



# Japanese Language Education in New Zealand

An evaluative literature review of the decline  
in students since 2005

Prepared for the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund  
for Japanese Language Education

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Sasakawa Fellowship Fund  
for Japanese Language Education



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# Japanese Language Education in New Zealand: An evaluative literature review of the decline in students since 2005

Masahiro Akiyama

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## Foreword

The Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education (SFFJLE) was established at Massey University in 1995 with an endowment of 1.5 million US dollars, donated by the Nippon Foundation. The Fund is part of a scheme called the Nippon Foundation Fund for Japanese Language Education Program (NF-JLEP), which is aimed at promoting Japanese-language education worldwide. To date, endowments have been offered to eight universities in six countries, including Massey. The Tokyo Foundation is mandated to ensure the smooth and effective operation of NF-JLEP.

The number of people studying Japanese overseas has increased steadily for the past three decades and now totals nearly 4 million. In New Zealand, however, the numbers have been declining over the past 10 years. The SFFJLE management committee has taken this situation seriously and has commissioned a report on possible countermeasures. We at the Tokyo Foundation are very grateful that the committee is proactively addressing this worrying trend.

I am confident that the results of this pioneering report will provide new insights into the phenomenon in New Zealand and offer practical solutions to revive Japanese language education in the country. It also promises to offer valuable hints for those engaged in Japanese language education in other part of the world. I sincerely hope that this work will contribute to deepening our already close ties with our important friends in New Zealand.



**Masahiro Akiyama**

President, Tokyo Foundation

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# Japanese Language Education in New Zealand: An evaluative literature review of the decline in students since 2005

Prof Brigid Heywood

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## Foreword

For a time in the 1980s and 1990s more New Zealand students chose to study Japanese than any other language, but there has been a sense of decline since then. Anecdotal theories as to the reasons for this abound – from the erosion of Japan’s place in the world as an economic superpower, a heightened perception of the difficulty of learning Japanese relative to other languages, or more generally the resolutely monolingual ‘English is all we need’ attitude of many New Zealanders compared with, for example, our European counterparts.

### Background to research

The Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language was established in the late 1990s to support teachers and students of Japanese and to promote the study of the language across New Zealand. In 2012 the Management Committee of the Fund commissioned research into the decline of interest and engagement with the Japanese language – asking just how significant is the reduction in numbers of Japanese language students in New Zealand, and what might be the reasons behind this? A team of researchers from IPC Tertiary Institute (Palmerston North) and Massey University won the bid to conduct a statistical and literature review, and make recommendations for further research and/or projects which would more deeply explore and address the reasons uncovered.

### Results

Statistically there is indeed a significant decline – 37% fewer secondary students chose Japanese in 2012 than in 2005; and 40% fewer tertiary students. The situation at years 7/8 – the final two years of primary schooling – is less clear but the overall picture is certainly of a decline in language tuition engagement. Not surprisingly, there is no single cause, rather the authors identify a complex interplay of contributing factors. This report then offers a series of recommendations extrapolated from the facts uncovered through the literature review.

There are significant policy and curriculum issues at play. In direct contrast to, for example, England and much of Australia, New Zealand has no national policy for languages, and it is not compulsory at any level to learn a second language, both facts which send a negative message about the importance of language learning. Due to globalisation, the need for economic growth and a focus on trade, the importance of Japanese and other Asian languages is frequently signaled in the media and in ministerial documents as a key to advancing multinational business relationships and export growth, however there is a mismatch between what is said at this level and what actually appears in terms of policy directives and implementation. This filters down to an attitude prevalent amongst principals, careers advisers, and parents that the study of a language is ‘a nice optional extra’. A range of more ‘micro level’ factors stem from this mismatch.

This report provides a platform for all stakeholders with responsibility to understand and deliver language learning courses, to consider the relevance of the support measures they currently offer and, if necessary, to redevelop policy, re-structure the networks of support and reallocate resources. The recommendations for addressing the decline are, for the most part, practical and achievable, given a collective goodwill and some financial commitment from all bodies concerned with the promotion of Japanese in New Zealand. The Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education welcomes this report and is considering how to (i) adopt those recommendations in support of its key strategic goals and (ii) work in partnership with key stakeholders.

**Prof Brigid Heywood**

Chair, Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education (New Zealand)  
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August 2013

## Summary of recommendations

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<b>1.iv Ensuring inclusion of rural schools</b> Special efforts should be made to contact isolated rural schools with only one language teacher or a shared post and review their needs.	24
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<b>2.i Setting up regional networks and the promotion of models of good practice</b> Using an action research approach, pilot models of regional grouping and local networks to develop best practice models for the placement of Japanese language learners, particularly focusing on the transition to secondary. Share these results nationally.	18
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<b>2.iii Setting up regional networks and the promotion of models of good practice</b> Conduct an action research project to develop methods of supporting existing, and establishing further local and regional networks that bring small groups of teachers together on a regular basis for the sharing of best practice and promoting professional development.	24

<p><b>2.iv Database of Japanese teachers</b> Conduct a confidential survey of teaching assistants and teachers of Japanese to collect data on contact details, qualifications, cultural knowledge, training needs and recent professional development experiences to provide an accurate national baseline for the training needs of teachers of Japanese.</p>	24
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<p><b>3.ii Promotion of models and best practice</b> Using the online survey outlined in the section above, each tertiary institution to gather its own data on attrition and share it with other institutions through the production of an annual directory as outlined above. Such data could be used to identify good models of retention. Small-scale teacher-based action research projects should be set-up to share and refine strategies for reducing attrition.</p>	21 & 40
<p><b>3.iii Further analysis of statistics</b> Further investigation of the statistics supplied by TEC to look for variations in the decline in the learning of Japanese in relation to the type of courses, year of study, and attrition rates across all years, etc. The data may yield examples of good practice at institutions where the decline has been arrested and recruitment is stable.</p>	38

<p><b>4. Research-based recommendations for projects to be conducted at the national level</b> To provide an evidence-based platform to support and enhance Japanese language provision in New Zealand</p>	<b>Page</b>
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<p><b>4.vii Parental views on Japanese language learning</b> Using a sample of secondary schools which represent the regional variations outlined in Part 1 of the review, survey the parents of students who elected to study Japanese and those who did not, to determine the extent of the influence they have and the views they hold on Japanese language and culture.</p>	29
<p><b>4.viii Reasons for choosing Japanese</b> Conduct a longitudinal-cohort/year study across all tertiary institutions which offer Japanese. Using an on-line survey technique, collect data on students' intrinsic and extrinsic reasons for learning the language and the extent by which they were influenced by external factors such as their parents and friends, the attraction of the Japanese culture, etc. The collection of this data is valuable in its own right; however, it could also be used to evaluate the alignment of students' reasons for choosing to study Japanese and content of courses. Although primarily intended for tertiary use, a similar study could be conducted with students from a sample of secondary schools.</p>	29
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## Orientation to the evaluative review

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### Background to the evaluative review

The call for expressions of interest from the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education (July 2012)

'Government figures show that the number of students taking Japanese at secondary and tertiary levels in New Zealand has declined significantly over the last decade. The Management Committee for the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education is calling for expressions of interest for a pilot study to provide a snapshot of the current situation and identify critical issues contributing to the falling numbers. It is envisaged that the issues and implications identified will form the basis of a larger study for which there will be a further call for expressions of interest in 2013. The pilot project is limited to an evaluative review and analysis of the existing relevant literature and data for New Zealand, together with recommendations for the focus of the larger research project to follow.' Relevant literature would include but not limited to the following:

- Data on trends in students numbers (school and tertiary sector)
- Data on Japanese-teaching staff numbers
- Data on inclusion of Japan-related topics in other curricular areas
- Government policies / strategies around Japanese language education
- Institutional strategies around Japanese language education
- Data on graduate destinations
- School / university careers advice materials
- Academic publications relating to the issue.

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The research team would also like to acknowledge the assistance of IPC staff Christine Allen, Tracey Armstrong and Akie Hirata.

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### Research team

IPC Tertiary Institute, Palmerston North, put together a small interdisciplinary team of researchers from the areas of careers, recruitment, teaching and lecturing of Japanese, language education, and assessment. The team also included a colleague from the Institute of Education, Massey University, Palmerston North.

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### Premise for the review

This review has been prompted by a decline in the numbers of students studying Japanese at secondary school and tertiary levels. In order to verify this premise and in line with the guidelines agreed with the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education, we looked at basic reporting statistics from the Ministry of Education and Tertiary Education Commission from 2005 – 2012. Based on the evidence, there can be no doubt that Japanese language learning in secondary schools in New Zealand is in decline. The headline statistics reveal an overall drop of 18% between 2005 and 2012 in the number of secondary schools offering Japanese as a subject. During the same period, there was an accompanying fall of 37% in the number of students taking Japanese.

## **At tertiary level, a similar decline is seen. For example, the statistics reveal an overall drop of 40% in the number of students taking Japanese from 2005 to 2012.**

During the course of the review, we quickly became aware that many areas relating to the decline of Japanese language learning in New Zealand, and language learning in general, had been the subject of a number of previous studies. These include literature on the lack of policy at national level, the impact of the new Learning Languages area in the curriculum for schools and subsequent transition issues. They also include a lack of information on the number of suitably qualified teachers, professional development, the need for further resources for teachers, factors affecting the choice of Japanese as a subject, the thinning effect on student choices, and issues related to attrition and retention and student motivation. As much work has been done already to identify the causes for the decline in Japanese language learning in schools, this review summarises the key findings in the areas listed above and looks at what changes have been made, what recommendations have been implemented and evaluates why the decline is still happening. This has helped inform our review and given it focus. Where little or no progress was evident, we sought to dig deeper and attempted to identify the reasons for this. Where possible, and as part of the brief from the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education, we recommend further research or classroom projects rooted in the action research paradigm.

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### **Limitations of the review**

Following the initial meeting with representatives from the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education it was agreed that in order to avoid repetition of past studies, where possible, statistical data post-2005 would be examined. It was agreed that academic literature, relevant research and key texts post-2000 would provide the focus of the evaluative review. Earlier work is referred to when necessary. In addition, the original brief was expanded to include an international perspective on Japanese language learning. In April 2013, by mutual agreement, it was further expanded to include, where possible, literature and statistics related to Years 7 and 8.

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### **Outline of the review**

The review consists of five main parts followed by a short summary:

Part 1: New Zealand schools: An overview of the statistics

Part 2: New Zealand schools: Policy and curriculum overview

Part 3: Factors relating to choice of study, motivation, retention and attrition

Part 4: New Zealand tertiary: An overview

Part 5: International perspectives and comparisons

Part 6: Overview and summary of the report.

