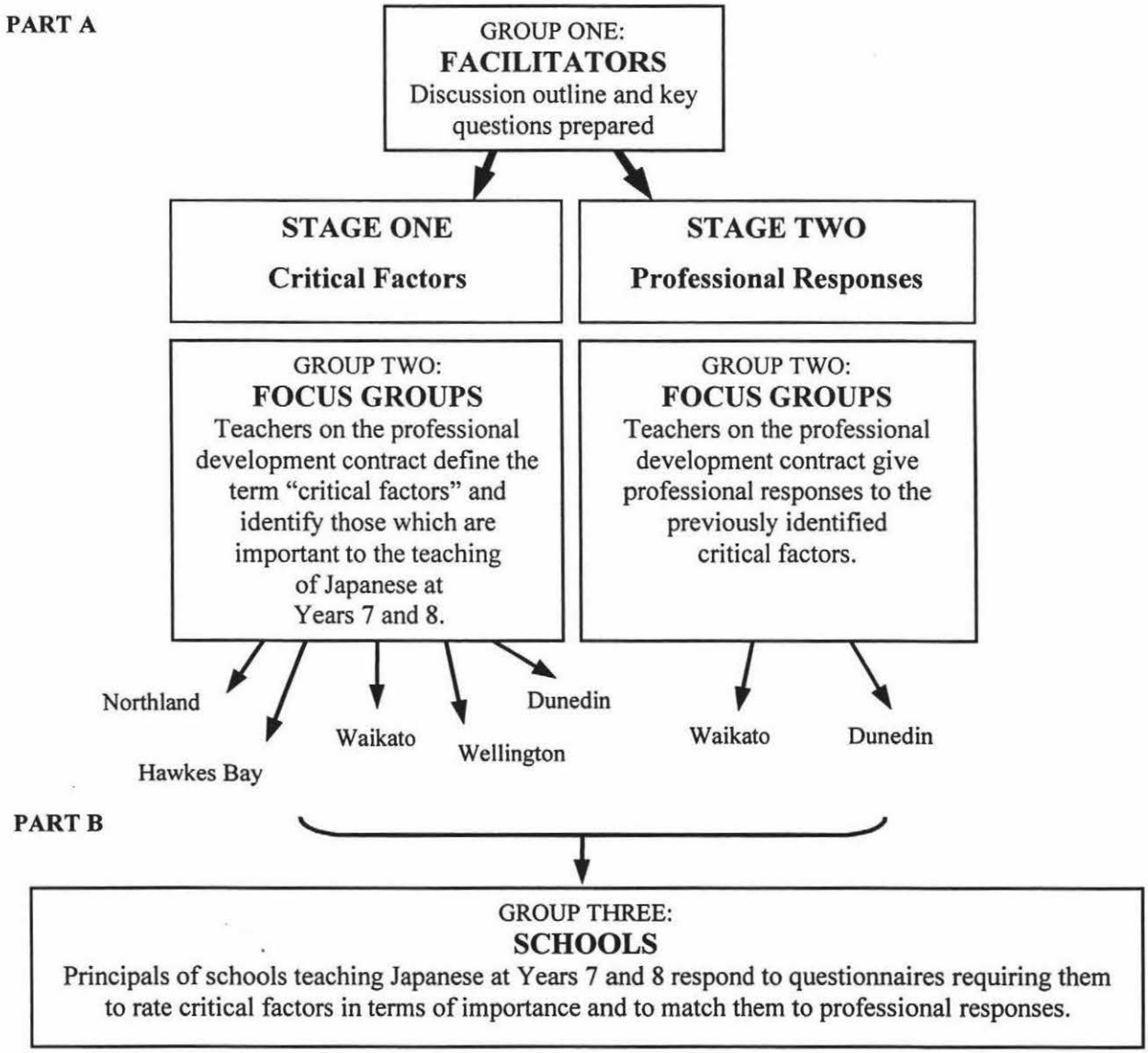

Figure 3.1 Research Process

3.1 Aim

The aim of this study is to identify the critical factors for the successful implementation of a Japanese language programme at Years 7 and 8 and to indicate how these factors might be addressed as perceived by practising teachers and principals in schools involved in teaching Japanese at these levels.

3.2 Research Design

This study used a modified version of the methodology developed by Knight and Meyer (1996) to identify critical factors and problem areas in the implementation of the new mathematics curriculum in New Zealand primary and secondary schools. Knight and Meyer's methodology, based on the Witkin Needs Assessment model (Witkin, 1979) involved a two sample design, firstly with focus groups of teachers followed by questionnaires to a larger national sample of teachers. The focus groups were used to identify problems and link them logically. An initial questionnaire was sent out to schools asking teachers to respond to the problems which had been identified. Following a second meeting of focus groups, where participants discussed the responses to the first questionnaire, a second questionnaire was sent to schools asking teachers to rate the problems and link them to possible solutions (Knight & Meyer, 1996, p. i).

In this study however, focus groups were approached twice, in Part A, before a questionnaire was sent to schools, in Part B. Through discussion and open-ended questions, the focus groups defined the term "critical factors" (see section 3.6.1) and listed those which teachers face in the implementation of a Japanese teaching programme at Years 7 and 8. The purpose of eliciting critical factors from the teachers involved in the Japanese language programmes was to ensure that the critical factors reflected the current situation and not just those that had been identified in previous studies which more often than not were a reflection of the secondary teaching situation. Previous studies (see section 2.4.1) also placed a greater emphasis on problems whereas the focus of this research was to identify the positive and negative realities which impact on programmes, and generate

professional responses to them. These critical factors were grouped together into four categories and used to generate professional responses from the teachers during the second discussion (see section 3.6.2). This qualitative data was then used to develop a questionnaire which was sent out to a larger group of schools teaching Japanese at this level from throughout New Zealand (see Appendix 3.3).

The most important or influential factors in programmes for teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8 were identified by ranking the critical factors within the four broad categories explored and by matching them with appropriate professional responses. This was done first of all by the focus group participants, then by those who answered the school questionnaire (see section 3.5.2). The results from Part A and Part B of the research are discussed in Chapter Five.

3.3 Subjects

Three different groups of educational professionals participated in this study. These were facilitators (group one), focus group participants (group two) and principals (group three). Groups one and two were all practising teachers.

3.3.1 Selection and characteristics of facilitators (group one)

The focus groups were led by the five facilitators involved in a *Professional Development for Primary / Intermediate Teachers of Japanese* contract funded by the SFFJLE at Massey University. They were asked to participate in the study in the context of their paid professional time with the SFFJLE professional development contract. The facilitators participated as an approved part of the SFFJLE professional development contract. Their permission was sought to record the necessary data.

All facilitators were either full time practising teachers of Japanese or had recent classroom experience. While they had taught mainly in the secondary school setting, they all had some experience teaching in Years 7 and 8 programmes. Prior to their involvement in the professional development contract, four of the facilitators had had significant experience

working with teachers in inservice work. All five facilitators received additional training from the contract director and others (including the researcher) in the purpose and scope of the contract as well as in facilitation strategies and workshop organisation.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher consulted further with the facilitators and gave them supplementary notes concerning the management of the two focus group discussions (see section 3.6.1). As not all facilitators were able to meet with their focus groups within the timeframe, the researcher also met with some of the participants when they gathered for a three day professional development conference for primary and intermediate teachers of Japanese. The limitations of the process, along with changes made, are given in more detail in section 3.7.1.

3.3.2 Selection and characteristics of teachers (group two)

The participants in Part A were highly motivated teachers. Their schools had applied for and been selected to take part in the SFFJLE professional development contract for primary and intermediate schools with Japanese programmes. In this regard they were not representative of the general population though they were from a range of school types and regions (Northland, Waikato, Hawkes Bay, Wellington and Dunedin).

3.3.3 Selection and characteristics of schools (group three)

Schools which teach Japanese at Years 7 and 8 were invited to complete a questionnaire. The names of these schools were obtained the Ministry of Education 1998 database and the former New Zealand Council for Teacher Education 1998 database both of which are public domain information.

3.4 Ethical Considerations

This research met the requirements of the Human Ethics Committee of Massey University and was also given the full support of the Chair of the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education Management Committee. Facilitators, teachers and principals who participated in this research were informed of the purpose of the study, their

right to decline to take part and measures taken to ensure that anonymity and confidentiality were respected (see Appendices 1.1, 1.2 and 3.2 for information and consent forms). In addition, all participants were informed that they and professional groups such as NZALT and NZAJLT would have access to the summary of findings at the conclusion of the study.

3.5 Choice of Instruments

This section outlines the rationale behind the use of the focus group discussions for Part A of the study and the questionnaire for Part B of the study.

3.5.1 Part A: Focus groups

When choosing a way to approach teachers about curriculum issues, interviews are often used (Krueger, 1994). Face-to-face interviews and questionnaires are common tools to get information. The key benefit of both these approaches is that the interviewer can be sure of individual responses which are not influenced by others. In this study however, group interaction and discussion were precisely what was required initially to generate a wide variety of ideas, regardless of who contributed them. These ideas could then be fully explored as participants had opportunities to justify and redefine what they meant throughout the discussion. The focus groups of four or five teachers, meeting for approximately one hour, had in-depth discussions about how they perceived their Japanese teaching programmes in their schools. While individual interviews could have provided a similar variety of responses, it is unlikely that attitudes and perceptions of teachers would have been so readily expressed. Time constraints also did not permit such in-depth consultation with individuals.

Richard Krueger's *Focus groups: a practical guide for applied research* (Krueger, 1994) has been influential in determining the processes used in Part A of this study. To begin with, the purpose of the focus group needed to be clear. Focus groups were used in this research to ascertain the following:

- What is the participants' understanding of the term "critical factor"?

- What critical factors can be identified in relation to the teaching of Japanese at Years 7 and 8?
- How can these critical factors be grouped? How are they linked?
- Which critical factors do the participants feel strongly about?
- Which ones do they feel they can do something about?
- What professional responses can be offered in reply to these critical factors?

3.5.2 Part B: The questionnaire

"Exclusive reliance on one method ... may bias or distort the researcher's picture of the particular slice of reality she's investigating" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p. 112).

Cohen et al. (2000), Burns (1990), among others, discuss the importance of using multiple research techniques to take account of the varied situations within schools which are too complex to be viewed from any single perspective. Triangulation is mentioned as a useful technique for collecting data when several standpoints are required. Concurrent validity of qualitative data, where the results concur with those from other instruments, is particularly high when triangulation is used (Campbell and Fiske, 1959, cited in Cohen et al. 2000, p. 112). The more the methods contrast with each other the greater the confidence of the researcher when the results are similar.

This research makes use of two methods; the focus group discussions used in Part A; and the questionnaire sent to schools in Part B. The questionnaire was designed from the focus group participants' responses. Its development is discussed in this chapter and the results from the responses are presented and analysed (see Figure 3.1).

The purpose of this part of the research was to collect responses from schools across New Zealand teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8. Principals received a letter and information about the study with the questionnaire. The participants in Part A of the research were teachers; in Part B however, questionnaires were sent to principals. The questionnaire was sent to principals for the following reasons:

- Results from the focus group discussions revealed that commitment from principals was considered one of the most important critical factors of a Japanese programme. Sending the questionnaire to the principal acknowledged their role in the programme.
- The relevant information from the July statistical returns from schools to the Ministry of Education is not available until towards the end of any given year. The information used for this research was from the previous year therefore it could not be totally relied on with regard to whether or not Japanese was still being taught at all the schools.
- In the closest previous study of schools with Years 7 and 8 students, Kennedy (1995) had sent surveys to principals seeking information on the second language learning situation. A comparison of findings would be more straightforward when respondents are similar.
- As most schools teaching below Year 9 do not use specialist teachers for any subject area, it was not possible to find out whether teachers of Japanese were fulltime or part-time members of staff. A letter addressed to a teacher of Japanese who was perhaps only there an hour or two a week might be less likely to be dealt with than one addressed to the principal.
- Anecdotal evidence suggests that many teachers of Japanese at Years 7 and 8 are apprehensive about their own level of expertise and therefore may have been uncomfortable with completing the questionnaire.
- Researcher bias may also have played a part in the decision to send questionnaires to principals rather than to teachers. The researcher is frequently involved in supporting teachers of Japanese and other languages and makes the most of opportunities to raise the profile of languages in schools.

While principals were asked to complete the questionnaire, there was no way of ensuring that they and not someone else such as the teacher of Japanese in fact completed it. This open approach meant that one person did not have pressure on them to complete the questionnaire. Some responses could therefore be from an institutional perspective and some from the classroom perspective. Any difference in responses is not considered crucial

to the study, though in hindsight it would have been appropriate to request that the respondent indicate their role in the school.

Development of the instrument

Focus group participants involved in Part A of the study acted as a trial for the questionnaire concepts. Section 3.6.1 describes how the participants defined the term "critical factors"; illustrated these with examples; and provided "professional responses" for the three critical factors in each of the four categories they each identified as being most important. They were also asked to make comment on the possible layout of the questionnaire and the grouping and wording of critical factors. The same "draft" was sent to two principals and one deputy principal at three different schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8. Two made comments on the draft and some minor changes were made to the wording as a result. In response to the feedback, the number of critical factors per category was reduced by excluding some altogether, and incorporating others into factors with a similar focus.

It was not possible to carry out a full pilot study due to time constraints as it was necessary to ensure questionnaires arrived in schools early in term four.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first asked for demographic information about the schools and the Japanese language programme. The purpose of this was to check that the schools were teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8; to ensure there was a reasonable representation of schools across New Zealand and to assist in the analysis of the data at a later stage. There was also the option of selecting a "no response" and returning the questionnaire unanswered. Critical factors were grouped under four broad headings in the second section. Principals were asked to rank the importance of each of the critical factors on a 1 to 5 scale and to select the most important factor in each group. The third section required principals to select from a list of 34 professional responses, those which they thought were most appropriate for each critical factor. Respondents were invited to make further comments or contact the researcher directly as needed. Results from the questionnaire are given in Chapter Four.

3.6 Focus Group Discussions

The two stages of the focus group discussions in Part A of the research (see Figure 3.1) are outlined in this section, followed by an analysis of the contributions made by the participants leading to the development of the instrument used in Part B.

3.6.1 Focus groups: Stage one

Facilitators were sent guidelines for managing the focus group discussions. These guidelines covered the background to the research, consent forms for participants and facilitators, characteristics of focus group discussions and a sequenced 'questioning route' (Krueger, 1994, p. 20). The key roles for facilitators were to:

- outline the purpose of the research and obtain permission from participants to use their contributions;
- ensure that all participants felt comfortable contributing to the discussion;
- allow for a variety of responses while refraining from making any judgements on these;
- probe responses further, using guidelines supplied as appropriate;
- encourage interaction between participants.

Once participants had been thanked for attending, read the information sheet, had a chance to ask questions, agreed to take part and signed the consent form, facilitators outlined the characteristics of focus groups. Facilitators were then to reiterate the confidentiality aspect of the research and the fact the participants could use a nom de plume. The tape was turned on, participants gave their verbal consent on the tapes and the discussion began. The question sequence sent to facilitators was to help them generate discussion around the research topic. The facilitators were encouraged to use the terminology that the participants came up with throughout the discussion. Using participants' words not only places value on their contributions but also serves to increase the validity of the responses by ensuring that the perceptions were from the participants and not the facilitator (Krueger, 1994).