The first five parts contain a number of sections. Each section addresses a particular issue related to the decline of Japanese language learning and concludes with detailed suggestions for future research. The review closes with a summary of the five main parts and consolidates the recommendations made.

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### **Overview of the literature relevant to New Zealand**

Although the academic focus of the review is post-2000, the Learning Languages curriculum and Japanese language learning in New Zealand have developed in a series of incremental steps. It is useful to show how the academic literature interacts with Ministry of Education thinking since the mid 1990s. As such, an overview of academic sources and ministry reports that have informed this process can be found as a Table in Appendix 1. These have a specific New Zealand focus.

By assembling these sources in chronological order, it not only becomes clear that the development has been incremental, it also suggests that the same issues and concerns have arisen over time and have, to date, not been addressed. A combination of these issues may have contributed to the decline in the learning of Japanese and provides a basis for future action.



## Part 1: New Zealand secondary schools

### An overview of the statistics

#### Section 1.1

##### What the statistics tell us

As outlined above, there is a decline in the number of students learning Japanese in New Zealand. This section examines the statistics to identify areas of decline or change. The original source data used for the analysis and graphics is from information provided to the Ministry of Education by secondary schools for their yearly roll return (Ministry of Education, 2012). It should be noted that this data was gathered at given points in time, is reliant on returns from schools, and therefore cannot be considered exact. In addition, there will be variation among secondary schools in how they teach languages. For example, the number of teaching hours may vary, the teaching of various languages may be rotated, or languages may be taught in one term but not another. However, the statistics have been collected using the same data collection techniques and therefore can be assumed to be comparable in terms of overall trends and changes.

Accepting the general accuracy of the statistics and the overall drop in numbers of students and secondary schools offering Japanese, areas we found of particular interest include regional changes and variations related to the decile rating of a school. These are discussed below. At the end of this section, gaps in the statistics are identified and recommendations made for further investigation.

##### 1.1.1 Number of secondary schools offering Japanese: 2005 – 2012

Overall, since 2005 there has been a decrease of 18%<sup>1</sup> in the number of secondary schools that offer Japanese.

Table 1 — Total number of schools offering Japanese from 2005 – 2012

Year	Per cent of secondary schools offering Japanese N=321
2005	77
2006	72
2007	74
2008	71
2009	69
2010	65
2011	64
2012	63

<sup>1</sup> In line with standard statistics practice, 18% represents the proportional percentage change from 2005 to 2012 and is calculated as follows:  $247 - 203 / 247 \times 100 = 18\%$ .

1.1.2 Number of students taking Japanese at secondary school: 2005 – 2012

Since 2005, the total number of students taking Japanese at secondary school has dropped by 37%. The decline was relatively consistent until 2009, but as can be seen in Table 2 below, there have been more significant decreases between 2009 – 2010, and 2011 – 2012.

Table 2 – Total number of students taking Japanese from 2005 – 2012

Year	Number of students taking Japanese	Percentage decrease from previous year
2005	19 689	
2006	18 489	6.1
2007	18 440	0.3
2008	18 157	1.5
2009	17 304	4.7
2010	14 506	16.2
2011	14 398	0.7
2012	12 473	13.4

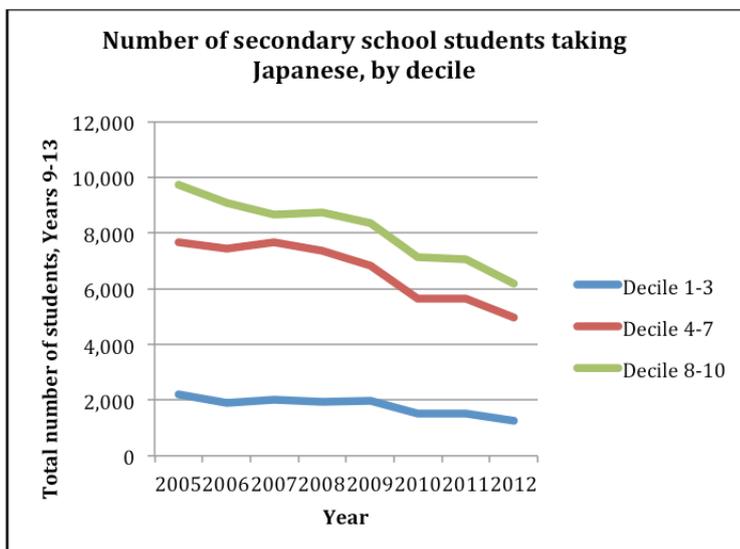
Japanese remains a popular foreign language at secondary school, second only to French. However, it should be noted that Spanish has shown a 50% increase in uptake since 2005 and competes with Japanese by a margin of 1000 students in favour of Japanese.

1.1.3 Student and school numbers by decile: 2005 – 2012

The number of students taking Japanese at secondary school has decreased in all decile ranges; students in decile 1 – 3 schools have decreased by 43%, students in deciles 4 – 7 have decreased by 35%, while those in decile 8 – 10 schools have decreased by 36%. However, in terms of the comparative number of students taking Japanese, a clear picture emerges. For example, there are nearly five times as many students taking Japanese in high decile schools as there are in low decile schools. This ratio has changed little since 2005.

If the retention of students from Year 9 to Year 13 is considered, there once again is a large difference between the deciles. By comparing the number of students who took Japanese in Year 9 with the number taking Japanese four years later,

Figure 1 – Student numbers from 2005 – 2012 by decile

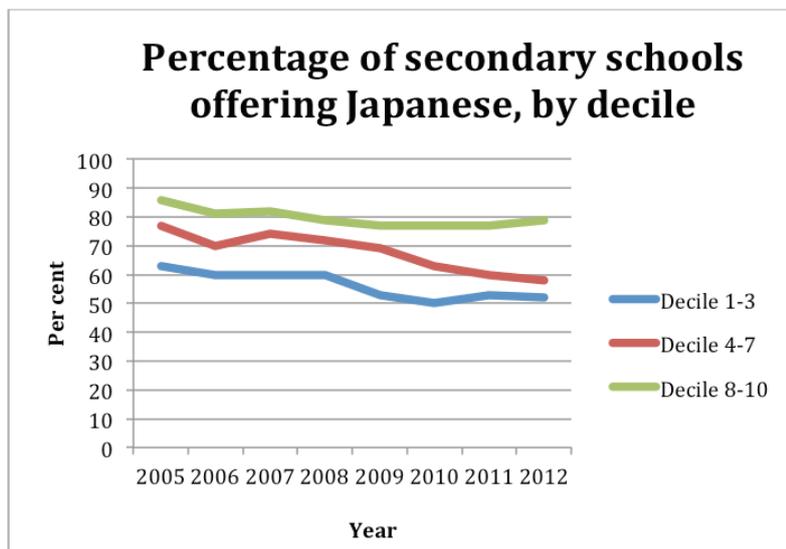


although we do not know whether these are the same students, a rough indication of retention emerges. Within the low decile schools (1 – 3) only 1.9% of students remain in Japanese at Year 13, compared with 6.0% in the mid-decile range (4 – 7), and 10.7% in high-decile schools (8 – 10). These figures have remained relatively consistent since 2005.

In addition, regions containing NZ’s larger cities seemed to have better retention rates in Japanese. For example, Auckland (10.4%), Canterbury (9.9%), Southland (8.4%), and Wellington (7.4%).

Although the proportional decrease of students taking Japanese across the deciles has been relatively similar, there has been a greater variation in the number of schools offering Japanese. Within the lower decile range, there has been an 18% decrease in the number of schools that offer Japanese, and now only half of all low decile schools offer the language. Within the mid-decile range, there has been a 25% decrease in the schools offering Japanese and by 2012 a little over half offer it. However, high decile schools have shown the smallest change with an 8% decrease and over three-quarters offering Japanese.

Figure 2 – Number of schools 2005 – 2012 by decile



1.1.4 Student and school numbers by region: 2005 – 2012

Looking at the data on a regional level, there are some quite different patterns emerging. The regions which have shown the greatest decrease in the number of schools that offer Japanese to their students since 2005 are: Gisborne (66%), Waikato (48%), Taranaki (44%), and Hawkes Bay (33%). Manawatu-Wanganui is the only region showing an increase.

As can also be seen in Table 3, the areas with the greatest proportion of schools offering Japanese in 2012 include Nelson/Tasman (83%), Canterbury (73%), Manawatu/Wanganui (73%), Bay of Plenty (72%), and Auckland (70%); and those with the least, Gisborne (25%, 1 school) and Taranaki (36%).

Table 3 – Per cent of secondary schools offering Japanese, by region

Region	Number of secondary schools	Per cent offering Japanese		Per cent decrease
		2005	2012	
Gisborne	4	75	25	66
Waikato	35	77	46	48
Taranaki	11	64	36	44
Hawkes Bay	12	100	67	33
Southland	9	89	67	25
Wellington	39	74	56	24
Otago	21	76	62	18
Canterbury	44	86	73	15
Auckland	80	79	70	11
Bay of Plenty	18	78	72	8
Nelson/Tasman	6	83	83	0
West Coast	6	50	50	0
Northland	12	42	58*	n/a
Manawatu-Wanganui	22	68	73	Increase of 7%

\*Note: increase due to the inclusion of 3 students at 3 Year 1 – 13 schools

When the number of secondary school students taking Japanese is broken down by region, considerable variation can be seen. The regions which have shown the greatest decrease in the number of students taking Japanese include Southland (61%), Bay of Plenty (60%), Taranaki (58%), Waikato (53%), Gisborne (47%), Otago (47%), and Northland (44%).

Table 4 – Number of secondary students taking Japanese, by region

Region	Number of secondary schools	Number of secondary students		Per cent decrease
		2005	2012	
Marlborough	1	107	0	100*
Southland	9	469	182	61
Bay of Plenty	18	1181	469	60
Taranaki	11	333	141	58
Waikato	35	1768	826	53
Gisborne	4	251	133	48
Otago	21	841	448	47
Northland	12	144	81	44
Wellington	39	2184	1348	38
Canterbury	44	3146	2161	31
Auckland	80	7312	5116	30
Manawatu-Wanganui	22	1049	736	30
Nelson/Tasman	6	314	227	28
Hawkes Bay	12	580	500	14
West Coast	6	19	43	Increase of 126%

\*According to roll return data, no secondary schools have offered Japanese in Marlborough since 2011; hence, zero students are reported. However, it is known one school is still teaching Japanese and may have had problems with its returns.

Once the data is further broken down by the students taking Japanese as a proportion of all students in each region, the picture becomes even more concerning. Twelve out of 15 regions have seen at least a one-third decrease in the proportion of students taking Japanese since 2005.