The six steps and question sequence used in the discussion are outlined below:

Step One: The research topic is stated and the terms are defined.

Facilitators wrote the words 'CRITICAL FACTORS' on a large piece of paper and asked participants to tell them how they would define this term. Facilitators were given some examples of terms which might come up in the brainstorming session but were not to contribute those themselves. The paper was placed where it could be seen for the remainder of the session.

Step Two: Specific examples of critical factors elicited

Participants were given post-it notes on which to write down some examples of critical factors. Facilitators could prompt participants if they were stuck using the definitions generated in step one. The post-it notes were placed on the paper according to previously defined headings. Discussion was encouraged about *where* and *why* a note was being placed in a particular place.

Step Three: Examples of critical factors grouped

Participants were asked to talk about other ways the notes could be grouped. Facilitators were again encouraged to ask for reasons and to probe for elaboration from participants. They could also ask other participants if they felt the same, not to seek a consensus but to generate further discussion.

Step Four: Identifying specific critical factors

Participants were asked individually to place a tick on any notes they felt strongly about and a smiley face on any they felt they could do something about.

Steps Five and Six: Further comments sought

Participants were asked if they had anything further they would like to add to the discussion including identifying aspects of the discussion which surprised them or stood out for them.

Participants were thanked again and informed there would be a further meeting where some possible responses to the critical factors will be discussed. The tapes, paper and notes were then posted to the researcher. There was either taped and /or written information from five

groups, including the one facilitated by the researcher. It is this data which has been analysed and presented in the following section.

Methods of processing and analysing the data

"The inductive researcher derives understanding based on the discussion as opposed to testing or confirming a preconceived hypothesis or theory" (Krueger,1994 p. 29).

Keeping Krueger's comment above in mind, it was important to decide the most effective means of collecting the data to ensure, firstly, that the focus groups were able to function without too many external distractions and, secondly, that the processing and analysing steps were able to reflect the understanding of the topic in a straightforward manner. The guidelines (see section 3.6.1) provided to facilitators helped give the discussions the structure required for these things to happen.

Discussion group proceedings were recorded in order to follow up comments accurately. In this research, audio-tapes were used alongside post-it notes and large pieces of paper. In one case a facilitator handed in a written summary of the comments made after she discovered the audio-tape had not recorded. In addition one Japanese native speaker participant handed in several pages of his own comments the day after the discussion as he felt he had not been able to express himself adequately in English during the discussion.

The researcher provided all facilitators with blank tapes, post-it notes, large pieces of paper, chocolate nibbles for participants and a pre-paid courier bag for returning all materials at the end of each discussion.

Audio-tapes

The audio-tapes were turned on at the beginning of the discussion for both stages of the focus groups in order for participants to give their verbal consent to take part in the research and have their comments recorded. The audio-tape was left running to the end of the discussion except in the case of the facilitator who held the discussion first then had the participants repeat their comments onto the audio-tape (see section 3.7).

The tapes were then transcribed by the researcher and, where it was possible to identify different participants, contributions were labeled with a different single letter. Using various highlighting and coding techniques, the transcribed comments from stage one were summarised to provide lists of definitions and examples of critical factors.

Approximately 20 teachers took part in stage one of the research. The approximation is a reflection of the fact that there were some participants who took part in the focus group in Rotorua who had already had their comments recorded and either they were not audible or they were keen to participate in the discussion again with a larger group (see section 3.7). While it was useful when analysing the data to take note of the actual proportion of participants who said a particular thing, it was more important to take note of the comments being made in order to apply these to the questionnaire instrument used in stage three of the research.

Post-it-notes

The post-it-note technique used during stage one of the focus groups was a visual and interactive way of allowing participants to contribute to the discussion. The 'think-pair-share' technique developed by Lyman (1981, cited in Brown, 2000, p. 147) commonly used in classrooms is a non-threatening approach to encourage participation from the whole group and not only the more vocal ones. The basic principle is that participants 'think' about a topic by themselves and note something down on paper. They then talk to one other person about this and then each 'pair' can share all or some of the ideas with the larger group. The individual time allows each person to think in silence without other people talking; the pair discussion allows each person to act as a sounding board for the ideas and thoughts of their partner; and the sharing time often allows the main thoughts to be communicated clearly as there have already been two 'goes' at expressing them.

In this research, once the post-it notes were placed on the newsprint any of the participants were able to move them around, place them in groups or write on them according to how they felt (see section 3.6.2). The information from this technique is reported in Table 3.2.

Critical factors defined by teachers

In order to discover what "critical factors" exist in the implementation of a Japanese programme at Years 7 and 8, it is first necessary to define what is meant by these terms. With regard to the use of "critical" it is interesting to note that the pocket Oxford (Fowler, 1924) terms critical as being "decisive for good or ill" and other thesauri (Dutch, 1983; McLeod, 1986) use adjectives such as "crucial" "decisive", "important", "momentous" and even "perilous", "precarious" and "risky". However, as discussed earlier (see section 1.1), Knight and Meyer (1996) refer to "problems" or "issues" when examining the critical factors relevant to the implementation of the new mathematics curriculum, focussing on aspects which appear to be negative. This study is concerned with *any* factors the teachers see as relevant whether they are seen to have a positive or negative influence on the Japanese programme. To ensure this neutrality of terms, it was decided to go one step further and allow teachers themselves to define "critical factors". The reasons for this were two-fold. Firstly, by using their own words to describe the factors affecting their programmes, the discussion was able to go in the direction the teachers saw appropriate rather than being constrained by terminology which was imposed on them. Secondly, it was important not to limit the discussion by terms which had negative connotations. The terms which were elicited from the discussion showed that there were indeed a wide range of definitions covering both positive and negative aspects.

In *Step One* participants were asked to define the term "critical factor". In the four taped focus group discussions, the participants preferred to give examples of what they thought a critical factor was rather than define the term first. The terms given below come from throughout the discussions. Some of these were:

- problems
- base or foundation
- challenges
- constraints
- essential ingredients
- priorities
- barriers
- significant factors
- vision
- implementation
- essential components for successful learning
- things which have to be put in place before an actual lessons begins

Once a number of examples had been given they were grouped into categories. Table 3.1 shows the categories chosen by the five different groups. These categories were grouped further under the following headings which were selected for use in the next stage (see section 3.6.2): teacher background; learner behaviour; school context; professional support and commitment.

Table 3.1 Critical Factors Categorised

Category	Group	1	2	3	4	5
positives and negatives					●	
financial constraints		●		●	●	
organisational /management /time		●	●	●	●	●
teacher / staff (qualifications, training)		●			●	●
attitudes, expectations		●		●		●
support (individuals, staff, community)		●		●	●	●
resources		●	●	●	●	●
student (attitude, ability)		●	●			●
solvable and unsolvable				●		
process line - implementation steps				●		
continuum of importance / significance				●		

Critical factors grouped and ranked by teachers

Step Four of stage one asked teachers to indicate how they felt about some specific critical factors they had identified. These are shown in Table 3.2 with the ticks indicating the number of people who felt strongly about a critical factor and the smiley faces indicating some of the critical factors participants felt they could do something about. They are presented in order of importance i.e. the number of ticks per group.

The factor which the participants felt the most strongly about (time and timetabling) is also one of the ones which they felt least able to do anything about. The factors participants do feel they can do something about are: resources and, student motivation and needs. This is not surprising given the fact that the focus group participants are all receiving special support and training through the professional development programme.

Table 3.2 Critical Factors Ranked by Teachers

Critical factor	Feel strongly about	Can do something about
Organisational		
time / timetable	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓ ✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓✓✓ (22)	☺☺ (2)
lack of curriculum area	✓✓ (2)	
Support		
professional development opportunities	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓✓✓ (10)	☺☺☺☺☺ (5)
from other staff	✓✓✓✓ (4)	☺☺☺☺☺ ☺☺ (7)
from school and Board of Trustees	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓✓ (9)	☺☺☺☺☺ ☺☺ (7)
resources	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓ (12)	☺☺☺☺☺ ☺☺☺☺☺ ☺☺ (12)
vision and reasons for introduction	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ (8)	☺☺☺☺☺ (5)
financial constraints	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ (8)	☺☺☺ (3)
Student		
motivation, needs	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓ (6)	☺☺☺☺☺ ☺☺☺ (8)
ability	✓✓ (2)	☺☺☺ (3)
group size, organisation	✓✓✓ (3)	☺ (1)
Staff		
confidence, stress	✓✓✓✓✓ ✓ (6)	☺☺☺ (3)
training, qualifications	✓✓✓✓✓ (5)	
communication with high schools	✓✓ (2)	☺☺☺ (3)

3.6.2 Focus groups: Stage two

In this stage of the research, teachers on the professional development contract ranked the critical factors once more and wrote professional responses to the previously identified critical factors.

The two facilitators (the researcher and one other), conducted discussions with one group each for this stage of the research. There were seven participants in total. The data collected during the first stage had been analysed and a questionnaire for schools was being written based on the information collected.

The key role for the facilitators at this second stage, after reminding participants of the purpose of the research and the procedures for gathering the information as outlined for stage one (see section 3.6.1), was to allow participants the opportunity to respond to the critical factors previously identified. The participants did this by completing a trial questionnaire (see Appendix 2.2) and taking part in a discussion.

Participants were each given one A3 size professional response sheet with critical factors grouped (in no particular order) under the following four headings:
Teacher Background;
Learner Behaviour;
School Context: design / resources, timetable, attitudes;
Professional Support and Commitment.

In order to allow participants to work at their own pace they were handed out response cards with instructions at each step of the process (see Appendix 2.3).

Step One: *Identifying relevant critical factors within own experience*
Participants were asked to place a tick in the left hand column of any critical factors which, in their professional experience, they felt were relevant to the teaching of Japanese at Years 7 and 8 and not only those relevant to their own current situation.

Step Two: *Identifying critical factors with relevance across New Zealand*
In the second column participants were asked to place a **W** next to those critical factors which they felt could have wide relevance to the teaching of Japanese at Years 7 and 8 in New Zealand but had not necessarily had personal experience of them.

Step Three: *Identifying the three most important critical factors within each group.*
Participants selected the three most important critical factors in each group without ranking them.

Step Four: Writing professional responses to critical factors

Participants were asked to address each of the three most important critical factors chosen in step three with a written professional response. This could be along the lines of what they would expect to see happening when the critical factor was being addressed.

Participants were thanked once again, and the tapes along with the completed professional response sheets were given to the researcher.

Methods of processing and analysing the data

As for stage one of the study, the researcher provided facilitators involved in stage two with blank tapes and large pieces of paper for recording the discussion and comments, chocolate nibbles for participants, and a pre-paid courier bag for returning all materials at the end of the session. In addition, each participant completed an A3-size professional response sheet.

The professional response sheets on which the seven participants wrote provided most of the data for this stage and the taped discussions which were transcribed along the same processes as for stage one (see section 3.6.1) were used to glean extra understanding of the written comments.

Critical Factors identified by teachers

The results from steps one, two and three of stage two of the research are shown in Table 3.3. In step one, teachers were asked to place a tick next to the critical factors which they felt were relevant within their own experience; in step two they placed a **W** beside the ones which they felt were relevant across New Zealand and in step three they selected the three most important critical factors overall. The results have been presented according to the ranking of the critical factors in step three. The maximum number for any of the steps is seven since there were seven teachers participating in this stage of the research.

Table 3.3 Stage Two: Steps One, Two and Three

TEACHER BACKGROUND: *Critical factors in this area are...*	One	Two	Three
Pressure and time	7	6	6
Enthusiastic staff	7	5	5
A perceived low level of personal knowledge and language skill	5	6	3
The entry behaviour of the teacher and their prior learning	3	4	2
Professional isolation	6	2	2
The sharing of successes	6	2	1
The improvement of personal confidence through learning with students	5	2	1
Regular reflection to re-establish goals	6	1	1
Keeping up to date	3	0	0

SCHOOL CONTEXT: *Critical factors in this area are...*	One	Two	Three
The availability of well-structured and excellent resources e.g. *Hai! An Introduction to Japanese.*	7	7	5
The availability of equipment for the teacher and students-TV bookings	6	5	5
Other teachers' opinions and views on the programme	5	6	4
Preparation time	7	7	3
Community attitudes	6	6	1*
The perceived competition with Te Reo Māori	4	6	1*
The availability of information that is clear and simple	5	4	1
Working with your own class	3	1	1
Teaching other people's classes	3	1	1
The size of the class	6	7	0
Integration with curriculum	4	5	0

LEARNER BEHAVIOUR: *Critical factors in this area are...*	One	Two	Three
Student attitude to Japanese	6	7	5
Students with little success in other areas finding success in Japanese	6	2	4
Different learning styles of students	5	6	3
Students who are not interested in the language	4	3	3
Integrating Japanese with the curriculum	4	3	3
Student ability to understand the concepts being taught	3	2	2
Student attitude to teacher coming from outside to teach Japanese	4	2	1
Students who need to be extended	3	3	0
Students at Year 8 who start the year with a smattering of Japanese	3	1	0
Student confidence in social studies because of prior learning in Japanese	1	1	0
Students at different points at the end of Year 7	2	0	0

PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT AND COMMITMENT *Critical factors in this area are...*	One	Two	Three
Commitment from principal	7	7	6*
Sasakawa – professional development and resource support	6	7	3*
Status for the Japanese programme	5	6	3
Recognition of the staff involved (responsibility & preparation time)	7	5	2
Staff selection and training	6	5	2
Replacing expert teachers who leave the school	4	5	2
Ministry of Education support- assistant teachers from Japan	6	7	1
Commitment from Board of Trustees	6	6	1
NZALT / NZAJLT membership and support	3	4	1
Support from local high schools - articulation issues	6	3	1
Competition between schools - Japanese as a selling point	3	1	0

Step One: perceived as critical factors relevant from own experience (max ≤7) Step Two: perceived as critical factors relevant across New Zealand (max ≤7)
Step Three: perceived as the 3 most important critical factors within each group (max ≤7; total per category ≤21) * one respondent chose 4 instead of 3 critical factors

Step One: Most relevant critical factors based on teachers' own experiences

Given that all seven teachers were part of the focus group discussion in stage one of the research where the teachers defined the critical factors, it is reassuring and to be expected that many of the critical factors scored highly in step one.

Step Two: Critical factors with relevance across New Zealand

Generally speaking, relevance within personal experience (step one) closely correlates to relevance across New Zealand (step two). However, in the case of the following four critical factors, all from the same category of teacher background, the numbers are high for personal experience but significantly lower for the other two steps.

Professional isolation

The sharing of successes

The improvement of personal confidence through learning with students

Regular reflection to re-establish goals

This could be because the critical factors above are so personal to the teachers who chose them that they can not see the same relevance for other teachers.

Step Three: The three most important critical factors within each group.

The importance of the critical factors (step three) decreases along with the relevance to personal experience and relevance across New Zealand (steps one and two). The exceptions to this pattern are

Ministry of Education support – assistant teachers from Japan

Commitment from Board of Trustees

The size of the class

A reason for this pattern with the first of these critical factors could be that the similarity with another critical factor, "Sasakawa: professional development and resource support", meant that teachers gave this latter critical factor more importance as the type of support suggested was considered more important. From discussion with teachers at the time, "Commitment from Board of Trustees" was definitely a very important factor but as they could only choose three they tended to rank principal support as more important. "The size of the class" stands out because nearly all teachers chose it as being relevant in steps one

and two and yet none of them chose it in step three. This could be because there were simply too many critical factors in this category from which to choose.

The top six critical factors across the four categories are discussed below.

1. Commitment from principal

The participants rated the commitment from Boards of Trustees as being almost as relevant as commitment from principals in both their responses to questions related to their own experience and to the situation across New Zealand. However, when asked to choose the top three in each category, they decided that while support from the Board of Trustees was still important, more often than not the principal was the most influential member of a Board and it was therefore his/her commitment that was most crucial to a programme for teaching Japanese. The teachers felt the principal can offer support by

- being enthusiastic to the Board of Trustees, staff and community about the programme;
- providing for the programme in the school's strategic plan;
- making funds available;
- recognising staff input;
- giving attention to timetabling, equipment, and the professional development of staff.

2. Pressure and time linked to preparation time

These two critical factors have been combined in this discussion to reflect the way the teachers responded. The burden that teachers felt by having another curriculum area to prepare for was strong. They emphasised how full the timetable is at Years 7 and 8 and that there are ever-increasing administrative demands being made on teachers. In response to these points they suggested that:

- resources like *Hai! An Introduction to Japanese* (Copeland, Wilson and Associates Ltd., 1998) be used;
- teachers be given opportunities to improve their time management skills;
- the teacher aide be used for copying and laminating tasks;

- Japanese be integrated into other learning situations (social studies, art, music, computing);
- the main teacher in charge of the Japanese programme be given time out of normal classroom time for preparation and study.

In addition they commented that:

- if the teacher is committed then they will find the time;
- if principals and other teachers value Japanese then the whole staff could help.

3. The availability of well-structured, and excellent resources

Participants spoke highly of resources such as *Hai! An Introduction to Japanese* (Copeland, Wilson and Associates Ltd., 1998) and the associated professional development programme. They see the need for resources with:

- a clear structure;
- sound methodology;
- supporting resources;
- opportunities for teachers to develop own knowledge and language proficiency.

One comment also acknowledged the need for the teachers themselves to take some responsibility for developing their own appropriate resources.

4. Enthusiastic staff

"If staff are forced or coerced, then maybe the subject is taught poorly, with little enthusiasm" (teacher participant).

This and other similar comments showed that the participants felt that staff should choose to teach Japanese and that there should be:

- whole-staff development to encourage and support those teaching the Japanese programme;
- opportunities to share the successes of the programme;
- opportunities for language acquisition for the teachers involved.

5. Student attitude

Participants decided that student attitude is determined by:

- immediate, positive feedback;
- enjoyable, fun experiences with interesting things happening;
- the effective use of a Japanese intern;
- community and home attitudes;
- having a positive classroom environment;
- having a variety of learning methods and experiences.

6. The availability of equipment for the teacher and students

To gain maximum benefit from the multi-media resource that all participants were using it was necessary to have ready access to the following equipment:

- audio-tape player;
- television and video player;
- overhead projector;
- photocopier.

Participants commented that without access to this equipment, there would be less variety in the learning experiences of the students. Another commented that not only did there need to be a budget for to cover the photocopying of worksheets but there should also be funds for teachers to develop their own resources. In addition to the equipment listed, teachers were also aware of computer software and programmes for the teaching and learning of Japanese but did not consider these to be absolutely necessary.

3.7 Strengths and Limitations of the Instruments

3.7.1 Focus groups

The six advantages and limitations of focus groups which Krueger refers to can be directly related to this research (Krueger, 1994, p. 34-38). These have been summarised in Table 3.4, with a reworking of the advantages and limitations that Krueger mentions on the left, and comments showing the links to this research on the right. A tick (✓) indicates that the expected strength or limitation did in fact impact on the study whereas a cross (✗) indicates that there was little or no impact on the study of that particular strength or limitation.

Table 3.4 Strengths and Limitations of Focus Groups

Strengths...		...in relation to this research
	Focus groups	
i.	are a socially oriented procedure	✓
ii.	are a helpful format to probe further	✓
iii.	have high face validity	✓
iv.	are relatively low cost	✓
v.	provide quick results	✖ researcher. Transcribing the tapes was very time-consuming
vi.	allow for an increased sample size	More in-depth discussions possible than if individual interviews had been held

Limitations...		...in relation to this research
	Focus groups	
i.	are hard to control	✓ Some groups discussed unrelated issues
ii.	are hard to analyse	✓ Links between one discussion and another were not always straight-forward
iii.	require carefully trained facilitators	✓ This was especially so as face-to-face training was not possible, e-mail helped alleviate this
iv.	have a variation across the groups	✓ Variation occurred in facilitator performance as well as with participant contributions
v.	are difficult to assemble	✖ Discussions held in the context of other, previously organised meetings
vi.	have logistical problems	✓ One group unable to make time for stage one, and three groups were unable to meet for stage two

The facilitators and focus group participants were already known to each other through the professional development contract and were able to make time within their other meetings

to discuss aspects of this study. Although Krueger makes the point that in some cases familiarity between participants or between facilitator and participants could inhibit disclosure (1994, p. 18), this was not seen to be an issue in this research as each facilitator was in a supportive rather than an appraisal role with their group of teachers.

Krueger (1994, p. 31) is also careful to point out the importance of following appropriate procedures for focus groups to ensure they measure validly what they are intending to measure. In other words, participants must not feel a need to reach a consensus; the facilitator should not be too directive, nor should they manipulate the discussion along particular lines so that participants give responses that the facilitator (thinks the researcher) wants to hear.

To avoid this type of situation the researcher prepared careful instructions for the facilitators to follow (see section 3.6.1). In spite of this only two of the five groups were able to conduct the first discussion as expected. In the other three groups the following situations occurred:

- The first group had technical problems with the tape recorder and none of the discussion was actually recorded. A brief written summary was provided by the facilitator with the brainstorm sheets. Participants in this group were able to take part in another discussion with the researcher as facilitator at the SFFJLE professional development for primary/intermediate teachers of Japanese national conference in Rotorua.
- A second group was unable to find time to hold the discussion so participants of that group joined the first group at the discussion held during the national conference.
- A third group had a very experienced facilitator who decided to start the tape only after the discussion to define the meaning of "critical factor" had finished. She then went around the group one-by-one asking them for examples of critical factors in their teaching programmes. This meant that there was little or no interaction between participants and they tended to speak only when directed to by the facilitator. Connections made between comments were created not by the participants themselves but by the facilitator. She drew the conclusions and tried hard to emphasise points

which she felt were important. For example: "So that's it really, you see it is really important that the Board [of Trustees] owns this commitment to an ongoing programme whether or not there is a change of teacher." The facilitator included herself in the experiences as can be seen from this comment: "It's remarkable that our situations are so different and yet the problems are similar, they really are." The discussion from this third group was somewhat shorter than other groups but still provided some contributions for analysis.

As mentioned above (see section 3.3.1), not all focus groups were able to meet and have their comments recorded during stage one of the research. The conference in Rotorua provided an opportunity for those who still wished to participate to do so. The researcher herself was able to facilitate this discussion and although the participants were from a mixture of focus groups the discussion was very productive lasting well over the 60 minutes allocated at the end of a busy conference day.

It was the researcher's original intention (see Figure 3.1) to have all focus groups meet during stage two to discuss professional responses to the previously identified critical factors, however this was not possible. Three of the five groups were not meeting until after the data was required for analysis. The fourth group was able to meet as planned with their facilitator and the fifth met with the researcher as their facilitator. With only two of the groups meeting for stage two, there was limited feedback on the previously generated list of critical factors and fewer people were able to discuss the professional responses. However, there were still sufficient in-depth comments made to enable the questionnaire to be developed (see section 3.5.2).

3.7.2 Questionnaire

Cohen et al. (2000, p. 262) argue that the postal questionnaire is the best form of survey in an educational inquiry, for a number of reasons. These relate primarily to the ability to gain the opinions of many people in a relatively short space of time. Mail is quick, the time for completion of a questionnaire is limited and the respondent can control the process. In

contrast to interviews, questionnaires are said to be more reliable as respondents are anonymous and therefore likely to be more honest (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 128).

While there is little opportunity with a postal questionnaire to "win over" the respondents with regard to the importance of a study, the covering letter and information sheet used in this study were aimed at addressing this issue (see Appendix 3 for a copy of each).

Uncertainty about the accuracy of the database used for the list of schools and the potential for poor response rate as a result of this were a concern. To counteract this some schools were contacted by phone or email to check their details and questionnaires were sent to more schools than originally intended. As mentioned in section 3.5.2, the letters were addressed to the principal though there was the opportunity for someone else to complete the questionnaire. In addition, procedures similar to those identified by Hoinville and Jowell (cited in Cohen et al., 2000, p. 262) were followed to ensure a good response rate. They include:

- using typed envelopes addressed to a named person wherever possible;
- enclosing a stamped envelope for the respondent's reply;
- avoiding the end of the year for completion.

The time-line, cost and the fact that the researcher was out of New Zealand did not permit follow-up letters to be sent. The 45% response rate is however in keeping with the expected response rate mentioned by Cohen et al. (2000, p. 262).

It would have taken the respondents about 30-40 minutes to read the letter with accompanying information sheet and complete the questionnaire in this study. The layout of the questionnaire was straightforward and, with the exception of the information requested regarding current teaching programmes, only ticks or letters were required in response to questions. Principals were asked to rank the critical factors using a Likert scale to indicate how important each critical factor was. As Cohen et al. (2000) points out these types of rating scales "combine the opportunity for a flexible response with the ability to determine frequencies, correlations and other forms of quantitative analysis" (p. 253). In the third section of the questionnaire respondents were asked to match the professional

responses to critical factors, following the example given (see Appendix 3.3 for a copy of the questionnaire).

To increase the validity and reliability of items of a Likert scale, Burns (1990, p. 277) advocates the random placement of items worded in a reverse direction. Burns also suggests later (p. 283) that ordering the positive and negative items randomly is one way of preventing respondents selecting the same response for all questions and is the best way to eliminate acquiescence. In this study the critical factors were listed in a random order within the five headings and the 34 professional responses were not grouped under "like" (positive and negative) items.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has described the qualitative and quantitative methods used in this research. The rationale for the use of focus group discussions and the questionnaire instruments has been given and the strengths and limitations of these have been acknowledged. In addition, the steps taken to overcome the problems associated with gathering the data; the importance of setting up appropriate procedures, such as providing guidelines and question sequences for facilitators, have been highlighted.

The data collected from the focus group discussions has also been presented and discussed. The results from the questionnaire are presented in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

Questionnaires were posted to 304 principals at schools which, according to available information, teach Japanese at Years 7 and 8. Figure 4.1 shows the breakdown of the

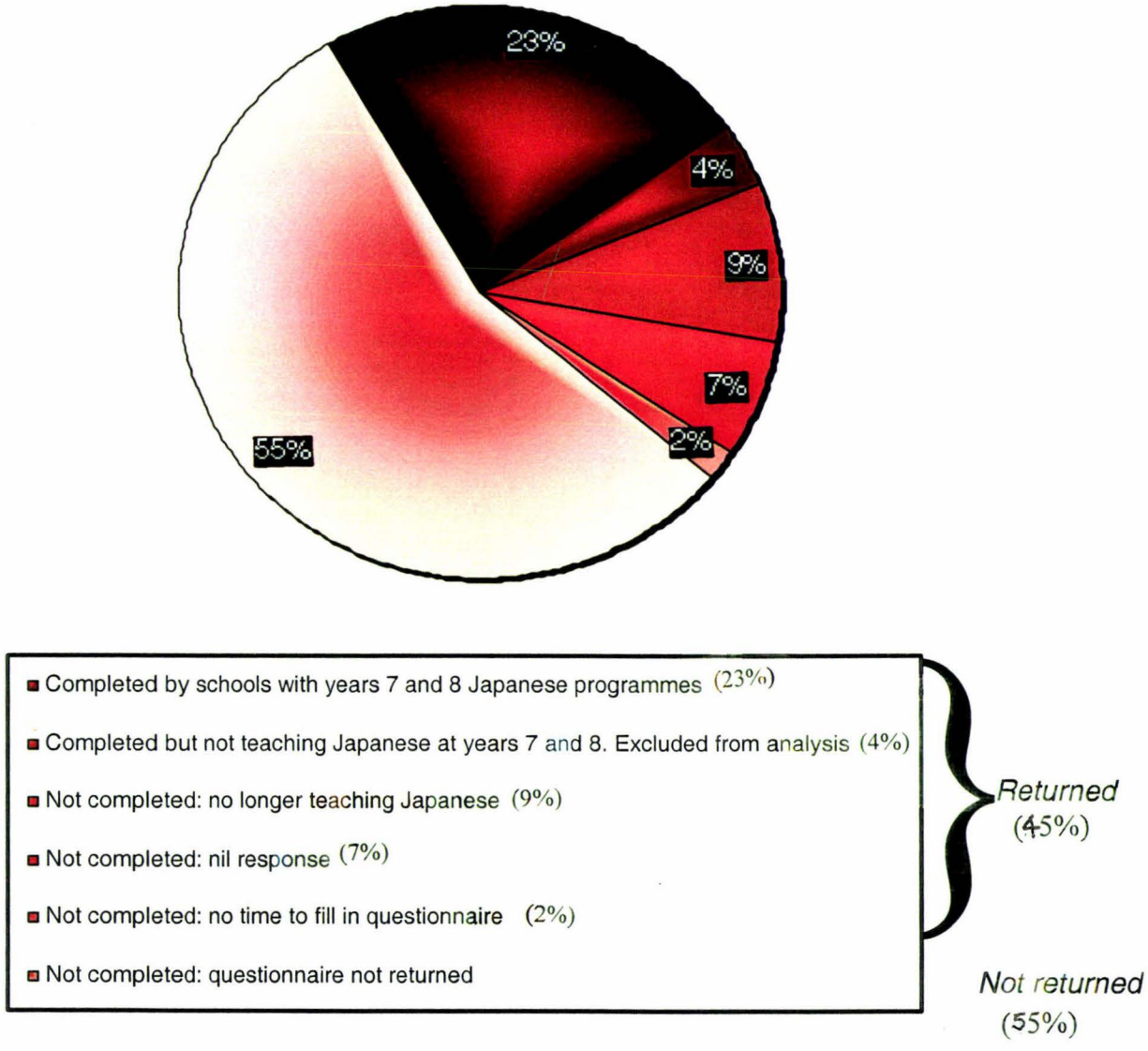

Figure 4.1 Questionnaire Returns

responses. To a certain extent, the sample of returns would have been self-selecting. Many potential respondents probably did not return the questionnaire because they do not teach Japanese at these levels. Taking this into account then, the response rate is more valid than would appear from looking solely at the return percentage.

The 72 completed returns from schools in 44 towns or cities across New Zealand have been analysed by calculating the means, frequencies and percentages of responses.

4.1.1 School types and year levels taught

The schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8 which responded to the questionnaire varied in composition: full primary, composite area schools, intermediate, restricted composite and secondary composite. The three main types of schools which participated in the study were full primary, intermediate and secondary composite.

Table 4.1 Responses by School Type

School Type	Year Levels	No. of responses
Full primary	1 to 8	21
Composite (including area schools)	1 to 13	9
Intermediate	7 and 8	20
Restricted composite	7 to 10	1
Secondary composite	7 to 13	21
Total		**72**

For the purposes of analysing the data schools were then re-grouped according to the levels at which Japanese was taught as well as by type. Table 4.2 shows these groupings. It is interesting to note that there are five schools teaching Japanese at Year 7 only and 15 at Year 8 only. The majority of schools teach Japanese at Years 7 and 8, with over two thirds or 72.2%, teaching it at both year levels.