Table 5 – Per cent of secondary students taking Japanese as a proportion of all students in that region

Region	Per cent of all secondary students taking Japanese		Per cent decrease
	2005	2012	
Bay of Plenty	7.6	3.0	61
Southland	8.9	3.7	58
Taranaki	5.9	2.6	56
Waikato	7.8	3.8	51
Tasman	6.6	3.6	45
Otago	8.0	4.4	45
Gisborne	8.7	4.9	44
Northland	2.3	1.4	39
Wellington	9.1	5.6	38
Auckland	9.2	6.1	34
Nelson/Tasman	6.2	4.0	34
Canterbury	10.4	7.0	33
Manawatu-Wanganui	7.8	5.6	28
Hawkes Bay	7.2	6.1	15
West Coast	1.2	2.9	Increase of 142%

Within regional changes, of particular note are the Bay of Plenty, Hawkes Bay, and the West Coast. The Bay of Plenty has remained very stable since 2005 in the number of schools that offer Japanese and is among the highest of the regions (72%). However, it is one of the regions that has shown the greatest decrease in the number of students taking the subject (down 60% since 2005). In contrast to this, the Hawkes Bay has seen a decrease of 33% in the number of schools offering Japanese but only a 15% decrease in the number of students taking it. The West Coast has remained static in the schools offering Japanese but has actually had an increase in the number and proportion of students taking it.

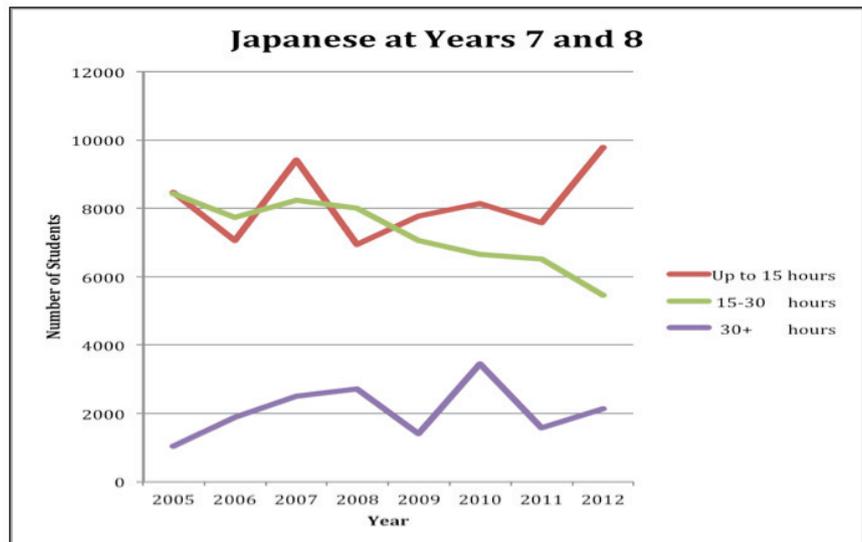
#### 1.1.5 Gender differences 2005 – 2012

Gender patterns have been quite consistent from 2005 – 2012, across all school years. There were minimal gender differences at Year 9, but as students progress through to Year 13, there are consistently more females taking Japanese than male. However, of note is that this gap is reducing for most year groups.

#### 1.1.6 Year 7 and 8 Students learning Japanese: 2005 – 2012

As can be seen from Figure 3, there is a significant variation across years in the numbers of students learning Japanese by year and hours. The 2012 figure is very similar to the 2005 figure but there is significant variation year to year.

Figure 3 – Variation in hours taught and student numbers from 2005 – 2012 for Years 7 & 8



1.1.7 The main findings from the statistics

- There has been a decline of 18% in secondary schools offering Japanese since 2005, and a drop of 37% in the number of students taking the subject.
- Japanese remains the second most popular foreign language, but the gap between Japanese and Spanish (the third most popular language) is reducing.
- There are nearly five-times more students in high decile schools taking Japanese, than in low decile schools.
- Over three-quarters of high decile schools offer Japanese, whereas only half of low decile schools offer it.
- Retention of students in Japanese through to Year 13 is five times greater in high decile schools compared with low decile schools, but is still at only 10.7% in the high decile schools.
- Retention is higher in regions with larger cities.
- The regions showing the greatest decreases in students taking Japanese since 2005 are Gisborne, Waikato, Taranaki, and Hawkes Bay.
- The areas with the greatest proportion of schools offering Japanese in 2012 include Nelson/Tasman, Canterbury, Manawatu-Wanganui, Bay of Plenty, and Auckland.
- Twelve out of 15 regions have shown an at least a one-third decrease in the proportion of students taking Japanese since 2005.
- Taranaki, Waikato, and Gisborne all show large decreases in the schools that offer, and students who take, Japanese.
- Overall, more females take Japanese than males, but the gap is reducing.

## Analysis — Part 1.1

### Japanese language teaching and learning at secondary schools in New Zealand

There is now clear evidence of a general decline in Japanese language learning in New Zealand secondary schools since 2005. This appears to have been more rapid since 2009 and varies among decile groups and regions.

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#### Recommendation for further research

1. A detailed investigation of the statistics and comparative analysis across regions and among decile groups, may yield some valuable insights into why the decline is happening and the variables associated with it. Furthermore, it may highlight examples of good practice at the regional or local levels where the decline in the teaching of Japanese has been relatively moderate.

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## Part 2: New Zealand schools

### Policy and curriculum overview

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#### Section 2.1

##### The lack of a national policy on the learning of language

It has been argued that changes in policies at secondary education level have been a major factor in the decline of Japanese language learners in Australia and the United States (The Japan Foundation, 2009, 2011; de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). Therefore, it is useful here to reflect on language learning policy in New Zealand.

In general, the link between national educational policy and the curriculum has been described as distant and somewhat tenuous (Yates & Grumet, 2011). However, with the advent of globalisation, the learning of languages is now intrinsically linked to the economic development of a country and our growth as tolerant, culturally aware individuals (Asia New Zealand Foundation, 2009; The Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013; Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, White Paper 2006; Ministry of Education, 2007b; University of Auckland, 2011). National policies for language learning must now take into account future developments in trade, tourism and possible sources of foreign direct investment and this is particularly relevant for small trading nations such as New Zealand (Yates & Grumet, 2011). This means that long-term trends in the global economy are important considerations as the learning of languages will enable future generations to work in other countries, find employment in international companies and be better equipped for work in culturally diverse settings (Fiala, 2007; East, 2008).

In line with many countries in the world, both developed and developing, New Zealand has recognised the need for a language learning policy which contains the elements outlined above (Ministry of Education, 2007b). As far back as 1992, the report *Aotearoa: Speaking for ourselves* commissioned by the Ministry of Education (Waite, 1992a, b) was understood to be a precursor to a New Zealand national languages policy (Holmes, 1997; Spence, 2004; East, Shackelford & Spence, 2007; The Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013). Despite criticisms about the 'English is best' attitudes and calls from a range of stakeholders for stronger support to raise awareness of the benefits of learning a language, including making it compulsory (East, 2003; East et al., 2007; Shearn, 2004), New Zealand has chosen not to adopt a national policy. Instead, the government has signalled its direction through a series of reviews and the introduction of various curriculum documents and guidelines from the Ministry of Education. Examples of these are *Learning Languages: A Guide for New Zealand Schools* (2002a), *Curriculum Stocktake Report to Minister of Education* (2002b), *The Generic Framework for Teaching and Learning Languages in English-medium school* (2007a) and *The New Zealand Curriculum* (2007b).

The documents named above were welcomed as well researched and representing good practice (Koefoed, 2012), particularly the 2007 curriculum

changes. However, there are still calls for a long-term direction for language learning, signalled through a national language policy (The Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013).

While it is a complex task to develop a national policy for language learning, a range of stakeholders believe it is an important step in securing New Zealand's trade future (Asia New Zealand Foundation, 2009; The Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013; Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2006; Ministry of Education, 2007b; University of Auckland, 2011; Human Rights Commission (HRC), 2009). For example, as Block and Cameron (2002) argue, a country's ability to survive in the globalised world will depend on a number of factors. One of the most important is that its people speak one or more of the international trading languages, one of which of course is Japanese. As outlined in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade's white paper in 2006, Japan, China and South America are still the focus of New Zealand foreign policy and a draft languages strategy to promote learning about Asian nations and culture with a focus on China was mentioned. There has to be signalling at a high level, of the value of the Japanese language for the future. This should be 'cross-sector' across ministries, across industries and within schools themselves (The Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013; University of Auckland, 2011; Asia New Zealand Foundation, 2008, 2009; Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2006). These factors should form part of a national language policy to address the need for future high-value languages, which may assist in reducing the decline in the learning of Japanese. There currently appears to be a mismatch between what is said at the ministerial level and what actually appears in terms of policy directives and implementation. Interestingly, in the *Briefing to the Incoming Minister of Education*, December 2011 (Ministry of Education, 2011b), there is no mention of international languages.

Another key role of national language learning policy is to provide long-term strategic guidance for the Ministry of Education which filters down to schools, teachers and students. As well as informing future curriculum developments, it would aid long-term planning for the allocation of resources related to languages taught, the number of additional language teachers required in the future, and resources and professional development available for existing teachers. This kind of long-term commitment in planning and stability of policy is needed to effectively meet learning outcomes (Lo Bianco, 2008; University of Auckland, 2011).

In addition to the lack of language policy, the non-compulsory nature of languages as a subject in the New Zealand Curriculum has led to the fragmentation of language teaching, and a lack of a planned progression from primary to secondary and secondary to tertiary (The Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013). Aspects related to transition are discussed in further detail in Section 2.3.2.

The lack of a national policy for languages, and the fact it is not a compulsory learning area within the New Zealand Curriculum may send a negative message about the importance of language learning in New Zealand. These issues are further addressed in this Part and in Part 3 of this review.

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## Analysis – Part 2.1

### The lack of a national policy on the learning of language

Due to globalisation, the need for economic growth and a focus on trade, the importance of Japanese and other Asian languages is frequently signalled in the media and in ministerial documents. However, there is a mismatch between what is said at this level and what actually appears in terms of policy directives and implementation.

Although calls for the introduction of a national policy in New Zealand were first made over 20 years ago, and are supported by a wide range of stakeholders, there is currently no national language policy in New Zealand and learning a language is not compulsory in New Zealand schools. This may send a negative message about the importance of language learning in New Zealand.

No further research in this area is recommended as there is a clear recognition of the need for a national language policy. It is recommended that there be continued lobbying for a national policy on languages, in particular promoting the learning of Japanese, as well as lobbying for language learning to be a compulsory component of the curriculum, which is adequately resourced and managed. Here, a concerted group effort by as many individuals and organisations as possible with an interest in languages, particularly Japanese, is recommended.