Table 4.2 Responses by Year Levels

School Type	Teaching at Year				No. of responses
	7	8	7+8	7,8 +	
Full primary or composite where Japanese is taught prior to Year 7	1	-	-	10	11 (15.3%)
Full primary or composite where Japanese is **not** taught prior to Year 7	1	4	9	6	20 (27.8%)
Intermediate	1	3	16	-	20 (27.8%)
Secondary composite	2	8	1	10	21 (29.2%)
Total	**5**	**15**	**26**	**26**	**72 (100%)**

4.1.2 Teachers

Respondents were asked to indicate who fulfilled the role of teacher of Japanese. Only one school, (a catholic full primary school), had all teachers in the school teaching Japanese to all students at Year 8 level. The complete results for this question are seen in Table 4.3. Eleven schools indicated that there was more than one category relevant to their teaching situation, so their response for this question was divided by the number of categories chosen hence the partial numbers given.

It is interesting to note that in 34.3 schools, or in 47.6% of those who responded, all Years 7 and 8 students have the opportunity to learn Japanese albeit from someone other than their regular classroom teacher.

Primary or composite schools not teaching Japanese below Year 7 and intermediate schools had teachers spread through five options (a, b, c, d and f), whereas composite and secondary composite schools had mostly one or two teachers teaching to the all the classes (option a) and only one uses a Japanese intern. This is to be expected in the composite and secondary composite school settings which would usually draw on specialist language teachers for their classes going through to Year 13.

Table 4.3 Role of the Teacher of Japanese

	Japanese is taught by..	No. of schools
a	One or two teachers to all classes	34.3
b	Teacher(s) from outside	11.8
c	Japanese intern	12.3
d	Some teachers to own classes	7.5
e	Other	5
f	All teachers to own classes	1
	Total	**72**

Those respondents who selected options b, c, d or e may only be teaching Japanese to some classes.

Of the seven schools which selected "other" (option e), four of them were intermediate schools offering Japanese to students as an optional programme for various lengths of time. The other three schools were composite or secondary composite schools with specialist language teachers so could also have fitted into the "d" option.

4.1.3 Programmes

Principals were also asked to indicate how Japanese is incorporated into the school curriculum. The results show that regardless of school type most schools (72.2%) teach Japanese as an international language with a specific slot in the timetable devoted to Japanese although 16.7% (half of which were intermediate schools) did reply that Japanese was integrated into the curriculum and school life as a whole. Only one school taught Japanese through the social studies programme.

4.1.4 Time allocation

As indicated by Kennedy (1995, p. 17) it is difficult to determine the extent of second languages programmes across New Zealand as there is very little consistency in terms of such factors as length of classes, hours per week and weeks per year across schools. Principals and Boards of Trustees are able to make decisions based on what they see as appropriate for their school.

Three schools did not complete this section of the questionnaire, with one stating that the programme they ran was for cultural experience rather than language and another saying that the time allocation of the programme varied. With all other responses the Years 7 and 8 programmes were analysed separately. Figures 4.2 and 4.3 below, show the different programme combinations according to length of the class and the number of times a class is held each. Each mark represents one type of programme.

As expected, there is a wide variation in programme delivery across schools from 100 hours of teaching a year down to 12 hours. Within these variations are other extremes with one school offering the 100 hours in 50 minute sessions three times week and another school offering 150 minute sessions once a week. The implications of this are discussed in Chapter Five. Also of interest is that

- 90% of schools teaching at both Years 7 and 8 allocate the same time to both levels;
- the most common programme structure for both Year 7 and 8 is to offer Japanese for one class a week for the whole year (Year 7: 27% of schools and Year 8: 31.7%);
- 45.4% of schools teaching at Year 7 and 49.2% of schools teaching at Year 8 teach Japanese for the whole year (either once, twice or three times a week). The rest of the schools are more likely to teach a programme for half the year than a single term.

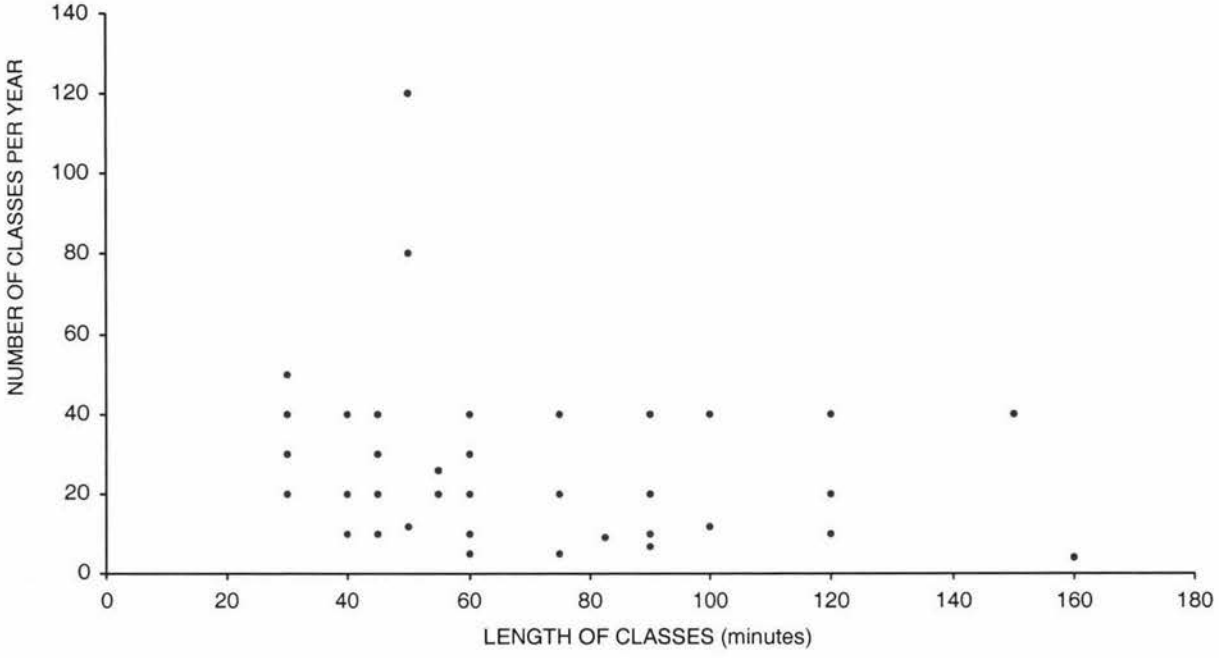

Figure 4.2 Year Seven Programmes

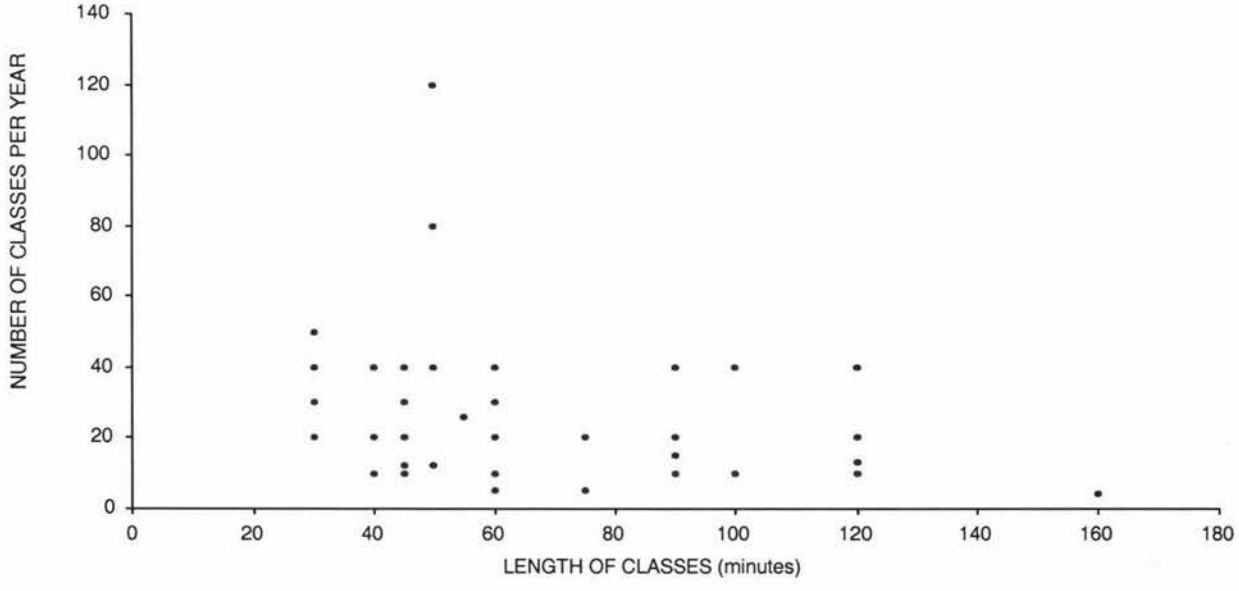

Figure 4.3 Year Eight Programmes

4.2 Critical Factors Ranked by Principals

The critical factors as defined by teachers in Part A of this research have been ranked by principals and are set out below according to the four categories. Principals were asked to rank each critical factor on a scale of 1 to 5 where a 1 is "not important" and a 5 is "very important". Although there were at least 63 responses for each critical factor only 54 principals ranked all 22 critical factors and then chose the most important one for each category. Tables 4.4 to 4.7 show two rankings for each critical factor. The results have been presented according to the first ranking which is based on the overall mean for each of the 22 critical factors from the Likert scale results. The means ranged in value from 2.98 to 4.58, indicating that all 22 critical factors held some importance and were valid in the eyes of principals as well as the teachers who generated them the first place. The second ranking is based on the number of times each critical factor was chosen as "the most important factor" for the given category.

Table 4.4 Principal Response to Critical Factors Relating to Teacher Background

Critical factors in this area are...	**Ranking Over all 22 Critical Factors**	**Most Important Ranking for this Category**
Confidence of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme	3	1
Selection of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme	4	2
Time commitment to the programme (upskilling and preparation)	7	3
Collegial support	13	5
Professional isolation (the only "Japanese expert" in the school)	21	4

The most important rankings for the top three critical factors in Table 4.4 above follow the same pattern for the overall ranking. Principals perhaps have a stronger influence on these three critical factors than the other two and this is reflected in the results.

Table 4.5 Principal Response to Critical Factors Relating to Learner Behaviour

Critical factors in this area are...	**Ranking Over all 22 Critical Factors**	**Most Important Ranking for this Category**
Catering for the different learning styles of students	14	2
Student attitude (not interested in Japanese)	15	1
Opportunities for students who struggle in other areas to find success in Japanese	18	5
Variation in the language learning ability of the students	19	3
Variation in the prior (Japanese) learning of students	22	4

All five critical factors in the category shown in Table 4.5 were ranked in the last nine places overall. This could be a reflection of the role of a principal which generally does not involve frequent contact with teachers at the planning and classroom level and hence does not allow the principal to be aware of the full impact of these critical factors on a programme. Most students would have had few opportunities to learn Japanese prior to Year 7 which could explain the low ranking for this critical factor.

Table 4.6 below shows that principals considered the availability of resources far more important than the availability of equipment even though these are often perceived to go hand-in-hand. Only one principal rated availability of equipment as "most important" factor in this category whereas 24 principals thought that clear and simple resources was the "most important" factor. Programme structure has a high ranking in both columns though as previously seen in Figures 4.2 and 4.3 there is a wide variation in programmes

across schools which suggests that while this is seen as an important factor, there is no common consensus on how it works best.

Table 4.6 Principal Response to Critical Factors Relating to School Context

Critical factors in this area are...	Ranking Over all 22 Critical Factors	Most Important Ranking for this Category
The availability of resources which are clear and simple	2	1
Programme structure (class size/teacher & student allocation/integration with other key	8	2
Maintaining a balanced curriculum	11	3
The availability of equipment for the teacher and students (TV bookings..)	12	5
Community attitudes	17	4

The final category ranked by principals has seven critical factors as opposed to five in the previous three categories (see Table 4.7). This could explain why one factor was not chosen even once as being the "most important" as there were too many from which to choose. In contrast "commitment from principal" was given a "4" or higher on the Likert scale by 93% of the principals with 45% of those who answered this question rating it the "most important" critical factor in this category. The next most "popular" critical factors "status for the Japanese programme" and "replacing expert teachers" had 34% and 8% support for "most important" respectively. Five of the critical factors in this category appear in the top ten with the highest overall ranking.

Table 4.7 Principal Response to Critical Factors Relating to Professional Support and Commitment

Critical factors in this area are...	Ranking Over all 22 Critical Factors	Most Important Ranking for this Category
Commitment from principal	1	1
Replacing expert teachers who leave the school	5	3
Status for the Japanese programme	6	2
Commitment from Board of Trustees	9	4.5
Recognition of the staff involved	10	6
Support from outside organisations	16	4.5
Support from local high schools - articulation issues	20	not chosen

4.2.1 Summary of critical factors

All critical factors received at least one maximum rating of "five" and, with the exception of the following four critical factors, all received the minimum rating possible of "one" . The minimum rating for these four factors was "two". They are:

Commitment from principal

Status for the Japanese programme

Commitment from Board of Trustees

Catering for the different learning styles of students

The top ten critical factors over all 22 critical factors all had a mean of four or higher which indicates that they are all considered very important. The critical factors which received the "most important ranking" for three categories are included but "student attitude" which was top for the category looking at learner behaviour was only ranked 15th overall so is not included. Table 4.8 below shows these top ten critical factors as perceived by principals on

the left and the top ten as perceived by teachers (see section 3.6.2) on the right. The standard deviations for eight of the top ten critical factors are below 0.90 which is a good measure of the confidence in the location of the individual means. The top three critical factors have a mean of 4.58, 4.56 and 4.53 respectively so can be considered almost equal in ranking. These top ten critical factors appear later in section 4.33 when they are matched with professional responses.

Table 4.8 Comparison of Principal and Teacher Rankings of Critical Factors

	Ranked by Principals	**Ranked by Teachers**
1	Commitment from principal	Commitment from principal
2	The availability of resources which are clear and simple	Time commitment to the programme (upskilling and preparation)
3	Confidence of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme	The availability of resources which are clear and simple
4	Selection of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme	Enthusiastic teachers
5	Replacing expert teachers who leave the school	Student attitude
6	Status for the Japanese programme	Availability of equipment
7	Time commitment to the programme (upskilling and preparation)	Other teachers' opinions and views on the programme
8	Programme structure (class size/teacher & students allocation/integration with other key learning areas)	Students with little success in other areas finding success in Japanese
9	Commitment from Board of Trustees	Sasakawa –professional development and resource support
10	Recognition of the staff involved	A perceived low level of personal knowledge and language skill
		Different learning styles of students
		Status for the Japanese programme

The rankings by principals are determined by the Likert scale means. The rankings by teachers are determined from stage two of the focus group discussions which asked participants to indicate the relevance of each critical factor from their own experience, the relevance across New Zealand and the three most important critical factors overall (see section 3.6.2). The treatment of the rankings for each group is slightly different due to the fact that one of the functions of the focus groups was to explore the relative importance of the critical factors and trial some of the ideas for the questionnaire. A direct comparison of the rankings is not intended here, rather that Table 4.8 indicates the importance of the critical factors within each professional group.

The first three critical factors as ranked by the principals are also considered relatively important by the teachers. Teachers do not consider the next three critical factors as important as those (such as availability of equipment and student attitude) which directly impact on their ability to teach. With the exception of one group, the focus group discussions centred on critical factors which were of immediate relevance to classroom teachers. This exception occurred because two members of the group were in fact a deputy principal and a principal who, although new to the teaching of Japanese, could relate the critical factors to wider issues outside the classroom. These two talked about the vision and value of learning languages, what has to be put into place before a programme begins and the responsibilities of principals and Boards of Trustees.

4.3 Professional Responses Matched with Critical Factors by Principals

4.3.1 Collecting professional responses

Principals were asked to match 34 professional responses to each of the 22 critical factors. The professional responses could be matched to as many critical factors as appropriate and not all had to be used (see Appendix 3.3). Of the 72 respondents, 15 chose not to complete this part of the questionnaire. There were perhaps too many responses to choose from even though the professional responses given by the focus groups had been reworded and reduced in number. Table 4.9 shows the distribution of schools whose principals completed this section of the questionnaire.

Table 4.9 Replies to Professional Responses

	School Type	Responses to previous sections	Responses to this section
(i)	Full primary or composite where Japanese is taught prior to Year 7	11	7
(ii)	Full primary or composite where Japanese is **not** taught prior to Year 7	20	16
(iii)	Intermediate	20	18
(iv)	Secondary composite	21	16
	Total	**72**	**57**

4.3.2 Collating and analysing professional responses

Due to the large number of professional responses and possible combinations, it was decided to analyse the matching of these to the critical factors in relation to the four broad categories: teacher background; learner behaviour; school context; and professional support and commitment, rather than to individual critical factors. To determine whether school type had a bearing on professional responses chosen, they were first tallied and given a rank number within each school type before comparisons were made across the schools. The lower the rank number the more frequently the professional response was chosen in any given school type. The top five professional responses in each category were determined from the total number of responses across school type.

The highest ranking professional response in the first category (see Table 4.10 below), received a number one ranking from all four school types. No other professional response, regardless of category received this ranking across the schools. Principals from types (ii) and (iii) schools - primary and composite schools not teaching Japanese before Year 7 and intermediate schools - rated "the school has ongoing commitment to the Japanese programme" and "train more than one teacher in Japanese" a lot higher than other schools types. Secondary composite principals ranked the provision of a "budget for membership of professional organizations" very highly.

Table 4.10 Principal Selection of Professional Responses Relating to Teacher Background

Total No. of Responses	Top Five Professional Responses	Rank Number by School Type			
		(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
34	Professional development opportunities for teachers of Japanese to mix with teachers from other schools	1	1	1	1
27	Professional development programmes for participants to experience the learning themselves	2	4	3	3.5
26	One teacher repeats the same lesson to other classes	4.5	2	3	6
22	Use only teachers who volunteer to teach Japanese	8	4	6	8
21	Budget for outside Professional development courses (Ministry of Education / Sasakawa / Colleges of Education/ NZALT)	4.5	9	11	2

In the two categories mentioned in Tables 4.11 and 4.12 below, type (i) schools - primary or composite schools teaching before Year 7 had quite different rankings to other school types. Principals from these schools chose "use Japanese for classroom routines as much as possible" as often as any other professional response. They also chose "make opportunities for the programme to be shared within the school community" ahead of the fourth and fifth professional responses listed in Table 4.11 here but, as the total number for these two professional responses was only nine, they do not appear in the top five for this category.

In Table 4.12 below, six (instead of five) professional responses are presented as numbers are too close to leave one out. Principals from type (iii) - intermediate schools - again chose "the school has an ongoing commitment to the Japanese programme" ahead of other school types.

Table 4.11 Principal Selection of Professional Responses Relating to Learner Behaviour

Total No. of Responses	Top Five Professional Responses	Rank Number by School Type (i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
38	Use hands-on activities in class	1	1.5	1.5	1
32	Students given work according to prior learning	2	1.5	1.5	3.5
21	Students put in classes according to prior learning	4.5	3	3.5	6.5
17	The learning of Japanese is made optional	10.5	6	3.5	3.5
20	The acheivement of milestones in learning are celebrated and recognised (assembly/certificates)	6.5	4	5	2

Table 4.12 Principal Selection of Professional Responses Relating to School Context

Total No. of Responses	Top Six Professional Responses	Rank Number by School Type (i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
29	Equip the Japanese classroom with OHP /video/tv	3	1	1	1
19	School policy documents outline the value and benefits of learning an international language	3	6.5	2.5	3.5
19	Make opportunities for the programme to be shared within the school community (festival day/daily bulletin)	7	2	2.5	7
18	Surveys/newsletters sent home about the programme (ideas for homework support given)	3	4	4	7
17	School policy documents state the commitment to Japanese, that the learning is not just a "fill-in/fun-extra"	3	6.5	6	3.5
17	Copies of key resources made available to all staff	7	4	6	3.5

In addition to the professional responses listed in Table 4.13 below, principals from types (iii) and (iv) schools - intermediate and secondary composite schools - rated "give professional recognition to teachers involved in the programme" highly. All school types recognised that school policy documents need to acknowledge the Japanese programme.

Table 4.13 Principal Selection of Professional Responses Relating to Professional Support and Commitment

Total No. of Responses	Top Five Professional Responses	Rank Number by School Type			
		(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
36	School policy documents state the commitment to Japanese, that the learning is not just a "fill-in/fun-extra"	2	1	2	2
35	School policy documents outline the value and benefits of learning an international language	2	3	2	1
30	The school has ongoing commitment to the Japanese programme (reflected in staffing allocations and appointments)	2	3	2	4.5
25	Budget for outside Professional development courses (Ministry of Education /Sasakawa / Colleges of Education/ NZALT)	4.5	3	5.5	4.5
21	Budget for membership of professional organisations such as: NZ Association of Japanese Language Teachers.	7	5.5	5.5	9.5

4.3.3 Summary of professional responses

When looking at the number of times professional responses were matched to critical factors across all four categories and school types, Table 4.14 shows the 12 which were most frequently chosen.

Table 4.14 Top Professional Responses Chosen by Principals

Total Overall	Top 12 Professional Responses
69	School policy documents state the commitment to Japanese, that the learning is not just a 'fill-in / fun-extra'
64	The school has ongoing commitment to the Japanese programme (reflected in staffing allocations/appointments)
62	School policy documents outline the value and benefits of learning an international language
54	Professional development opportunities for teachers of Japanese to mix with teachers from other schools
51	Use hands-on activities in class
50	The achievement of milestones in learning are celebrated and recognised (assembly/certificates)
49	Budget for outside professional development courses (Ministry of Education /Sasakawa/Colleges of Education/NZALT)
45	Make opportunities for the programme to be shared within the school community (festival day/daily bulletin)
44	Equip the Japanese classroom with overhead projector, video and television
43	Professional development programmes for participants to experience the learning themselves
41	Surveys/newsletters sent home about the programme (ideas for homework support given)
41	Make time allowances for teachers of Japanese for study and planning

The top ten critical factors highlighted in section 4.2.1 are now presented in Table 4.15 alongside the most frequently matched professional responses. These critical factors deal with leadership, resourcing, teacher background and support, and programme structure.

Table 4.15 Top Ten Critical Factors Matched to Professional Responses by Principals

Top Ten Critical Factors	Most Frequently Matched Professional Response(s)
Commitment from principal	• School policy documents outline the value and benefits of learning an international language
The availability of resources which are clear and simple	• Copies of key resources made available to all staff
Confidence of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme	• Professional development opportunities for teachers of Japanese to mix with teachers from other schools
Selection of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme	• One teacher repeats the same lesson to other classes
Replacing expert teachers who leave the school	• Train more than one teacher in the school in Japanese
Status for the Japanese programme	• School policy documents state the commitment to Japanese, that the learning is not just a "fill-in/fun-extra"
Time commitment to the programme (upskilling and preparation)	• Use a teacher aide or administration staff for photocopying and resource collation tasks • Make time allowances for teachers of Japanese for study and planning
Programme structure (class size, teacher & student allocation, integration with other key learning areas)	• The school has ongoing commitment to the Japanese programme (reflected in staffing allocations/appointments)
Commitment from Board of Trustees	• School policy documents state the commitment to Japanese, that the learning is not just a "fill-in/fun-extra" • School policy documents outline the value and benefits of learning an international language
Recognition of the staff involved	• Give professional recognition to teachers involved in the programme (management units)

The professional responses selected provide specific ways to address these critical factors. Boards of Trustees along with the senior management team in a school are responsible for the delivery of programmes which offer students a range of learning opportunities appropriate to their individual needs. The learning of languages should be no different to any other learning area in terms of the planning and support it receives in schools. The processes for curriculum implementation are as valid as for any other learning area. The NZALT recognised this when they wrote and distributed guidelines called *Policy on language teaching and learning in secondary schools* (1995) to assist schools in this task. This policy document is serious about the promotion of international languages and through its eight sections (listed below) and makes recommendations that other learning areas take for granted. The eight sections are:

The curriculum

- Student assessment
- Timetabling and organization
- Curriculum support
- Professional standards
- Industrial and professional incentives
- Promotion of language teaching and learning
- Resource management and future planning

In relation to links with Years 7 and 8 these guidelines mention the importance of continuity of programmes, and schools are advised to take into account any learning at earlier levels. However, no practical guidance is given on how this might be done. Secondary schools are given very specific advice on class size, contact hours and resourcing of international language classes. Recommendations are expressed strongly though these guidelines carry no political weight. A problem with the layout and page numbering of the document does raise minor questions about its integrity. More recent guidelines, due out in 2001, this time with support from the Ministry of Education, will be more applicable to schools teaching international languages below Year 9 (H.Buchanan, personal communication, October 9, 2000). It is hoped that they will address some of the critical factors identified in this research.

The other organisation helping to address some of these critical factors for Japanese teachers at Years 7 and 8 is the SFFJLE through the professional development programme. This programme not only provides teachers of Japanese with learning and teaching skills supported by high quality resources but it also provides teachers with the skills to assist them in promoting the whole Japanese programme. This includes sessions on writing policy documents for the school and gives teachers knowledge about the value of learning Japanese and how to ensure Boards of Trustees and principals are well-informed about the needs and requirements of the programme.

4.4 Summary

This chapter provides the results from the questionnaire used in Part B of this research. The types of schools, teachers and teaching programmes for Japanese at Years 7 and 8 show that a range of schools across New Zealand is represented in this research. Over half schools which responded to the questionnaire are offering Japanese to both Years 7 and 8 students and nearly all of these schools have the same time allocation and programme structure for both levels. However, the variation across schools is considerable.

These results have addressed the research questions (see section 1.5) from the perspective of principals in schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8. Four school types were identified though in most cases the type of school did not have a great bearing on rankings of critical factors and professional responses. Key areas highlighted in Table 4.15 are leadership, teacher background and support, and programme structure are the four. These are discussed further in the following chapter in relation to the research questions and in the context of the teaching of Japanese at Years 7 and 8 both in New Zealand and overseas.

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

This chapter examines the results of this study in relation to the research questions and the findings from the literature. The research questions were:

1. What are the most critical factors in the implementation of a Japanese programme at Years 7 and 8?
2. Which professional responses do teachers and principals perceive as most relevant to address the identified critical factors?
3. What are the implications for Japanese teaching programmes at Years 7 and 8?

The results presented in the previous chapter addressed the first two questions so, following an initial summary of these, this chapter will deal mainly with the third question which examines the wider implications of those results.

5.1 What are the Most Critical Factors?

These are discussed below, in relation to the responses made by both principals and teachers involved in this study, under the categories: teacher background; learner behaviour; school context; professional support and commitment.

5.1.1 Teacher background

The three critical factors selected by principals in this section are teacher confidence, time commitment and teacher selection. Time commitment was the second most important critical factor for focus group participants and these teachers also recognised the importance of not only being enthusiastic teachers of Japanese but also of having appropriate Japanese language (see section 3.6.1). Teacher selection was not rated as highly by teachers, perhaps because they have little influence in that area.

The confidence of teachers to deliver a Japanese language programme is related not only to

their language ability but perceptions of the status of the programme within the school and their role in the programme. Peddie et al. (1999, p. 83) note that in the case of someone other than the regular teacher taking the Japanese class, the motivation of the students was higher if their own classroom teacher remained and took an active part in the lesson. Davis-Wiley (1994) also reported the benefits of the involvement of the classroom teacher in the language lessons.

The professional responses matched with the critical factors in this section have implications for staffing, teacher training and professional development.

5.1.2 Learner behaviour

Student attitude was the highest rated critical factor in this category by principals, but compared to teachers in focus groups who selected it as the fifth most important critical factor, principals rated it only 15th most important overall. Williams (1997) had some sobering things to say from teachers' perspectives about students who moved on to secondary school after having learned Japanese at Years 7 and 8 (see section 2.4.1). These inadequacies have been addressed through the current professional development programmes but only a small number of teachers have been able to take advantage of this (see section 5.3.2).

5.1.3 School context

Both focus group participants and principals considered the availability of resources the most important critical factor in this category with all staff having access to copies of the key resources as the most often matched professional response to this critical factor. Having a good resource is only part of the equation and is seen perhaps as a "quick-fix" by many teachers and principals (see section 5.3.1).

The current variations in the programme structure for Japanese at Years 7 and 8 are a far cry from the recommended "hour a week spread over three or four periods" (Ewing, 1970, p. 257) for the learning of international languages at primary schools.

The review of the SLLP revealed that 85% of schools disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that offering languages "just a couple of times a week" was "pointless" (Peddie et al., 1999, p. 107). This research has shown that the most common programme structure for Japanese is even less than that (see section 4.1.4).

Implications of the findings for this category relate to school policy with regard to catering for the needs of language programmes in terms of staffing and resourcing.

5.1.4 Professional commitment and support

Teachers and principals alike rated "commitment from the principal" as the most important critical factor. It is not surprising given that the teaching of international languages is entirely a school-based decision (see section 2.1). Hence the implications outlined through the professional responses in this category centre on the commitment to the Japanese programme by schools through their policy documents and on the professional development of the teachers.

5.2 What are the Most Effective Responses to the Critical Factors?

Although 34 professional responses were generated by teachers in Part A of the study for use in the questionnaire in Part B, this list is by no means exhaustive. Those which were chosen most frequently ranged from the policy end of the spectrum to quite specific approaches to learning in the classroom. The "effectiveness" of these professional responses as perceived by principals is measured by the number of times they were voted for in the questionnaire. The most popular professional responses to the critical factors (see Tables 4.14 and 4.15), saw the commitment from the principal being realised through the provision of school policy documents. These documents would detail a planned and considered approach to critical factors such as staffing, timetabling, resourcing, and ongoing support for the Japanese programme.

5.3 Implications and Recommendations: How Should the Critical Factors be Addressed?

Even though not all principals in all schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8 responded to the questionnaire, the findings and implications can be considered a good indication of responses which could be expected from the rest of that group (see section 4.1).

From the findings in Table 4.15 showing the results of the top professional responses matched to critical factors by principals in this study, the key areas implicated are leadership, teacher background and support, and programme structure. Implications are discussed therefore under these headings and in the wider New Zealand context.