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## Section 2.2

### The development of the current 'Learning Languages' area of the curriculum

#### A brief history of the development of the current New Zealand language curriculum

Rather than repeat information which is more fully described in articles by Spence (2004) and Koefoed (2012), this section provides a brief summary of key developments as a foundation for the remainder of this part of the review.

Although languages were not a separate learning area within the curriculum (Ministry of Education (1993) prior to 2007, in the 1990s a series of language-specific guidelines, including one for Japanese (Ministry of Education, 1998), together with a series of DVDs and teacher support notes (e.g. *Hail!*, O'Hallahan, 1998), were developed to support teachers. Following the curriculum stocktake in 2002 (Ministry of Education, 2002b), it was agreed that the area of learning languages be formally incorporated as a separate learning area in the curriculum. Although this was a positive outcome, and the area of learning languages first appeared in the curriculum in 2007 (Ministry of Education, 2007b), it remains the only one of eight learning areas that is not compulsory. The curriculum stated that 'all schools with students in Years 7 – 10 should be working towards offering students opportunities for learning a second or subsequent language' (Ministry of Education, 2007b, p 44) but students are not required to study a language even if one is offered in their school. Within certain guidelines, and in line with the overall policy of independent self-managing boards, schools can select languages appropriate to their local community's needs and interests. In addition, they can choose the way in which the language is taught, for example, taught in blocks during a given term, through regular weekly language lessons, in rotation, or using taster courses. A number of approaches are currently being used, but little has been done to assess their effectiveness (McLauchlan, 2007).

The development of the new learning area allowed for a substantial review into the pedagogy around learning languages. The current pedagogy is based on a task-based, communicative competence approach to language learning. The development process was lengthy (from 2002 – 2007) and was informed by international research and best practice (Koefoed, 2012). It was developed openly, with inputs from many quarters (Koefoed, 2012) and represented a positive and progressive move, which was possibly ahead of international best practice. The new learning area has communication as its overarching component, supported by the two strands of language and cultural knowledge. These two strands are supported by two key ministry reports: *Instructed Second Language Acquisition: A Literature Review* (Ellis, 2005) and *An Introduction to the Concept of Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching and Learning* (Ministry of Education, (2010b)). The first report, supporting the language learning knowledge strand, summarises the accepted literature to date, and relates these to Ellis’s ten principles of second language. The report by the Ministry of Education, (2010b) supports the cultural knowledge strand and argues that language and culture are inseparable. If good communication is the aim of second language teaching, then the language has to be used in accordance with certain norms and with high levels of cultural understanding.

Despite these curriculum developments, there is a continued decline in the overall number of students learning languages and Japanese suffers the highest rate of decline. While Part 3 of this review looks into the factors surrounding motivation, retention and attrition, the following section looks at some of the challenges posed by the implementation of the learning languages area of the New Zealand Curriculum.

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### **Section 2.3**

#### **Concerns identified with the Learning Languages area of the curriculum**

As outlined above, the new learning area was based on sound theoretical foundations which, on the surface, should have promoted language learning, providing the basis for active involvement, motivation and academic success. However, the transition to a new approach has provided some challenges which are discussed in the sub-sections that follow. The first three relate to the design of the curriculum and include the generic nature of the curriculum, the nature of progression the proficiency-based framework allows (including issues related to the transition to secondary), and NCEA and curriculum alignment. A further two are more systemic concerns that have been present for a number of years and are related to the rapid growth of Japanese in the 1980s and 1990s, and the implementation of the new learning area. These include a lack of information on the current numbers of teachers of Japanese and the on-going need for professional development and training. Although causal relationships are difficult to assess, these five areas are likely to have played some role in the attrition factors outlined in part 3 of this review.

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#### **2.3.1 Generic nature of the language learning area of the curriculum**

The generic nature of the new curriculum poses a challenge for some teachers. For example, while the Ministry of Education’s TKI and Digistore websites provide a number of suggested task-based activities to support teachers for each language, as Scott and East (2012) note, there has been no attempt to define language structures or topics that learners must work through at each level for each language. This parallels issues experienced in other countries as will be

discussed in Part 5. Teachers therefore have a lot of flexibility to develop tasks and material relevant to their students (Ministry of Education, 2011a). Japanese teachers also support each other (sharing ideas and tasks) through the NZJNET e-mail discussion list; although some posts on this forum suggest that teachers have not fully embraced the communicative competence approach of the new curriculum. The change in practice required by the new curriculum has meant that teachers seeking support and more structure and prescription are still referring to the earlier Japanese language specific guidelines (Erlam, 2006; Scott & East, 2012).

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### Analysis – Section 2.3.1

Currently, there is evidence that the generic nature of the new curriculum poses challenges for teachers seeking more prescription and support.

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#### Recommendations for further investigation

1. On-going professional development on task development that supports the new task-based communicative competence approach to language learning.
2. More systematic sharing of tasks among teachers. Work with Ministry of Education to get these uploaded to the TKI and Digistore websites.

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### 2.3.2 Proficiency-based curriculum and transition issues

The new curriculum is a proficiency-based framework linked to the Common European Framework (CEFR), (Scott & East, 2012). The benefit of a proficiency framework is that it allows for more transparency around the expected level of learner proficiency and if used correctly, should allow learners to enter a class at the correct level for their ability, regardless of their age (Council of Europe, 2001) or for teachers to differentiate their teaching for learners at different levels within one class. This acknowledges a degree of learner difference and should reduce the repetition of prior learning, which can have a negative impact on the motivation of language learners (this issue is examined in further detail in Part 3 of this review). However, there is little information as to what extent teachers are making use of the benefits of having a proficiency-based framework.

One of the prime aims of the new curriculum was the provision of language learning for students at an earlier age. Given the freedom of schools to choose which language(s) are offered, it is very likely that secondary schools pupils enter with varied language backgrounds. Faced with this issue, secondary teachers may opt for the simple option and start classes from Level 1, and not differentiate their teaching for learners at different levels, even if there are learners who are capable of working at a higher level of the curriculum. This may lead to frustration from students who find they have to repeat previous learning which may negatively impact on motivation. Similarly, if learners are taught at a level that is too high for them, this could lead to anxiety, low self-esteem and reduced levels of confidence. All the features associated with a lack of recognition of the level of learners, may impact on the motivation of Japanese language learners and on retention rates.

It remains to be investigated the extent to which teachers of Japanese at the secondary level were prepared for this change in their intake. Shearn (2003) and Jacques (2009) highlight issues regarding the lack of coordination between

primary, intermediate<sup>2</sup> and secondary schools. East (2008, p. 126) refers to the possibility of 'several layers of mismatch' and there is anecdotal evidence that in the absence of clear progression guidelines, problems have arisen. In practice, accurate assessment of the ability level of students is dependent on the accuracy of teacher judgement, placement tests and needs analysis techniques, which are notoriously time consuming and difficult to administer within the context of the busy school day (Oshima, 2012). In reality, there are no such instruments available at the national level and there is no documented evidence of teachers making such judgements. Based upon evidence from other countries that have undergone similar changes to their Japanese language learning curriculums, the difficulties currently being experienced in New Zealand have been similar and were to be expected. This issue is one that teachers in Australia and England are also facing with increasing numbers of learners coming through with a background in Japanese language learning from primary or intermediate school. In Australia, positive case studies have been identified as models of good practice, for example in South Australia a high school teaching Japanese worked closely with the five local feeder schools 'to ensure that students' prior learning was acknowledged and taken into account when they began their secondary schooling' (de Kretser and Spence-Brown, 2010, p. 61).

Further concerns relate to senior language classes where there may be low numbers of students. To save on teaching time and timetabling clashes, senior classes are often combined across curriculum and year levels which results in challenges for both teachers and students. Oshima (2012) suggests that mixed-level classes are a major concern and have negative effects on both Japanese language learners and their teachers, particularly where effective pedagogy is not used to differentiate teaching for learners at different levels, although Jacques (2008, 2009), in small-scale case study research, found that some students were positive about their mixed-level classroom experiences.

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### Analysis – Section 2.3.2

Currently, there is little information on the methods teachers use to accurately place Japanese language learners at different levels of the curriculum, particularly in the transition to secondary school. Students are most often grouped by age; however, within a single class students may arrive with varying levels of Japanese language experience, or no Japanese at all. Individual needs may not be addressed by grouping students with a range of abilities in the same class, potentially resulting in repetition and boredom.

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### Recommendations for further investigation

**3.** We suggest an action research approach is used to pilot models of regional grouping and local networks to develop best practice for recognising and managing the difference in levels of Japanese language learners, particularly focusing on the transition to secondary, which can be shared nationally with other schools.

**4.** We suggest that classroom-based research is carried out to determine the effects of students being taught in a class which is not their level or where differentiated teaching is not used. Both student and teacher perspectives should be looked at together with the effect on teaching and learning.

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<sup>2</sup> Intermediate school in New Zealand caters for years 7 – 8 and is officially part of primary school education although separate intermediate schools are common.

5. We suggest that case studies or models of good practice for mitigating the effect of problems related to mixed-level classes are identified and shared.

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### 2.3.3 The alignment of language curriculum levels and NCEA achievement standards

During the draft and discussion stages of the curriculum (2005 – 2006), much work was done by teachers, advisers, academics and the Ministry of Education on issues regarding the alignment between levels 6, 7 and 8 with the existing NCEA achievement standards (Erlam, 2006). At that time, and before the official alignment project (2010 to 2012) between the curriculum and NCEA achievement standards took place, the following quotation is typical of the level of discussion and feedback:

*NCEA achievement standards Level 3 do refer, however, to the expression of points of view. At this level, it is also expected that 'a substantial amount of the conversation should be provided by the student' (3.3), which corresponds with the DAO 'engage in extended interactions'. It would appear that there is a mismatch between NCEA Level 3 and the curriculum at Levels 7 and 8. All NCEA achievement objectives at Level 3 mention the use of complex language, while the curriculum refers to the use of 'basic language patterns' in spontaneous situations (p.57).*

Recent research has also highlighted similar issues. For example, Ogino (2011) found that in a comparison of NCEA Level 3 Japanese exams from years 2006 – 2010, the number and types of senior level language structures varied substantially across exam papers. He found that the number and difficulty of language structures increased substantially and consistently from 2006 – 2009, with a peak in 2009, but small decreases in 2010. Ogino (2011, p. 36) argues that this 'lends support to the report by NZALT and NAJLT of the existence of problematic issues'. Comparing external NCEA listening and reading examination requirements from 2006 to 2011, Ogino (2012) found longer texts and a number of linguistic errors in the newly aligned standards.