5.3.1 Leadership

When deciding to implement a second language learning programme at Years 7 and 8, Boards of Trustees and principals can and should access the support of the following:

- the international language advisors through the Association of Colleges of Education, New Zealand;
- the Second Language Learning Funding Pool (Ministry of Education);
- the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education professional development programme;
- the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers guidelines for developing a school languages policy (due for release 2001).

As some of the results in this study have shown, teachers do not always share the same priorities as their principals. They do however agree that the commitment from the principal is the most important critical factor in any Japanese programme. It would make sense then to involve the teacher(s) of Japanese in the formation of school policy in relation to the Japanese programme. Rosenbusch (1995) goes even further by stating that a steering committee should be formed whose members represent "all those who have a stake in the implemention" (p. 1). In this list of stakeholders she includes parents, teachers, school administrators from both primary and secondary schools, district administrators and

business and community members. Amongst other tasks, this committee would be responsible for clarifying the reasons for implementing the programme, deciding on a programme structure, addressing articulation issues, informing stakeholders of decisions made, and exploring local support for the programme (Rosenbusch, 1995, p. 2).

Once policy is decided and written, the signal is clear that commitment and ongoing support from the principal and Boards of Trustees exist for the learning and teaching of international languages in the school.

Just under a quarter of the responses to the research by Peddie et al. cited that there was good Board of Trustees and parental support for the second language programmes and a similar number viewed an essential languages as an essential part of the primary curriculum (1999, p. 108). Clearly if the number of students learning a second language at Years 7 and 8 is to increase along the goals of *Education for the 21st Century* (Ministry of Education, 1993) then more Boards of Trustees and principals need to be persuaded of the value of learning second languages.

5.3.2 Teacher background and support

There needs to be initial and ongoing training for all Japanese language teachers at this level through teacher education, training and professional development. The second language learning projects supported by the Ministry of Education (see section 2.2) are dependent on the government of the day for funding. These programmes go only part way towards meeting the ongoing professional development needs required by the teaching of international languages. The 1999 statistical returns from schools to the Ministry of Education reveal that 9.5% of students at Year 7 and 13.9% of students at Year 8 study Japanese. These students represent 300 schools which means that, by the end of the three year SFFJLE professional development programme for primary and intermediate teachers catering for up to 25 schools a year, there will still be at least 225 schools who have not had access to this programme.

The initial training needs to take place both at the pre-service and in-service levels. Ewing

(1970, p. 258) highlighted the "need for a course in the theory and practice of the oral approach to foreign language teaching within the training programme for primary teachers" While the oral approach is not as popular these days, the message is still relevant, that primary teacher trainees need to have appropriate courses in foreign language learning and teaching. None of the 19 providers of primary pre-service teacher education in New Zealand currently offers the teaching of international languages as part of their programme. Teacher education students with an interest in international languages may have the opportunity to explore some of the language curriculum documents as part of a study of the "Language and Languages" learning area but little guidance is available in their use or application for specific languages.

Results from this research revealed that a number of teachers teaching Japanese at these levels were either from outside the school (13.8%) or were Japanese interns (12.5%). This figure is similar to that in the Kennedy study of all schools offering second languages at Years 7 and 8 (1995) where 12% had arrangements with staff from local secondary schools to deliver the programme. It is likely that those from outside the school come from local secondary schools and are therefore trained in second language teaching (though not necessarily specialising in Japanese) and the interns may have had formal teacher training in Japan but not necessarily in second language teaching and certainly not in the New Zealand teaching context. In this study, a few of the remaining 73.7% of teachers teaching at Years 7 and 8 will have had the opportunity to be involved in the SFFJLE programme but the majority will be learning along with the students and will have had little background in the learning or teaching of Japanese. The competency of Japanese language teachers in New Zealand is not a new concern. Richards makes it clear in his discussion that the language proficiency and communicative ability of second language teachers is a necessary pre-requisite to teach the target language (1996a, p. 2). Teachers of international language should be able to perform certain functions in the classroom such as giving instructions, questioning, and establishing attention in the target language (Heaton, 1981, cited in Richards, 1996a). Haugh (1997), Nuibe (1992, cited in Haugh, 1997) and Aschoff (1991) all make reference to the need for the teachers of Japanese in New Zealand secondary schools to be competent in the language.

The suggestion by Cummins and Swain (1986, cited in Ellis, 2000), that it takes two years for language learners to acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in English while living in an English speaking environment and, five to seven years to acquire cognitive academic language proficiency, certainly puts unrealistic expectations on any current serious attempts to "upskill" teachers in New Zealand to teach second languages to Years 7 and 8 students.

From another angle, the New Zealand Education Review Office (2000) reveals that Boards of Trustees stated that in-service training priorities for staff are determined mostly in response to government initiatives or internal review cycles. Boards of Trustees rated second language teaching equal to training along with training in the Treaty of Waitangi /Tikanga Māori and First Aid at 3%, all slightly higher than special abilities at the bottom with 2%. Other school policy decisions are also most likely to be determined by government initiatives. Ellis (2000) and others as mentioned in chapter two are convinced that a national policy for languages is the only way this will happen.

5.3.3 Programme structure

Slightly more than 72% of schools in this study teach Japanese as a separate subject. The most common time allowance is one period a week for the whole year. Over seventy years ago, Beeby, the then Director of Education said that the intermediate school's main function was to provide between Years 6 and 9 "a period of expansive, realistic and integrative education that will give all future citizens a common basis of experience and knowledge" (1938, cited in Ewing, 1970). This has certainly not been the case with regard to international languages.

More recently, Pesola states that the "elementary school foreign language programs must be considered part of the total foreign language program, not a mere prelude unrelated to the goals and activities of the secondary curriculum" (1988, p. 1). The only critical factor in this study relating to secondary schools asked teachers and principals of Years 7 and 8 schools to consider the importance of "support from local high schools and articulation

issues". Not once was it chosen as being the most important critical factor in that category and it was also given little importance on its own. This is a significant result as, according to Williams (1997), Year 9 teachers of New Zealand students with prior learning in Japanese are dissatisfied with the situation (see section 2.4.1). Wilson (1988) gives clear guidelines on how schools should address the issue of horizontal and vertical articulation. With regard to horizontal articulation – continuity within a course level - she makes the comment that schools must cover "the same [learning] objectives at each level, while utilizing similar strategies and instructional materials" (p. 1). Wilson places responsibility on secondary schools with regard to vertical articulation – continuity to the next level of the curriculum – by saying that they "may need to develop several program tracks to serve the needs of the elementary school language learner" (1988, p. 1). Further research on this issue in New Zealand is currently being supported by the SSFJLE.

As a starting point, a school teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8 should provide secondary schools with information about the programme studied and secondary schools should be developing appropriate programmes to cater for the prior learning of some of their students. A lot more consideration, however, could be given to the notion of integrated curriculum with methods such as the embedded method suggested by Johnstone (1994) worthy of further exploration. Not only could vertical articulation issues be dealt with in a planned and logical manner but the issue of the crowded curriculum could also be addressed.

CHAPTER SIX
CONCLUSION

"The success of any curriculum depends on the enthusiasm and respect with which it is accepted and understood by teachers" (Professor Bailey, Victoria University, 1970, cited in Ewing, 1970, p. vi).

This statement still has some validity in relation to the teaching of international languages in New Zealand today. Results from the study reported here have revealed that teachers and principals acknowledge the importance of enthusiastic and confident teachers in Japanese programmes. This study has also shown that the most critical factors in Japanese teaching programmes at Years 7 and 8 centre around the commitment from the principal, the availability of appropriate resources and the opportunities for professional development and support. For a principal to be committed, he or she must recognise the value of learning international languages. Many will fail to do this without suitable encouragement from the government. Chapter Two began with a quotation from *Education for the 21st Century* (Ministry of Education, 1993) expressing the goal for 50% of students at Year 10 level to be able to communicate in a language other than their own by the year 2001. Even taking into account the steady increase of students studying Japanese at Years 7 and 8, the numbers of students at Year 9 do not reflect this increase at the lower levels.

Teachers and principals did not rate "support from local high schools" and articulation issues highly. It could be that the term "articulation" was not well understood. This is an issue which requires careful consideration across all regions of New Zealand and one which has gained attention overseas also (Johnstone, 1994; Marriott et al., 1994). NZALT and the international language advisers continue to encourage communication between language teachers at all levels through local support groups.

The aim of this study was to identify the critical factors in Years 7 and 8 Japanese teaching programmes to help guide schools in their planning and implementation decisions. Table

4.15 in particular is useful when considering the implementation of not only Japanese teaching programmes but also for programmes for other international languages at these levels. Without a deliberate planned strategy on a national basis, the direction and impetus for the teaching of Japanese and other international languages must come from the schools. Currently only some schools are receiving support from the Ministry of Education's second language learning project and the SFFJLE professional development programme. The impetus that exists at the moment must be maintained and supported. Keeping in mind the points Ellis (2000) made in his address to language teachers and the need to reflect local needs as indicated by Peddie et al. (1999), schools must make informed decisions about the types of programmes they implement. The NZALT (1995) recommend programmes which "develop practical language proficiency" (p.7) for secondary schools. However, this goal may not be so appropriate for study at earlier levels.

At present, students enrolled in programmes for preservice primary teacher education in New Zealand have little or no opportunity to integrate their own second language skills or those of their pupils into classroom learning situations. Teacher education providers can help by:

- integrating the curriculum documents for languages into existing programmes;
- creating opportunities for the teaching and learning of international languages;
- exploring the learning and teaching of other curriculum areas through languages other than English or Te Reo Māori.

The types of programmes and time allocations for the teaching of Japanese at Years 7 and 8 vary widely. This confirms an earlier report commissioned by the Ministry of Education which covered the teaching of all second languages at these levels. (Kennedy, 1994). A consistent approach to curriculum design and programme planning is needed. One approach could be to develop a national scheme based on current practice as discussed by Peddie et al. (1999, p.122). Current practice however may not be best practice. The approaches mentioned Pesola (1988) could be explored alongside others such as the embedding (Johnstone, 1994, chapter two). The Australian experience must also be acknowledged and heed taken of the advice by Marriott, Neustupny and Spence-Brown

(1994) as appropriate. Appropriate piloting of favoured models alongside the establishment of steering committees as suggested by Rosenbusch (1995) would aid this process.

With the imminent release of new guidelines from the Ministry of Education for the implementation of programmes for the teaching international languages, it is hoped that Boards of Trustees will be actively encouraged to implement its recommendations in their schools. The call for a national language policy must continue to be made to ensure current programmes can continue to enhance the learning opportunities of our students at these levels. There is no guarantee that the current level of support from government and non-government sources will continue. Without firm policy it is unlikely that the recommendations in this chapter will happen. From the following statement it is clear that the New Zealand Education Review Office agrees "until there is an entitlement [for students to study a second language] there is unlikely to be improved student participation or higher student achievement in this area of the New Zealand curriculum (1994).

The types of initiatives suggested in the previous chapter require long term planning and research. Not only do current programmes need maintaining but also principals and teachers need reassurance that their efforts are not wasted.

> The learning of a second language must be regarded as a necessary part of a total personality formation in the modern world, since it should enable a person to live and move freely in more than one culture and free him from the limitations imposed by belonging to, and being educated within, a single cultural group and a single linguistic community. It is essential not only from the point of view of society but also for the individual himself and his personal education.
> (1962,UNESCO conference, Hamburg, cited in Bancroft, 1977).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aschoff, T. (1991). *Japanese language in New Zealand secondary schools.* Working paper No. 2. Palmerston North: New Zealand Centre for Japanese Studies.

Aschoff, T. (1992). *Reasons for studying Japanese in New Zealand secondary schools.* Working paper No. 3. Palmerston North: New Zealand Centre for Japanese Studies.

Bancroft, D. (1977). A second language: An outward looking balance? *SET* (No.2.), Item 3. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Brown, H. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching.* (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Brown, D. (2000). *Cooperative learning in New Zealand schools.* Palmerston North: Dunmore Press Ltd.

Burns, R. B. (1990). *Introduction to research methods in education.* Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.

Clark, B. (1998). *Second language learning in international languages. Report to the Ministry of Education.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Teacher Education.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education.* (5th ed.). London: Routledge.

Copeland, Wilson and Associates Ltd. (1998). *Hai! An introduction to Japanese.* Wellington: Copeland Wilson and Associates Ltd.

Clyne, M. (Ed.). (1986). *An early start: Second language at primary school.* Melbourne: River Seine.

Criminale, U. (1985, March). *Launching foreign language programs in elementary schools: Highpoints, headaches and how to's.* Paper presented at the International Conference on Second/Foreign Language Acquisition by Children, Oklahoma City. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 255 039).

Crombie, W. & Paltridge, B. (1993). Aoteareo: The way forward. A response to Aoteareo: Speaking for ourselves. In D. Whitehead, W. Crombie, B. Paltridge & P. Balingall (Eds.), *Working papers in Language Education*, No.1, pp 15-30. Hamilton, New Zealand: The University of Waikato, Language Institute.

Davis-Wiley, P. (1994, November). *The impact of foreign language instruction in the elementary school arena: It does make a difference.* Paper presented at the Mid-South Educational Research Association Conference, Nashville, Tennessee.

Directorate of School Education and Ministerial Advisory Council on Languages Other Than English. (1993). *Languages other than English: Strategy Plan.* Melbourne: Directorate of School Education.

Dutch, R. A. (Ed.). (1983). *Roget's Thesaurus* (12 ed.). Middlesex: Penguin Books.

Edelenbos, P. & Johnstone, R. (Ed.). (1996). *Researching languages at primary school: Some European perspectives.* London: CILT in collaboration with Scottish CILT (University of Stirling) and GION (University of Groningen).

Education Review Office. (2000). *In-service training for teachers in New Zealand schools.* Wellington: New Zealand Government.

Education Review Office. (1994). *Second language learning.* [Online] Available: http//www.ero.govt.nz./Publication/eers1994/94no6hl.htmtth2.7 [2000, November 21]

Ellis, R. (2000, 5 July). *What makes for successful language learning?* Paper presented at the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers Conference, Rotorua, New Zealand.

Ewing, J. L. (1970). *Development of the New Zealand primary school curriculum 1877-1970:* New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Fowler, F., & Fowler, H. (Eds.). (1924). *The pocket Oxford dictionary of current English* (5th ed.). Oxford: University Press.

Gao, M. (1995) Asian languages in Australia. *Babel 31* (1), 14-17.

Harris, M. (1996). *New Zealand parents' guide to primary school.* Auckland: Pascal Press.

Haugh, M. (1997). *The teaching of Japanese in New Zealand.* Occasional paper No. 8. Auckland: The University of Auckland.

Heining-Boynton, A. L. (1988). Current foreign language in the elementary school programs in the state of Michigan. *Foreign Language Annals, 21* (3), 241-251.

Howden, B. (1996) Primary school languages: A growth area. *Babel 31* (2), 37.

Hunt, G. (1994, 17 June). Carving a niche in Asia takes more than language tokenism. *National Business Review,* p. 54.

Huse, S. (1997). Closing the language barrier. *New Zealand Education Review, 1*(40, 5 March), 20.

Johnstone, R. (1994) *Teaching modern languages at primary school: Approaches and implications.* Edinburgh: The Scottish Council for Research in Education.