Although it is beyond the scope of this pilot study to review the curriculum and NCEA alignment, it is likely that many of the problems identified were resolved in the earlier review process and in the alignment project where the alignment between the curriculum and NCEA standards was reviewed starting with Level 1 in 2010, level 2 in 2011 and level 3 in 2012. However, given the challenges in the setting of standards and issues related to year to year comparability that exist in any examination system, there may still be areas of concern such as those highlighted by Ogino (2012) above. We therefore suggest that further work is done to research and monitor the alignment between the curriculum and NCEA and year to year standards.

Much of the early research and criticism of NCEA has concerned the impact of testing on teaching and learning (Alison, 2005, 2008; Ogino, 2011). This washback effect is the extent to which assessment processes positively or negatively influence the teaching and learning process. These can be intended or unintended consequences which can be seen in all subject areas and at all levels of education (Scott, Litwin, & Schmid, 2006). With regard to the teaching of Japanese, evidence gathered from teachers suggests that this influence is significant and often counter-productive to the intended outcomes of the

curriculum (Ogino, 2011). Particular concerns relating to the washback effect occur when the curriculum calls for communicative competence teaching methodologies, which are then tested using traditional grammar translation and vocabulary assessments (Alison, 2005; Ogino, 2011). Teachers often find themselves in a dilemma, as in order for their students to pass the exams they have to use more traditional methods with teacher led classes and grammar-based materials. For example, Jabbar (2012), based on interviews with New Zealand Japanese language teachers, comments on how the teaching of communicative competence became almost unnatural and artificial for the sake of students' exams and grades.

Negative washback may be more prevalent with teachers who are less experienced in teaching communicative competence at senior levels. In addition, it has been suggested that some native speaker teachers of Japanese find it more reassuring to teach using more traditional pedagogy (Guthrie, 2005; Asia Education Foundation (2010). There is no current available data on the make-up of the Japanese language teaching body but it is possible that there are issues surrounding training in the teaching of communicative competence and in access to targeted professional development (discussed below in more detail in the final two sections of this part of the review).

As Jabbar (2012) notes, washback is very complex and therefore direct cause and effect linkages are difficult to establish and are often mediated by a number of variables. Though the new NCEA system has, in recent years, been a work in progress, despite criticisms it is felt to be a better qualifications system than the previous examinations systems (e.g., Nash, 2005).

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### Analysis — Section 2.3.3

#### The alignment of language curriculum levels and NCEA achievement standards.

Despite the alignment process between the curriculum and NCEA, issues may still exist and we would signal this as an area for further investigation. Given that much of research on the washback effect has been collected from groups or individuals outside the classroom, we suggest that any new research is done at the classroom level with active participation of teachers who are involved with the day-to-day teaching of Japanese across a range of levels.

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#### Recommendations for further investigation

- 6. We suggest that further work is done to research and monitor the alignment between the curriculum and NCEA and year to year standards.
- 7. We suggest that classroom-based research be undertaken into the prevalence and nature of any washback effects associated with NCEA requirements and testing for Japanese.

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### 2.3.4 Number of Japanese teachers

Currently there are no statistics collected by the Ministry of Education on the number of teachers working in many curriculum areas, including Japanese, as the level of reporting required by schools does not require a breakdown of how many

teachers are employed at a school or the subjects they teach. In addition, it may be difficult to categorise Japanese language teachers as they may be part-time or full-time, permanently employed, or on temporary contracts, employed at only certain times in the year, specialist teachers or generalist teachers working across several subjects. Given the previously acknowledged shortage of Japanese language teachers (Guthrie, 2005; East 2003, 2008; University of Auckland, 2011), the lack of basic employment data prevents an evaluation as to whether this is a continued problem and if so, the extent of the problem and its seriousness.

The only detailed research available on New Zealand language teachers was carried out in 2003 by Guthrie (2005). The survey confirmed the shortage of language teachers and revealed some of the measures taken by principals or heads of departments to overcome this. These included the employment of untrained language teachers and native speakers with no knowledge of teaching. The native speaker teachers were termed as 'overseas' teachers and defined as those recruited from outside New Zealand, residents or immigrants, and non-native speakers of English (Guthrie, 2005). Although the principals outlined some merits in employing 'overseas' teachers, they did express difficulties in areas such as a lack of English, knowledge of the New Zealand curriculum, problems with pedagogy and relating to students. These findings are supported by Okamura (2008), in Jabbar (2012), who discusses how native speaker Japanese teachers have faced 'life shock' and have felt isolated as new Japanese teachers in New Zealand. While principals attempted to fill gaps in the best way they could, it was acknowledged that there was insufficient resourcing for some languages and these were removed from the timetable. Japanese was signalled as being one of these languages. Since the specification in the curriculum that 'schools with students in Years 7 – 10 should be working towards offering student opportunities for language learning' (Ministry of Education, 2007b, p. 44), the shortage of Japanese language teachers across all years may have been exacerbated (Oshima, 2012; de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). Given the recent concerns expressed by the Ministry of Education and others in the field (University of Auckland, 2011; East, 2008; Oshima, 2012) including anecdotal evidence and comments in the media (Beal, 2012; Helliwell, 2012; McKinnon, 2013) it would appear that issues remain. Similarly, Jabbar (2012), comments on the difficulty in hiring good language teachers due to the low number of applicants. In the absence of accurate data on the employment of language teachers, little can be done to evaluate or target the source of the problem.

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#### **Analysis – Section 2.3.4**

#### **Concerns related to the number of Japanese teachers**

The shortage of suitably qualified language teachers was acknowledged in the early 2000s although currently there are no available statistics on the number of teachers of Japanese. This gap prevents a full evaluation as to whether this is a continuing problem, and if so its extent and seriousness.

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#### **Recommendations for further investigation**

**8.** We suggest that research is undertaken using the original format of the questionnaires used in the 2003 Christchurch study (subject to permission) in relation to shortages of Japanese teachers. If needed, the questionnaire could be updated and completed online.

9. Given the regional variations in the extent of the decline of the Japanese language learning outlined in Part 1, it is proposed that each region is examined for correlations between a shortage of teachers and the decline in the teaching of Japanese. The examination should include factors such as locality (rural versus urban), decile, the school's past history of language teaching and the attitudes of principals and boards of trustees to the usefulness of Japanese.

10. At the national level, research should be undertaken to identify case study schools that have developed successful practices in finding and retaining teachers of Japanese.

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### 2.3.5 Professional development for in-service teachers

Following the introduction of the new curriculum in 2007 which specified that 'schools with students in Years 7 – 10 should be working towards offering students opportunities for language learning' (Ministry of Education, 2007b, p. 44) it became pivotal to train new language teachers. The focus of Ministry support and funding has been on Years 7 – 8 and assistance was given to schools to help start language programmes. Acknowledging the need for additional teachers, and in order to comply with the above requirement, calls were made to existing teachers who had some knowledge of the languages needed and were enthusiastic about teaching them. This drew criticism from many quarters but it was broadly accepted that if New Zealand was to promote learning language, particularly in Years 7 and 8, then it was better to do something than nothing at all (East, 2008). Those opposed to the move held the view that it was preferable to do nothing, rather than risk delivering poor quality language teaching, '...as a result of lack of available and suitably qualified teachers' (East, 2008, p. 126; Barnard, 2006). The concern was that, potentially poor standards of teaching would lead to low levels of active learning, motivation and achievement, resulting in high rates of attrition (East, 2008). These criticisms were based on knowledge about the level of language proficiency and cultural competency required to create a quality learning experience (Hu, 2005). Here Barnard (2006) suggests that unless there were trained teachers available, taster courses should not be offered until Year 8. Concerns over the educational value of taster courses run prior to the introduction of the new curriculum were expressed due to inadequately trained and inexperienced teachers (McLauchlan, 2007). In order to address the above criticisms, a substantial amount of training and professional development was provided for teachers.

There is a clear body of evidence, both internationally and in New Zealand (e.g. Insley & Thomson, 2008), that investment in professional development and training during the introduction of a new curriculum results in many benefits. These include increased appreciation of the need for reform, rapid adoption of the new curriculum, adherence and support for the changes, and better alignment with the new curriculum objectives. Three complementary strands were employed in New Zealand. First, the Teacher Professional Development Languages (TPDL) programme, which was a one-year programme with three components aimed at developing language proficiency, training in second language learning principles and pedagogy, and in-school support for teachers. It is beyond the brief of this pilot study to evaluate the effectiveness of this and similar programmes (see Richards, Conway, Roskvist & Harvey, 2012; Insley & Thomson, 2008; Ministry

of Education, 2011a; Ministry of Education, 2009; Scott & East, 2012; Scott & Butler, 2007a; Clarke, 2008), for an overview of the programme and its strengths and weakness). Despite these measures, there are still concerns about the levels of language proficiency and cultural competence of some teachers. Furthermore concerns have been expressed that teachers may not have the ability to teach at higher levels of the new curriculum and ensure students are exposed to authentic language (Erlam, 2006; Richards et al., 2012; Hu, 2005; Ministry of Education, 2011a; Oshima, 2012). In contrast, Scott and Butler (2007b) suggest that in certain circumstances, a teacher learning a language alongside their class, may have some positives.

The second strand of professional development was introduced in 2011 and is known as the International Languages Exchanges and Pathways programme (ILEP)<sup>3</sup>. This is an interconnected, five-stage pathway, to develop language proficiency and consolidate professional learning. Its aim is to ‘... work with principals and senior management, heads of departments, senior teachers and teachers of Years 7 – 13 to establish a learning languages strategy and frame’ (ILEP, website). In addition, working through five specialist language advisers (one of whom is Japanese); the ILEP aims to promote international teacher exchanges and opportunities for immersion training in the target language. The third strand was the development of a range of web-based teaching materials, e.g. TKI and Digistore, and DVDs containing modelled activities targeted at Years 7 – 8, or levels 1 and 2 of the new curriculum, e.g. *First Class DVD* (Ministry of Education, 2010a). Through ILEP, professional development opportunities are also provided and supported by two National Coordinators and National Language Advisors (there is one for Japanese).

The ILEP programme<sup>4</sup> is also responsible for on-going professional development and help in finding language teaching assistants under the Rex Program – part of the New Zealand Japan Exchange Programme. Teaching assistants are usually young native speakers who work for an agreed number of hours. Schools can also make their own arrangements.

Teachers, both new and experienced, are also supported by the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT) which is the professional association for teachers of all languages (other than English or Māori as first languages) and all educational sectors.