Kaplan, R. (1993). New Zealand National Languages Policy: Making the patient more comfortable. Crombie, W. & Paltridge, B. (1993). Aoteareo: The way forward. A response to Aoteareo: Speaking for ourselves. In D. Whitehead, W. Crombie, B. Paltridge & P. Balingall (Eds.), *Working papers in Language Education*, No.1, pp 3-14. Hamilton, New Zealand: The University of Waikato, Language Institute.

Kennedy, S. (1995). Second language learning for forms 1 and 2. *Research Bulletin,* 5(July), pp. 14-27.

Kings, B. (1976). 'Do you see languages as an integral part of the curriculum?'. *New Zealand Language Teacher,* p.13.

Kindler, J. (1995) Languages, who needs them?: A view from Oz. *Babel 31* (1), 8-10.

Kirkpatrick, A. (1996) Learning languages in Australia: Which languages and when? *Babel 30* (1), 6-11, 26- .

Knight, G., & Meyer, D. (1996). *Critical factors in the implementation of the new mathematics curriculum* (funded by Ministry of Education). Auckland: Massey University.

Krueger, R. (1994). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research.* (2nd ed.). California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Lewthwaite, B. (1998). Teaching primary science: The problem concept areas. *NZ Science Teacher, 88*, 28-31.

Lewthwaite, B. (1999). Teacher perceptions of factors influencing the implementation of science in the New Zealand curriculum. *NZ Science Teacher, 90,* 14-18.

McLeod, W. T. (Ed.). (1986). *Collins gem thesaurus* (1977 ed.). London: Collins.

McQueen, H. (1994, 21 January). Language learning changes are not enough. *National Business Review,* p.10.

Marriott, H. et.al. (1994) *Unlocking Australia's language potential: Profiles of 9 key languages in Australia. Volume 7 Japanese* . Deakin: A.C.T.

Met, M. (1985). Decisions! Decisions! Decisions! Foreign language in the elementary school. *Foreign Language Annals, 18*(6).

Met, M. (1994). Current foreign language practices in middle schools. *Foreign Language Annals, 27*(1), 43-58.

Met, M. (1996). Middle schools and foreign languages: A view for the future. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 392 246).

Minister of Education Working Party. (1976). *Second language learning in New Zealand.* Wellington: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education, New Zealand. (1993). *The New Zealand curriculum framework.* Wellington: Learning Media.

Ministry of Education (1996). *Secondary education statistics 1996: Selected tables summarising 31 July 1996 student numbers.* November, 1996. Wellington, New Zealand: Data Management and Analysis Section.

Ministry of Education (1997). *Secondary education statistics 1997: Selected tables summarising 31 July 1997 student numbers.* November, 1997. Wellington, New Zealand: Data Management and Analysis Section.

Ministry of Education (1998). *Secondary education statistics 1998: Selected tables summarising 31 July 1998 student numbers.* November, 1998. Wellington, New Zealand: Data Management and Analysis Section.

Ministry of Education (1999). *Secondary education statistics 1999: Selected tables summarising 31 July 1999 student numbers.* November, 1999. Wellington, New Zealand: Data Management and Analysis Section.

Ministry of Education (1999). *Second language learning funding pool.* [Online] Available: http//www.minedu.govt.nz./curriculum/language/school/ [2000, July 11]

Ministry of Education, New Zealand. (1998). *Japanese in the New Zealand curriculum.* Wellington: Learning Media.

Moeller, A. J. (1994). Content-based foreign language instruction in the middle school: An experiential learning approach. *Foreign Language Annals, 27*(4), 535-545.

New Zealand Association of Language Teachers. (1976). A submission to the working party on second languages in New Zealand. *New Zealand Language Teacher, July,* 11.

New Zealand Association of Language Teachers. (1995). *Policy on language teaching and learning in secondary schools.* Auckland.

New Zealand Council for Teacher Education. (1998). *Database of schools.* November, 1998. Wellington, New Zealand.

Peddie, R., Gunn, C. & Lewis, M. (1999). *Starting younger: The second language learning project evaluation* Final Report for the Ministry of Education. Auckland: The University of Auckland.

Pesola, C. A. (1988). *Articulation for elementary school foreign language programs: Challenges and opportunities.* Paper presented at the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 292 333).

Richards, J. C. (1996a). *Teacher education for language teachers.* Occasional paper No. 4. Auckland: The University of Auckland.

Richards, J. C. (1996b). *Expertise in language teaching.* Occasional paper No. 3. Auckland: The University of Auckland.

Rodgers, T. S. (1989). Syllabus design, curriculum development and polity determination. In R.K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum*, pp. 24-34. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rosenbusch, M. (1995). Guidelines for starting an elementary school foreign language program. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 383 227).

Spence, G. (1999, 2 April). Educating for global citizenship: The learning of international languages in the primary school. *New Zealand Education Review, 3* (44): p. 8.

Spence, G. (2000, July). *Introduction to Lianne Dalziell.* Paper presented at the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers, Rotorua, New Zealand.

The Japan Forum (2000). *Opening the minds of your Japanese-language students to culture III: Selected lesson plans from the 1999 TJF contest* (Centre for Intercultural Communication, Trans.). (English ed.). Tokyo: Takashima Nobukazu.

The University of Auckland (1998). *Learning smarter: The economics of learning international languages in secondary schools.* (Prepared for the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers). Auckland: The University of Auckland.

Tisdall, M. (1996). Integrating other areas of learning into the language program. *Babel 31* (1), 11-13.

Waite, J. (1992). *Aoteareo: Speaking for ourselves. Part A: The Overview. Part B: The issues.* Wellington: Ministry of Education.

Whitehead, D., Crombie, W. & Paltridge, B. (Eds.). (1993). *Working papers in Language Education* (No.1). Hamilton, New Zealand: The University of Waikato, Language Institute.

Williams, L. (1997). *Japanese teaching and teachers in New Zealand.* Working paper No. 10. Palmerston North: New Zealand Centre for Japanese Studies.

Wilson, J. A. (1988). Foreign language program articulation: Building bridges from elementary to secondary school. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 301 069).

Witkin, B. R. (1979). *Model of cyclical needs assessment for management information systems* (First Year Report). Saratoga, California: Saratoga High School.

APPENDICES

1.1 Information Sheet and Consent Form for Facilitators

Massey University
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:
YEARS 7 AND 8.
CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

INFORMATION SHEET for FACILITATORS

Researcher
Adele Lilly, Senior Lecturer, Massey University College of Education

Supervisors
Dr. Cynthia White, Massey University School of Languages
Dr. Margaret Franken, Massey University School of Languages

Contact numbers: (06)356 9099 ext 8990(Adele) 7711(Cynthia) 7403(Margaret)

Research Procedures

If you agree to the following procedures you will be asked to sign a form consenting to your participation in this project.

1. The research will involve you running two discussions with consenting members of the group of teachers you are working with on the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education: Primary / Intermediate Professional Development programme.

2. The discussions will last approximately one and a half hours each.

You will be asked to:

- facilitate the discussions according to outlines given
- record the discussions on audio tape
- collect any written comments generated from the discussions
- keep confidential the names of the people and schools involved in this study.

Note:
- You do not have to use your own name nor the name of your school in the discussions.
- You may ask for the deletion of anything you have said.

Other Information

- Your name was obtained through Gail Spence, the contract director; and Naomi Collins, the programme co-ordinator for the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education: Primary / Intermediate Professional Development programme.

- The information obtained during the discussions will be used to generate two questionnaires which will be sent to a number of schools teaching Japanese at years 7 and 8.

- The final research report will be used to enable the researcher to complete the requirements for a Master of Arts thesis. In addition, a summary of findings will be made available to professional bodies such as the *New Zealand Association of Language Teachers* and the *New Zealand Association of Japanese Language Teachers* and to those schools which participated in the questionnaires.

- The raw data collected during the course of this research will not be kept for any other purpose at the completion of the project unless further permission is obtained from the participants.

- Confidentiality and anonymity will be protected in the following ways:

  - Only the researcher (and her supervisors) will have access to the raw data.
  - You will not be required to identify either yourself or your school in the discussions.
  - The final research report will not contain names of research participants or their schools.

If you take part in this study, you have the right to:

- withdraw from the study at any time.

- ask any further questions about the study that occur to you during your participation.

- provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researchers. All information is collected anonymously, and all efforts will be made to ensure it will not be possible to identify you in any reports that are prepared from the study.

- be given access to a summary of the findings from the study when it is concluded.

Massey University
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:
YEARS 7 AND 8.
CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

CONSENT FORM for FACILITATORS

- I have read the Information Sheet for Facilitators 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.
- I understand I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.
- I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name will not be used without my permission.
- I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet for Facilitators.

Signed: _____

Name: _____

Date: _____

1.2 Information Sheet and Consent Form for Teachers

Massey University
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:
YEARS 7 AND 8.
CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

INFORMATION SHEET for TEACHERS

Researcher
Adele Lilly, Senior Lecturer, Massey University College of Education

Supervisors
Dr. Cynthia White, Massey University School of Languages
Dr. Margaret Franken, Massey University School of Languages

Contact numbers: (06)356 9099 ext 8990(Adele) 7711(Cynthia) 7403(Margaret)

Research Procedures

If you agree to the following procedures you will be asked to sign a form consenting to your participation in this project.

1. The research will involve you participating in two discussions with your facilitator and members of the group of teachers you are working with on the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education: Primary / Intermediate Professional Development programme.

2. The discussions will last approximately one and a half hours each.

3. The discussions will be audio taped and any written notes made will be collected.

Note:
- You do not have to use your own name nor the name of your school in the discussions.
- You may ask to see the facilitators' notes at any time during the discussion.
- You may ask for the deletion of anything you have said.

Other Information

- Your name was obtained through Gail Spence, the contract director; and Naomi Collins, the programme co-ordinator for the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education: Primary / Intermediate Professional Development programme.

- The information obtained during the discussions will be used to generate two questionnaires which will be sent to a number of schools teaching Japanese at years 7 and 8.

- The final research report will be used to enable the researcher to complete the requirements for a Master of Arts thesis. In addition, a summary of findings will be made available to professional bodies such as the *New Zealand Association of Language Teachers* and the *New Zealand Association of Japanese Language Teachers* and to those schools which participated in the questionnaires.

- The raw data collected during the course of this research will not be kept for any other purpose at the completion of the project unless further permission is obtained from the participants.

- Confidentiality and anonymity will be protected in the following ways:

  - Only the researcher (and her supervisors) will have access to the raw data.
  - You will not be required to identify either yourself or your school in the discussions.
  - The final research report will not contain names of research participants or their schools.

If you take part in this study, you have the right to:

- refuse to answer any particular question, and to withdraw from the study at any time.

- ask any further questions about the study that occur to you during your participation.

- provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researchers. All information is collected anonymously, and all efforts will be made to ensure it will not be possible to identify you in any reports that are prepared from the study.

- be given access to a summary of the findings from the study when it is concluded.

Massey University
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:

YEARS 7 AND 8.

CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

CONSENT FORM for TEACHERS

- 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.
- I understand I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.
- I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name will not be used without my permission.
- I agree / do not agree to the discussions being audio taped.
- I also understand that I have the right to ask for the audio tape to be turned off at any time during the discussion
- I agree to take part in the research project under the conditions described in the Information Sheet for Teachers.

Signed: _____

Name: _____

Date: _____

1.3 Instructions and Procedures for Facilitators

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:
YEARS 7 AND 8.
CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

27 April 1999

Dear [redacted],
HERE IT IS ! Please find enclosed the following:

- **Information Sheet for Facilitators**
  Read carefully and keep

- **Consent Form for Facilitators**
  Sign and return at end of first discussion group

- **5 x Information Sheets for Teachers**
  Go over with teachers

- **5 x Consent Forms for Teachers**
  Invite teachers to sign . Return signed forms with yours at end of first discussion group

- **2 x 90 minute tapes**
  Use to record first session (use the 2nd tape if you need or save until next time)

- **POST-It Notes**
  Use during session as directed...might last for the 2 sessions

- **Newsprint**
  Use during session as directed...might last for the 2 sessions

  - **Notes as below**
    Use during session as appropriate

  - **Envelope addressed to ME !**
    To send 2, 4, 5, 6, 7 *back*

Background
As per email sent the other day I would like you to run two sessions with your teachers. The structure is loosely set out below. The idea is to generate discussion around the research topic. These initial discussions will help define what the participants are dealing with in their programmes so the questions are not really specific as the terminology the participants use are what should lead the discussion.

Please pass on my thanks to the participants once they have had a chance to read the information sheet and signed the consent form. I hope there aren't too many questions for you as the sheets are fairly self-explanatory. If they choose not to participate then that's OK...give them something else to do?

CHARACTERISTICS OF THIS TYPE OF DISCUSSION GROUP
(for your information - you might want to share some of this with participants as appropriate)

- open questions
- no need to reach consensus
- do have some questions to follow..
- participants should feel free to contribute any idea (whether positive / negative /lateral..)
- ideas / comments bounce off each other (hopefully)
- facilitator probes further (how / what / for example...) , doesn't judge a response though other participants might...

START THE TAPE AT THIS POINT

STEP ONE The topic under examination is

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:
YEARS 7 AND 8.
CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

Using a piece of newsprint write the words 'CRITICAL FACTORS' in the middle and ask participants to tell you how they would define this term.

For your information only: Participants may come up with words such as *problems / issues / challenges / support features / needs / constraints / directions / design features..*
Allow them however to define what the term might mean and try to use their terminology in the discussion...

Leave this piece of newsprint where they can see it for the rest of the session

STEP TWO Hand out about six post-it notes (stickies) to participants.

Based on the discussion just begun and their understanding of the term 'critical factors', ask participants to write down what some of the critical factors are for them. Specific examples would be good here. One example per post-it. They can relate them to the terms defined in step one if they want to.

For your information: If after a minute or two participants are a bit stuck you could ask them to think about CHALLENGING ASPECTS / REWARDING ASPECTS of their teaching programme. It would be good if they don't need this help as I really want them to use their own words to define the factors.

Stickies can be stuck on the CRITICAL FACTORS according to previously defined headings. Some discussion here about **where** they are being placed and **why** would be good for Ask questions such as ' Do you see this as a *'need'* ?(use the terminology developed in STEP ONE)

STEP THREE

Ask participants to talk about **how else** the stickies could be grouped : some might link well under topic headings (such as **for your info**: motivation / text...)

Again ask for their reasoning and probe for elaboration...ask if the others feel the same etc etc..(remember a consensus not required just plenty of discussion)

STEP FOUR

Ask participants to individually:

- Place a tick on any stickies they feel strongly about.
- Place a smiley face on any they feel they can do some thing about.

STEP FIVE

Ask participants if they have anything further they would like to add to the discussion.

STEP SIX (important to ask this one)

Ask participants if there was anything which came out of the discussion which surprised them / stood out for them / was a new insight ...