Another proposed solution for addressing potential Japanese teacher shortages at secondary level is to increase the number of pre-service teachers. Currently, entrants to pre-service secondary teacher training hold a first degree and are required to complete a one-year teacher training programme. Trainees choose two specialist subjects and, if one is languages, they receive training in language teaching pedagogy, though not Japanese specific. Given the complexity of the language, the situation is far from ideal. Furthermore, with the decline in the number of Japanese language graduates at the tertiary level (see Part 4 of the review), it remains to be seen where new teacher trainees will come from. As a result, measures such as bursaries and additional credit inducements may be needed to encourage the take up of Japanese. Incentives such as these have been tried in Victoria, Australia, with some success (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). For example, senior high school students are awarded extra credits for undertaking Japanese language examinations. These can be added to existing credits for university entrance to encourage the learning of Japanese at the higher

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<sup>3</sup> The Ministry of Education contracts Auckland UniServices to deliver the ILEP programme. For more detail, visit the ILEP website [www.ilep.ac.nz](http://www.ilep.ac.nz)

<sup>4</sup> For more detail on these programmes, see section 4.5 below or visit the ILEP website [www.ilep.ac.nz](http://www.ilep.ac.nz)

levels and increase tertiary enrolments. In order to ensure there were enough teachers available in England to fulfil the government's commitment to high quality language teaching, a substantial allocation was invested towards provision of 6,000 pre-service teacher training places. In addition, generous training bursaries were offered to graduates who wanted to take up language teacher training, and a substantial 'golden hello' was made to new language teachers (East, 2008, p. 118).

Scott (2011), for her PhD, is exploring what it means to be a teacher of languages in New Zealand schools. Data include teacher perceptions of their knowledge and ability as language teachers as well as information on their qualifications and professional learning experiences. Although she is researching language teachers generally, the results of Scott's doctoral study will provide an important contribution to the context of Japanese language teaching in New Zealand.

In summary, in order for the new learning area of the curriculum to succeed, it is critical that there are adequate numbers of well-trained teachers who are proficient in the language, have high levels of cultural knowledge and understanding and are aware of the latest developments in second language learning and teaching. It has not been possible to find data on the number of Japanese teachers or language assistants employed or determine the extent of the problems above and how they impact student attrition.

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### **Analysis – Section 2.3.5**

Professional development and facilitating the sharing of ideas and best practice need to be on-going to support Japanese language teachers.

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### **Recommendations for further investigation**

**11.** Using the proposed online questionnaire outlined in Section 2.3.4, Recommendation 8, we further recommend the data gathering process be expanded to include the collection of contact details for any language teaching assistants or teachers of Japanese. Additionally data such as qualifications, training needs and recent professional development experiences could be collected. This could provide an accurate national baseline for the training needs of teachers and provide evidence for targeted professional development.

**12.** Accepting the principle that professional development should be on-going, we recommend an action research project to look at ways of establishing local and regional networks or communities of professional development for teachers of Japanese. Its aim would be to investigate ways of bringing small groups of teachers together on a regular basis to share experiences, share materials and carry out professional development.

**13.** Special efforts should be made to contact isolated rural schools with only one language teacher or a shared post.



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## Part 3: Factors relating to choice of study, motivation, retention and attrition

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### Section 3.1 Factors relating to a student's choice to pursue Japanese language

Many factors appear to influence the decline in numbers of Japanese language learners. For the purposes of this review, these are grouped together into three broad sections: *selection*, *motivation*, and *retention and attrition*. These three topics are extremely complex and interrelated and therefore there is some crossover between these topics within each of the three sections. Within each section, the literature to date is outlined and each section concludes with recommendations for research. As these three topics relate to Japanese language learners and learning at both secondary and tertiary, the discussion in this part relates these factors to a wider context and draws on the international literature to date.

During this part of the review, a degree of back referencing to the context and challenges highlighted in Part 2 is necessary. However, it is difficult to establish direct causal links with the lack of national policy in New Zealand, it has been found that in the past, changes in policies at secondary education level have been a major factor in the decline of Japanese language learners in Australia and the United States (Japan Foundation, 2009, 2011; de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010).

Additionally, national language strategies or policies in Australia and England, which are examined in Part 5 of this review, have sought to change perceptions on language learning and reverse the decline. Within the Australian context, for example, as will be discussed in Part 5, attempts have been made to implement measures to grow a culture in which language learning is appreciated by the broader society. This has led to improved participation and retention of students. Therefore, a degree of back referencing to the context and challenges highlighted in Part 2 of the review, is both informative and necessary.

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#### 3.1.1 The nature of Japanese as a language

For a predominantly English speaking country like New Zealand, choosing to learn a foreign language is seen as a difficult and unpopular option (Jeffrey, 2007; Reisz, 2009; Sussex, 2008; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Bracefield, 2005). Furthermore, Japanese, with its three forms of script is seen as a difficult choice compared with other languages or subjects (Lo Bianco, 2000; Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; Shimizu & Green, 2002; The Foreign Service Institute, 2006; Chiswick & Miller, 2005; Curnow & Kohler, 2007; McLauchlan, 2007). In the New Zealand context, the difficulty of learning Japanese has been identified as a factor in the choice of subject selection but also as a factor influencing motivation once the subject is selected, therefore also impacting retention (McLauchlan, 2007; Semba 2012). Due to the perceived difficulty of Japanese, there is a tendency to view Japanese as an elite subject, suited to high ability students (Jabbar, 2012).

This raises questions about the reasons behind student choices in selecting Japanese.

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### 3.1.2 School factors

Students can only choose to study a particular language if it is available within their school. The literature supports the statistics presented in Part 1 of this review, showing that there is a link between the low decile schools and a decline in the numbers of schools and learners taking languages (McLauchlan, 2007; Shearn, 2003; Holt, Maeda, Sasai, Shaw, Walker, and Young, 2001). While the literature refers to second language learning generally, the statistics presented in Part 1 of this review relate specifically to Japanese. Additionally, principals play a key role in choice of language to be taught. At intermediate level, Lilly (2001) found that principal commitment was a key factor linked to extrinsic benefits of taking a language. It should be noted here that Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education has provided a downloadable PowerPoint presentation for principals of intermediate schools to assist them in introducing Japanese as a subject (Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education, 2007).

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### 3.1.3 Curriculum and timetabling

Shearn (2003) and McLauchlan (2007) comment that because the new curriculum has more subjects on offer which were previously seen as extra-curricular subjects, there is more competition for student class enrolments. This has led to what McLauchlan (2007, p. 33) refers to as a 'thinning effect', resulting in fewer students selecting Japanese. Of particular impact was the inclusion of Mandarin Chinese as an official subject in secondary schools in 2000 (McLauchlan, 2007). The increase in importance of Chinese as a trade language is affecting language choice, particularly when a language is selected for extrinsic reasons. There are also issues with students prioritising pre-requisite subjects for university (McLauchlan, 2007; de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). A similar 'thinning effect' has been found in England where Coleman (2011) notes that languages face heavy competition over their timetable share while de Kretser and Spence-Brown (2010) reference the importance of school timetabling in providing an incentive for students to continue with Japanese in the Australian context. It should also be noted that McLauchlan (2007) suggests that 'timetabling' may be a convenient excuse for students when other factors such as difficulty of the language and motivational issues may be at play.

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### 3.1.4 Extrinsic, intrinsic benefits and parental input

An analysis of the reasons why New Zealanders choose to study Japanese reveals that it is related to perceived extrinsic long-term benefits such as finding a highly paid job (Aschoff, 1992; Shearn 2003; Holt, 2006; Holt et al., 2001; Semba; 2012). Parents have significant influence over students' choices of subjects at school (Shearn, 2003; Coleman, Galaczi, & Astruc, 2007; European Commission, 2012; Beal, 1994; Trotter, 1994). When making choices relating to languages, parents are known to make long-term strategic assessments of career prospects which are influenced by prevailing public attitudes about the direction of the world economy (Beal, 1994; Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). This decision process has been used to explain the rapid growth of Japanese language learning in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Lo Bianco,

2000). It is also cited as a cause behind the decline of Japanese and the growth of Chinese language learning in the late 1990s and early 2000s (McLauchlan, 2007). Often these more extrinsic decisions behind opting for Japanese are made without full awareness of the complexities learning Japanese entails (Curnow & Kohler, 2007; Oshima, 2012). Furthermore, the small yet significant amount of research available raises doubts about the benefits of learning Japanese as a 'career tool'. Research suggests that graduates seeking employment for the first time in large Japanese international companies do not have a sufficient level of language to afford them a substantial advantage (Cullen, 2005). In addition, the employment of 'foreigners' in Japanese companies in Japan is extremely low compared with other multinational companies. There is anecdotal evidence that, at senior levels, Japanese companies prefer to employ Japanese nationals who speak English, rather than native English speakers who speak Japanese. This was cited by Enderwick & Gray as early as 1993. Linked to the notion of the learning of Japanese as a career tool, is the lack of inspiring careers materials and the shortage of careers advice targeted at prospective students of Japanese. A summary of what was able to be located is available in Appendix 2. In addition to this, the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education provides the career profiles of former Japanese students on their website (Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education, 2013). During our research, teachers at the secondary and tertiary levels commented on the lack of suitable promotional material aimed at Japanese language and related careers. This was in contrast to other languages where students were supplied with quality materials from various language foundations. However, caution should be taken in assuming that the provision of enticing careers materials will solve the problem of declining numbers of learners of Japanese at tertiary level. In a more complex analysis of the reasons for choosing Japanese and continuing to study it, there is evidence of more intrinsic factors at work (Nuibe, Kano & Ito, 1995; Oshima, 2012). This supports the findings of Gardner & MacIntyre (1993) who suggest similar intrinsic factors and cultural attractions are found to influence a learner's choice of which language to study. For example, a student may be attracted by what they see as the 'exotic' nature of the Japanese language and culture seeing the language as a gateway to access the culture and potentially visit or live in Japan. For example, in New Zealand, Shearn (2003) found student choice to be related to interest in visiting Japan.

The attraction of Japanese 'pop' culture such as the worldwide spread of *anime* and *manga* films and cartoons, computer games, Japanese pop-music (J-pop), and participation in Japanese martial arts have all been cited as reasons for choosing to study Japanese (Williams-Prince, 2009; Japan Foundation, 2009, 2011; Forato, 2008; Jabbar, 2012; Matsumoto, 2007). For data collection purposes in 2009, the Japan Foundation added this to its international survey of the reasons why students take Japanese and a high percentage of respondents (over 50%) indicated it was influential in their choice.

It is also suggested that students are significantly influenced by the choices made by their peers (McLauchlan, 2007; Shearn, 2003; Semba, 2012) suggesting that they may get more enjoyment out of a subject if they are in a learning environment with their friends. It has been argued that students who are intrinsically motivated to pursue Japanese language studies, suffer lower rates of attrition than students who are motivated via the extrinsic 'career tool' factors as is discussed in further detail below (Shearn, 2003; Nuibe, et al., 1995; Oshima, 2012; Trotter, 1994).

It has been suggested that there is a shortage of information on the benefits of foreign language learning (Shearn, 2003; McLauchlan, 2007; Holt et al., 2001) and although the Ministry of Education (2007c) provides brief and generic information on this, further work here for Japanese on both the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits may be useful.

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## Analysis — Part 3.1

### Factors relating to a student's choice to pursue Japanese language learning

Students' reasons for selecting Japanese are complex, influenced by their parents and often justified in terms of a career tool. However, there has never been a nationwide study of students' motivation for choosing to learn Japanese at the secondary or tertiary level. Therefore, there is a need to get an up-to-date picture of students' choices related to the selection of Japanese and what can be done to encourage more of them to do so.

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### Recommendations for further investigation

1. Given the relatively small numbers of students who opt for Japanese at the tertiary level, we recommend that a cohort/year study be established across all tertiary institutions which offer Japanese. At secondary level, a sampling approach could be used to ensure good representation of deciles and regions. Using an online survey approach, it would collect data on students' intrinsic and extrinsic reasons for choosing to learn the language, the extent by which they were influenced by external factors such as their parents and friends, the attraction of the Japanese culture, etc. The collection of this data is valuable in its own right; however, it could also be used to evaluate the alignment of students' reasons for choosing to study Japanese and content of courses. For example, if a significant number of students at a given institution indicate that they selected Japanese for reasons related to a possible career, to what extent is that reflected in the content of its courses?
2. Using a sample of secondary schools which represent the regional variations outlined in Part 1 of the review, survey the parents of students who elected to study Japanese and those who did not, to determine the extent of the influence they have and the views they hold on Japanese.
3. Using a sample of secondary schools which represent the regional variations outlined in Part 1 of the review, survey the principals of schools to determine the factors that influence their decisions about the choice of languages taught in their schools.
4. Using the above information and available academic literature, provide clearer information for stakeholders in terms of the benefits (intrinsic and extrinsic) of learning Japanese.

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## Section 3.2

### The motivation of Japanese language learners

Student motivation is a complex area and there are a large number of theoretical, often competing models. Understanding the motivational factors for Japanese language learners is necessary for understanding the possible causes for the decline in student numbers of Japanese. This review avoids debates surrounding the theory of motivation. Instead, we will use the simple concept of an achievement cycle. This accepts that Japanese language learners come to their education with individual needs and expectations. The extent to which those are met through the learning they encounter, the greater their feeling of achievement, which in turn generates motivation and encourages further learning (Ellis, 2005). This links in with the discussion above where it was suggested that intrinsic motivation takes over from extrinsic motivation in playing a key role in retention. For example, as Lo Bianco and Slaughter (2009, p. 26) note there has been a shift to this 'internal perspective'. We further acknowledge that motivation related to language learning is complex and non-static in nature (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Oshima, 2012) and teachers at the secondary and tertiary levels have to constantly seek opportunities to build motivation.

To help identify possible areas of concern for motivation we will look at teaching and learning factors at the individual student level and at the student-class-teacher levels. These two are inseparable and interlinked; however, they are often studied in isolation. Due to the limited amount of data and research in this area, the following sections are more exploratory in nature and draw heavily on international literature.

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#### 3.2.1 Factors affecting individual student motivation

Individual motivational factors related to language learning and in particular Japanese, can be applied to both the secondary and tertiary contexts. Some of these were discussed above in section 3.1.4 where we looked at the reasons for selecting Japanese. Other aspects not discussed above include:

- Previous experiences in learning the language or a language (Baldauf & Djité, 2000; Dörnyei, 2009; Ushioda, 2009),
- The inappropriate placement of students in combined level classes (Holt, 2006; Oshima, 2012; Tse, 2000),
- How students perceive their progress against their intended aims (Maehr & Meyer, 1997; McLauchlan, 2007),
- How they perceive the fairness of assessment, the amount of assessment and its relevance to their intended aims,
- Their attitudes to the target language (Gardner & MacIntyre 1993; Ushioda, 2009),
- A student's level of confidence (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The list above is not exhaustive and overlaps with other sections in this part, but it outlines the general areas where we have found agreement in the literature relating to language learning at the individual student level. However, as with most areas of second language learning, there are still on-going debates as to the extent and influence of the various factors above.

### 3.2.2 Student-teacher and teaching and learning factors that affect student motivation

Students in Bracefield's (2005) New Zealand study stated that having a good language teacher and a good language programme were key to their success. Teachers have an important role in motivating students. They do this through the quality of their teaching, preparation and professionalism, the selection of appropriate and enjoyable learning tasks, appropriate feedback on these tasks and assessments, classroom management and the student-teacher relationships they develop (Scott & Butler, 2008). Therefore, it stands to reason that if a teacher does not deliver the above, then student motivation will suffer (Dörnyei, 2009; Holt, et al., 2001; Oshima, 2012; Tse, 2000; Bracefield, 2005). This may even turn into its negative form, 'amotivation' (Dörnyei, 2001; Oshima, 2012). In addition, factors such as teacher knowledge, proficiency in the language and the enthusiasm teachers convey about their subject have also been found to affect student motivation (Oshima, 2012; Matsumoto & Obana, 2001). Ferguson and Grainger (2005) go further than this and discuss the importance of personalised relationships between teachers and learners in creating and maintaining student interest.

As we outlined in the final section of Part 2, there are concerns regarding a shortage of suitably qualified teachers at secondary level which is likely to play a role in learner motivation (Aschoff, 1991; Barnard, 2006; University of Auckland, 2011; Guthrie, 2005; Haugh, 1997; Jabber, 2012; Oshima, 2012). For example, in Australia, this issue has been linked to negative consequences for student achievement and possibly also their motivation (Asia Education Foundation, 2010).

The lack of curriculum continuity across educational levels and institutions (East, Shackelford, & Spence, 2007; Haugh, 1997; Oshima, 2012; Shearn, 2003) and the lack of consistency of teaching approaches and materials may also impact student motivation. Additionally, the degree of authenticity of the language learning experience created by the teacher has been highlighted as an important aspect (Holt et al., 2001; Matsumoto, 2007; Ferguson & Grainger, 2005). This is supported by Wang and Erlam (2011) who found that, in the New Zealand context, a task-based approach increased learner willingness to communicate. This reiterates the findings and recommendations made in Part 2 of this review where further teacher professional development opportunities are needed to support the new learning area of the New Zealand curriculum. It also reiterates the findings and recommendations for the need for additional teaching tasks and materials to support teachers.

In both secondary and tertiary contexts, teachers have faced increased demands on their time and workload. For example, since 1996, New Zealand tertiary institutions have been subject to funding cuts, which in turn have led to increases in the size of classes, teaching loads and other pressures. In addition, faculty are subject to more pressure to publish in quality journals and complete a Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF) process<sup>5</sup>. At the secondary level, teachers are often required to teach mixed-level classes where small numbers of learners at each of the senior levels are combined (Oshima, 2012; McLauchlan, 2007; Shearn, 2004; de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). Given these additional pressures, it is possible that these have impacted on teaching and learning and through this, the motivation of language learners. For example, small classes are positively related to student retention at both secondary and tertiary levels (McLauchlan, 2007). Here de Kretser and Spence-Brown (2010) note that

5. In New Zealand universities, funding for future research is granted on the basis of the results from the Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF) process. A significant component of the process is assessing the quality and impact of research outputs over a given period.

retention is generally higher in independent schools where there tend to be smaller class sizes. Without adequate training in how to manage mixed-level classes, this may create an unsatisfactory learning situation for both teachers and students, potentially negatively affecting motivation (Oshima, 2012). Further research is needed to examine the pressures on language teachers at secondary and tertiary levels and the effects they have on the motivation of both teachers and learners.

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## Analysis – Part 3.2

### The motivation of Japanese language learners

If we are to understand the causes for the decline in the numbers of students learning Japanese at the tertiary level, up-to-date research is needed into the complex interplay of factors of motivation at the individual student level. In addition, the effects of increased workloads on teachers need to be assessed together with their effects on teaching and learning.

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### Recommendation for further research

5. Using the cohort online survey outlined in Recommendation 1, it would be relatively simple to survey known motivators.

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## Section 3.3 Factors relating to retention and attrition of Japanese language learners

Retention and attrition are complex concepts and are clearly linked to motivation. Attrition is usually a quantitative measure, often given in numbers or expressed as a rate. In simple terms it refers to the number of students that start a course or programme of study, compared with the number of students that complete it. In that sense, it can be seen as the opposite to retention, which is also given as a number or rate. Attrition is a major cause for concern among tertiary institutions and is currently one of the priority areas. In Australia, at the tertiary level, languages are known to suffer higher rates of attrition compared to other subjects and Japanese has the highest of all with attrition rates as high as 80% (Ferguson & Grainger, 2005). However, attrition is not only a problem for institutions where a loss of funding has an impact on teachers, it is also a significant loss for the student concerned, who in addition to the financial loss of a course not completed, may suffer loss of self-esteem, which may in turn affect their attitudes to learning languages in the future. In addition, it has been argued that there is a wider loss to society in general in terms of lost opportunities for the promotion of international trade and understanding in an increasingly global world (Tinto, 2005). In Part 4, it is also suggested that such learners could have possibly become the Japanese language teachers of the future.

Recent studies of attrition across secondary and tertiary level (Krause, 2005; Madjar & McKinley, 2010; Tinto, 2005; Holt, 2006; McLauchlan, 2007; Nuibe et al., 1995) show that attrition rates are more prominent in the early stages of learning or, at tertiary institutes, in the first year of study. Lo Bianco & Slaughter (2009) and Matsumoto and Obana (2001), suggest that this early stage attrition occurs as students begin to recognise how difficult learning Japanese is and how long it will take them to gain basic proficiency. While this may be a reasonable explanation which is applicable to new learners of the language at the secondary or tertiary levels, other factors may be at play for existing learners of Japanese who also

suffer high rates of attrition. If the teaching and learning situation is not ideal and does not allow students to feel a sense of achievement or progression, high rates of attrition will follow (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). For example, Holt et al., (2001) found retention was more likely when learners consider the language to be their best subject. Alternatively, if students are not personally motivated by an intrinsic need to learn Japanese then interest is likely to be lost (McLauchlan, 2007) leading to an increase in attrition (Bowser, Somasundaram & Danaher, 2007; Krause, 2005). Similarly McLauchlan (2007) and Holt et al., (2001) suggest that parental support for a language is linked to retention while Holt et al., (2001) note that when learners visit other countries, particularly where the language is spoken, intrinsic motivation is more likely to be maintained thus leading to higher retention rates.

In both the New Zealand and Australian contexts, the presence of native Japanese speakers and students from East-Asian backgrounds in senior Japanese classes at secondary level has been a deterrent for students concerned about the ability to achieve good grades, particularly at NCEA level in New Zealand (Haugh, 1997; McLauchlan, 2007; Oshima, 2012; Lo Bianco and Slaughter, 2009; Semba, 2012; Asia Education Foundation 2010). In Australia the issues posed by having learners with a 'home-background' in the same class as non-background learners have resulted in calls for there to be differentiated instruction and classes (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010).