Finally

Thank participants again, let them know that the next step will be that a questionnaire for schools will be generated based on critical factors identified today. Once results from that questionnaire are collated a further group meeting will occur where some possible responses to the critical factors will be discussed. ...and THANK YOU TOO

PLEASE SEND THE FOLLOWING IN THE SELF ADDRESSED ENVELOPE TO ME WITHIN A COUPLE OF DAYS OF THE SEMINAR:

1. THE CONSENT FORMS (YOURS AND THE PARTICIPANTS')
2. THE NEWSPRINT WITH 'CRITICAL FACTORS' BRAINSTORM
3. THE USED STICKIES IN THE 'GROUPINGS'
4. THE RECORDED TAPE

Appendix 2 **Part A, Focus Groups Stage Two**

2.1 **Instructions and Procedures for Facilitators**

2.2 **Trial Questionnaire for Focus Group Teachers**

(original consisted of two A3 pieces of paper)

2.3 **Response cards for Teachers**

2.1 Instructions and Procedures for Facilitators

Hi [redacted],

Thanks for doing this.Please find enclosed:
- 5 x A3 response sheets
- 5 sets of coloured paper –orange, blue, pink, green – with instructions

Equipment needed
- tape recorder
- tables for spreading out on

USE THE ENCLOSED RESPONSE CARDS FOR TEACHERS

Part 1 Hand out CARD ONE (orange paper) – one each....

Parts 2,3 &4 will take about 20 minutes...participants need to avoid discussing at this point and work individually.

Part 2 Hand out A3 sheets and the CARD TWO (the blue instruction sheet)

Part 3 Hand out CARD THREE (the pink instruction sheet)

Part 4 Hand out CARD FOUR (the green instruction sheet)

Note [redacted], if participants need help with what a professional response is then ask them to think about their reaction to the critical factors they have chosen and what they think can be done about them; what they recommend /suggest to teachers...I'm looking for comments and practical suggestions..advice..solutions..

Part 5

[redacted] could you then TURN ON THE TAPE and ask participants to share what they have written....possible questions....for each group of critical factors...again no consensus needed, just plenty of discussion.

For the first group of critical factors (group A) what were the 3 most critical? Why ? What response have you made? What do the rest of you think about that? Do you have other responses which could be made?

Part 6

Finally [redacted] Any comments about the layout of the A3 sheet any critical factors which are totally irrelevant? Any we have missed out?

The responses from today's discussion will be used to ask schools what they think are critical factors and what responses they think are appropriate to those critical factors.

Thanks again.
Adele

		CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE AT YEARS 7 & 8	
		A. TEACHER BACKGROUND	
		CRITICAL FACTORS IN THIS AREA ARE..	
		1. A perceived low level of personal knowledge and language skill	
		2. Enthusiastic staff	
		3. The sharing of successes	
		4. The improvement of personal confidence through learning with students	
		5. The entry behaviour of the teacher and their prior learning	
		6. Keeping up to date	
		7. Pressure and time	
		8. Regular reflection to re-establish goals	
		9. Professional isolation	
		B. LEARNER BEHAVIOUR	
		CRITICAL FACTORS IN THIS AREA ARE..	
		1. Students at year 8 who start the year with a smattering of Japanese.	
		2. Students at different points at the end of year 7	
		3. Student ability to understand the concepts being taught	
		4. Different learning styles of students	
		5. Students who are not interested in the language	
		6. Students who need to be extended	
		7. Students with little success in other areas finding success in Japanese	
		8. Integrating Japanese with the curriculum	
		9. Student confidence in social studies because of prior learning in Japanese	
		10. Student attitude to teacher coming from outside to teach Japanese	
		11. Student attitude to Japanese	

	C. SCHOOL CONTEXT	
	CRITICAL FACTORS IN THIS AREA ARE..	
	DESIGN /RESOURCES	
	1. The well-structured, excellent resources available e.g. HAI series	
	2. The availability of equipment for the teacher and students (tv bookings..)	
	3. The availability of information that's clear and simple	
	TIMETABLE	
	4. Preparation time	
	5. Working with your own class	
	6. The size of the class	
	7. Teaching other people's classes	
	8. Integration with curriculum	
	ATTITUDES	
	9. Other teachers' opinions/views on the programme	
	10. The perceived competition with Maori	
	11. Community attitudes	
	D. PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT AND COMMITMENT	
	CRITICAL FACTORS IN THIS AREA ARE..	
	1. NZALT / NZAJLT membership and support	
	2. MOE SUPPORT- assistant teachers from Japan	
	3. SASAKAWA - PD support / resource support	
	4. Commitment from principal	
	5. Commitment from Board of Trustees	
	6. Competition between schools - Japanese as a selling point	
	7. Staff selection and training	
	8. Support from local high schools - articulation issues	
	9. Replacing expert teachers who leave the school	
	10. Recognition of the staff involved (responsibility & preparation time)	
	11. Status for the Japanese programme	

2.3 Response cards for Teachers

Response Cards for Second Focus Group Discussion

Each participant received one each of the following four cards as they completed the trial questionnaire.

Card One – handed out at the start of the meeting

Card Two - handed out with the trial questionnaire

- MAKE SURE YOU HAVE SPACE TO SPREAD OUT YOUR A3 SHEET
- THE CRITICAL FACTORS HAVE BEEN GENERATED FROM PREVIOUS DISCUSSIONS. THEY ARE GROUPED UNDER APPROPRIATE HEADINGS BUT ARE NOT IN ANY IN ANY PARTICULAR ORDER.
- THE FIRST COLUMN:
  IN YOUR PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE, *TICK* THE

CRITICAL FACTORS WHICH ARE RELEVANT (not just those relevant to your current situation)

Card Three - handed out after Card Two actioned

IN THE SECOND COLUMN:

PUT A

W

IN THE BOXES BESIDE THOSE CRITICAL FACTORS WHICH YOU FEEL HAVE WIDE RELEVANCE TO THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE IN NEW ZEALAND.

Card Four - handed out after Card Three actioned

IDENTIFY THE *THREE MOST CRITICAL* FACTORS FROM EACH GROUP (A,B,C,D) FOR YOURSELF

WRITE A *PROFESSIONAL RESPONSE* TO EACH OF THESE IN THE BOXES ON THE RIGHT HAND SIDE (Label the boxes with the appropriate letters and numbers e.g. A2 for 'Enthusiastic staff')

Appendix 3 Part B, Questionnaire to Principals

3.1 Letter to Principals

3.2 Information Sheet for Schools

3.3 Questionnaire for Principals in Schools

(original consisted of one A3 piece of paper and one A4 piece of paper)

3.1 Letter to Principals

1 November 1999

Dear

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:
YEARS 7 AND 8
CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

Thank you for taking a few minutes from your busy term four schedule to help me with the above research.

Please find enclosed:

- An Information Sheet for Schools (outlining the Research Procedures) *(Mandarin Colour)*
- The Questionnaire for Schools *(1 white A3 page, I yellow A4 page)*
- A stamped, addressed envelope for your reply

My background is mainly in teaching Japanese to secondary students, creating resources for the classroom and in teacher education. I am currently on leave from Massey University College of Education where I have been involved in the preservice secondary area for the last six years.

The New Zealand government has been encouraging the teaching of international languages at Years 7 and 8 for some time. Along with other organisations, such as the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education, it has provided funding for programmes to be developed.

It is appropriate that some of the current programmes be researched so that Boards of Trustees, schools and teachers can make informed decisions about the nature of their own teaching programme.

PLEASE RETURN THE SURVEY BACK (EVEN IF YOU DECIDE NOT TO COMPLETE IT) BY TUESDAY 30 NOVEMBER.

Once again, thank you for your time and I look forward to sending you the summary findings at the conclusion of the research. Please do not hesitate to contact me via email on a.j.lilly@massey.ac.nz should you have any queries about the survey.

Yours faithfully

Adele Lilly
Senior Lecturer, Japanese, Department of Learning and Teaching

3.2 Information Sheet for Schools

Massey University
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

JAPANESE IN THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM:
YEARS 7 AND 8.
CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE

INFORMATION SHEET for SCHOOLS

Researcher
Adele Lilly, Senior Lecturer, Massey University College of Education

Supervisors
Dr. Cynthia White, Massey University School of Languages
Dr. Margaret Franken, Massey University School of Languages

Contact numbers: (06)356 9099 ext 8990(Adele) 7711(Cynthia) 7403(Margaret)

Research Procedures
Completion of the enclosed questionnaire implies consent to the use of information given in the above research project.

1. The research will involve you completing two questionnaires.
2. Each questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete

Note: You do not have to use your own name nor the name of your school in the questionnaire.

Other Information

- The list of schools teaching Japanese at Years 7 and 8 was obtained through a database held at the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education.
- The final research report will be used to enable the researcher to complete the requirements for a Master of Arts thesis. In addition, a summary of findings will be made available to professional bodies such as the *New Zealand Association of Language Teachers* and the *New Zealand Association of Japanese Language Teachers* and to those schools which participated in the questionnaires.
- The raw data collected during the course of this research will not be kept for any other purpose at the completion of the project unless further permission is obtained from the participants.
- To protect confidentiality and anonymity the final research report will not contain names of research participants or their schools.

If you take part in this study, you have the right to:

- refuse to answer any particular question, and to withdraw from the study at any time.
- ask any further questions about the study that occur to you during your participation.
- provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researchers. All information is collected anonymously, and all efforts will be made to ensure it will not be possible to identify you in any reports that are prepared from the study.
- be given access to a summary of the findings from the study when it is concluded.

3.3 Questionnaire for Principals in Schools

(original consisted of one A3 piece of paper and one A4 piece of paper)

CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE AT YEARS 7 & 8

If sending NO RESPONSE, please select reason:

- No longer teaching Japanese
- Other

Please check boxes as appropriate, answering as many questions as possible

GENERAL INFORMATION	OPTIONAL INFORMATION
SCHOOL TYPE:	SCHOOL NAME:
1. Years 1-13	SCHOOL ADDRESS:
2. Years 1-6	
3. Years 1-8	
4. Years 7 -8	
5. Years 7-10	
6. Years 7-13	
7. Other (please specify)	

JAPANESE PROGRAMME

Japanese is taught at

- Year 1
- Year 2
- Year 3
- Year 4
- Year 5
- Year 6
- Year 7
- Year 8
- Year 9 and above

Japanese is taught by

- All teachers to their own classes
- Some teachers to their own classes
- One or two teachers to all classes at year
- Teacher(s) from outside
- Japanese intern
- Other (please specify)

Japanese is

- integrated into the curriculum / school life
- taught as an international language with its own hours
- taught as part of social studies
- other (please specify)

Please complete

Year level	Number of minutes/week	Length of course (one term/8 weeks)

THE CRITICAL FACTORS and PROFESSIONAL RESPONSES were generated from discussions held with teachers of Japanese at Years 7 & 8..

Firstly, please RANK the factors using the 1 - 5 Scale on the left of this sheet (where 1 is NOT IMPORTANT, and 5 is VERY IMPORTANT)
Secondly, please MATCH the Professional Responses from the coloured sheet attached to each of the Critical Factors. WRITE the letter of the responses you have chosen for each factor to the right of this sheet as shown.
Thirdly, please indicate the most important factor for each group.

PLEASE CIRCLE (NOT IMPT 1 2 3 4 5 VERY IMPT)	
	A. TEACHER BACKGROUND
	Critical Factors in this area are... *Professional Responsesare..*
	1. Selection of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme *eg: C,F,1*
1 2 3 4 5	1. Selection of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme
1 2 3 4 5	2. Confidence of teachers to deliver the Japanese programme
1 2 3 4 5	3. Time commitment to the programme (upskilling/preparation)
1 2 3 4 5	4. Collegial support
1 2 3 4 5	5. Professional isolation (the only 'Japanese expert' in the school)
	The most important factor in group 'A' is
	B. LEARNER BEHAVIOUR
	Critical Factors in this area are... *Professional Responses are..*
1 2 3 4 5	1. Variation in the prior (Japanese) learning of students
1 2 3 4 5	2. Variation in the language learning ability of students
1 2 3 4 5	3. Opportunities for students who struggle in other areas to find success in Japanese
1 2 3 4 5	4. Catering for the different learning styles of students
1 2 3 4 5	5. Student attitude (not interested in Japanese)
	The most important factor in group 'B' is
	C. SCHOOL CONTEXT
	Critical Factors in this area are... *Professional Responses are..*
1 2 3 4 5	1. The availability of equipment for the teacher and students (TV bookings..)
1 2 3 4 5	2. The availability of resources which are clear and simple
1 2 3 4 5	3. Maintaining a balanced curriculum (competition with other areas)
1 2 3 4 5	4. Community attitudes
1 2 3 4 5	5. Programme structure (class size/teacher & student allocation/ integration with other key learning areas)
	The most important factor in group 'C' is
	D. PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT AND COMMITMENT
	Critical Factors in this area are... *Professional Responses are..*
1 2 3 4 5	1. Commitment from principal
1 2 3 4 5	2. Commitment from Board of Trustees
1 2 3 4 5	3. Support from outside organisations
1 2 3 4 5	4. Recognition of the staff involved
1 2 3 4 5	5. Status for the Japanese programme
1 2 3 4 5	6. Support from local high schools - articulation issues
1 2 3 4 5	7. Replacing expert teachers who leave the school
	The most important factor in group 'D' is

PLEASE FEEL FREE TO MAKE ADDITIONAL COMMENTS EITHER HERE, OR EMAIL ADELE AT a.j.lilly@massey.ac.nz

CRITICAL FACTORS
IN THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE AT YEARS 7 & 8

MATCH THESE RESPONSES WITH THE CRITICAL FACTORS **ON THE OTHER SHEET. WRITE THE LETTER** OF YOUR SELECTION/S BESIDE EACH OF THE CRITICAL FACTORS. YOU MAYUSE EACH LETTER AS MANY TIMES AS APPROPRIATE. (YOU DO NO NEED TO USE ALL OF THEM)

A	Use a Japanese intern
B	Use a teacher aide or admin staff for photocopying and resource collation tasks
C	One teacher repeats the same lesson to other classes
D	The classroom teacher stays in the class if a teacher from outside used (for classroom management)
E	The teacher only teaches their own class
F	The learning of Japanese is made optional
G	Students given alternative activities within the class if they aren't interested
H	Students given work according to prior learning
I	Students put in classes according to prior learning
J	Professional development programmes for participants to experience the learning themselves
K	PD opportunities for teachers of Japanese to mix with teachers from other schools
L	Offer PD for teachers of Japanese on time management skills
M	Use only teachers who volunteer to teach Japanese
N	Use young teachers
O	Use hands-on activities in class
P	Surveys/newsletters sent home about the programme (ideas for homework support given)
Q	Make opportunities for the programme to be shared within the school community (festival day/daily bulletin)
R	The achievement of milestones in learning are celebrated and recognised (assembly/certificates)
S	School policy documents outline the value and benefits of learning an international language
T	School policy documents state the commitment to Japanese, that the learning is not just a 'fill-in/fun-extra'
U	The school has ongoing commitment to the Japanese programme (reflected in staffing allocations/appointments)
V	Equip the Japanese classroom with OHP /video/tv
W	Copies of key resources made available to all staff
X	Use Japanese for classroom routines as much as possible, not just in 'Japanese time'
Y	Conduct PD sessions for the whole-staff on Japanese
Z	Make time allowances for the teacher in charge of Japanese to plan, reflect and teach others
AA	Make time allowances for teachers of Japanese for study and planning
AB	Release teachers from other teaching duties
AC	Give professional recognition to teachers involved in the programme (management units)
AD	Train more than one teacher in the school in Japanese
AE	Train all teachers in the school in Japanese
AF	Budget for membership of professional organisations such as: NZ Association of Japanese Language Teachers.
AG	Budget for outside PD courses (MOE/Sasakawa/Colleges of Education/ NZALT)
AH	Support Colleges of Ed. to offer methodology and content classes for the teaching of International languages