International evidence from tertiary institutions suggests that New Zealand is not alone when it comes to high rates of attrition among Japanese language students (Insley & Thomson, 2008). Therefore, there may be an inclination to accept the decline in student numbers as an international phenomenon and that little can be done in New Zealand to solve the problem. However, there are no national statistics available on attrition rates at tertiary level. Consequently, the extent of the problem in relation to other countries cannot be established. It may well be that some institutions have lower attrition rates than others. For example, two international studies of tertiary institutes cited as having lower attrition rates than other institutions are Ferguson & Grainger (2005) in the Australian context and Matsumoto (2007) in the US context. They pick up on aspects outlined above. For example, while Matsumoto (2007) highlights the authenticity of the learning experience including a communicative focus, Ferguson and Grainger (2005) focus on more structural issues such as small class sizes and the importance of personalised relationships between teachers and learners.

Similar research could be done in New Zealand which could open the way to comparative studies and reveal successful or unsuccessful retention strategies. Furthermore, if the data related to Japanese language learners is collected across the three years of tertiary education, it may also yield quantitative data on the point in a student's academic life, the year or semester, in which attrition occurs. The outcome could be targeted solutions or directed qualitative studies to gather rich data on students' reasons for attrition.

### Analysis – Part 3.3

#### Factors relating to retention and attrition of Japanese language learners

Without current data on attrition rates across secondary schools and tertiary institutions in New Zealand, it remains difficult to identify the causes and possible solutions.

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#### Recommendation for further investigation

6. Using the online survey outlined in Recommendation 1, it would be relatively simple for tertiary institutions to gather their own data on attrition and share it with others through an annual directory as outlined in the next part of the review. Similarly at secondary level, the online survey in recommendation 1 could be extended to include aspects related to retention and attrition. Such data could be used to identify best practice and small-scale action research projects set up to share strategies for reducing attrition.



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## Part 4: New Zealand tertiary

### An overview

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#### Previous research in this area

In the course of undertaking the current review there were three areas of concern. First, was the lack of literature and research at the tertiary level. Second, and despite excellent assistance from the staff at the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC member of staff, personal communication, 24 May 2013), it was difficult to locate detailed statistics on the numbers of students studying Japanese or Japanese related topics at New Zealand tertiary institutions. Third, there is a lack of accurate data relating to the number of Japanese specialist teaching or lecturing staff at the tertiary level. There appears to be only a moderate amount of research concerning Japanese language learning at the tertiary level since the 1990s and the early 2000s. However, two recent master's theses, the first examining transition of learners of Japanese from secondary to tertiary (Oshima, 2012) and the other a comparative study of the teaching of Japanese in Malaysia and New Zealand secondary schools (Jabbar, 2012) have been conducted. Both raised concerns over the continuing decline of student numbers at the tertiary level and the decline in Japanese teaching overall. In addition, recent changes to the secondary curriculum together with pre-existing problems relating to the lack of retention of high-performing learners of Japanese from secondary to tertiary level are highlighted as issues (Oshima, 2012). A third thesis was written by Hirata in 2010 which examined student motivation related to the learning of Kanji.

This part of the review explores the decline in students learning Japanese at tertiary level. It will also explore the concurrent drop in the current head count of Japanese specialists in New Zealand universities and look at whether this has varied over time. Given the limitations of this pilot study, it does not claim to be an extensive or complete inquiry but provides a snapshot in time, identifies trends and make recommendations for further research.

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#### Section 4.1

##### What the statistics tell us

Table 6 below, based on data forwarded by the TEC, presents evidence of a steady, consistent decline in student numbers since 2005, with an overall decline of approximately 40%<sup>6</sup> in EFTS (Equivalent of a Full Time Student) and a similar decline in the individual student head-count.

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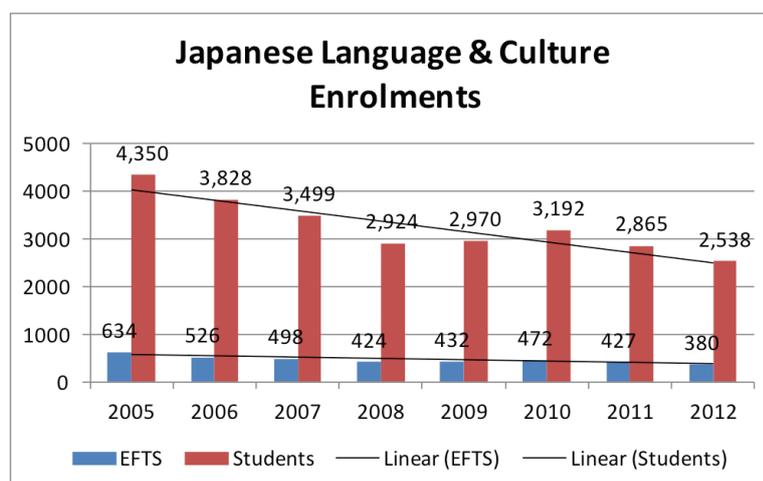
<sup>6</sup> In line with standard statistics practice, 18% represents the proportional percentage change from 2005 to 2012 and is calculated as follows:  $634 - 643/380 \times 100 = 40\%$ .

Table 6: Student numbers in Japanese language courses at tertiary level from 2005 – 2012

Year	EFTS	Students
2005	634	4350
2006	526	3828
2007	498	3499
2008	424	2924
2009	432	2970
2010	472	3192
2011	427	2865
2012	380	2538

Source: Data supplied via direct email contacts with TEC staff, 24th May 2013.

Figure 4: Student numbers and EFTS at tertiary level from 2005 – 2012



Source: Data supplied via direct email contacts with TEC staff, 24th May 2013.

Figure 4 illustrates the nature and trend of the decline of students studying Japanese and Japanese related topics at tertiary level from 2005 – 2012.

The number of EFTS is a key element of tertiary funding; therefore, the number of faculty members at tertiary institutions would also be expected to fall. However, there is no official data on this. In 2004, the Japan Foundation of Australia, in association with The Australia–Japan Research Centre, published the Directory of Japanese Studies in Australia and New Zealand 2004. This indicated there were 73 Japanese specialists in New Zealand universities which should be a reasonably accurate figure, as it listed names and positions of staff.

As stated above there is no official data available but a review of university websites which detailed faculty membership and specialities at New Zealand Universities was carried out by IPC Tertiary Institute, in March 2010 and again in March 2013.

Table 7: Number of Japanese specialist faculty members in New Zealand universities in 2004, 2010 and 2013

Year	Faculty number	Decline
2004	73	
2010	41	44%
2013	34	17%

It is difficult to guarantee the accuracy of these figures as websites may not be updated regularly and changes can happen during the interim. However, they were cross-checked against current university calendars. It would have been ideal to relate the data to the same period as that provided for the decline in students, 2005 – 2012; unfortunately, this was not possible. Nevertheless, the figures do provide evidence of a decline in faculty members which is broadly in line with the fall in student numbers and there are only minor variations in the dates of the figures.

When looking for Japanese language or related courses on offer by tertiary institutes in New Zealand, students can access the Graduate Factory’s, No major drama website *www.nomajordrama.co.nz*. However, there are some inconsistencies with those currently on offer in some of the university calendars for 2013. A comprehensive list of all the Japanese related courses currently on offer at tertiary institutions in New Zealand is not available. Therefore, it may be difficult for students who want to study Japanese language or Japanese related topics to compare the various courses on offer.

In summary, there is clear evidence of a decline in the number of students learning Japanese or engaging in Japanese related courses in New Zealand tertiary institutions. The decline since 2005 has been in the region of 40%. In addition, there has been a corresponding reduction in the number of Japanese specialists working in New Zealand universities.

**Analysis — Part 4.1**

**Statistics on Japanese language learning and related topics at the tertiary level in New Zealand**

There is a need for up-to-date data on the number of students and staffing at tertiary institutions across New Zealand.

**Recommendations for further investigation**

1. Further investigation into the data provided by TEC. We recommend that a detailed investigation of the statistics recently supplied by the TEC is undertaken to look for variations in the decline in relation to the type of courses, year of study, attrition across the years, etc. It is hoped the data may yield examples of good practice at institutions where the decline has been halted or remains relatively stable.

**2. The annual production of a Japanese Tertiary Directory** We recommend that the recently formed network of Japanese teaching staff at New Zealand tertiary institutes make contact with Japanese specialists across all tertiary institutions in a bid to gain their support for an online system for collecting baseline data on the number of students currently undertaking Japanese related studies. The system could become a means of monitoring the current decline. It is suggested that an annual report could be produced based on the Japan Foundation Directory of 2004.

**Descriptive note:** The directory started with an introductory overview in the form of a state of the art review of the teaching of Japanese and related topics since the publication of the previous directory. National statistics for enrolments and completion were given, together with a summary of the developments in curriculum and teaching approaches. The introduction concluded with a look to the future and an assessment of the issues related to Japanese language learning in the coming years ahead. This was followed by series of short reports written by a Japanese specialist from each tertiary institution, a list of faculty, general statistics for that institution, courses currently being offered, changes to the curriculum, innovative teaching approaches, research undertaken since the last directory and research in progress.

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## Section 4.2

### Factors relating to Japanese language learners and their transition from secondary to tertiary level

In Part 2 of this review, the problems related to the progression of Japanese language learners to secondary schools were examined and found to pose challenges for both teachers and students. In a similar way, it is suggested that the progression from secondary to tertiary is a serious source of concern (Oshima, 2012). Again, the absence of hard data and lack of research in this area has prevented us from estimating the extent of the problem. However, in her master's thesis published in 2012, Ryoko Oshima, a teacher of Japanese at secondary and tertiary levels, provides insights into the problems related to transition between secondary and tertiary. The study focused on six Year 13 students who had studied Japanese for a number of years. These students had been good Japanese language learners and had shown high levels of motivation. However, despite this, they decided not to pursue Japanese at tertiary level.

Using the results from the interviews and her own experience as a teacher, Oshima identified a number of areas of concern. Among them were problems related to mixed-level classes during the first year of tertiary studies, the lack of incentives for students who want to continue to study Japanese at tertiary level, pedagogical issues related to teaching and motivation, general issues relating to the perception of parents, future career prospects and the inherent difficulty of learning Japanese. Many of these issues were discussed in a broader sense in Parts 2 & 3 of this review. Oshima links this with a number of 'amotivational' effects which combine to explain the reasons for the decline in the number of Japanese language students with proven track records who do not wish to transition to the tertiary level. In addition, she outlines possible causes for the significant attrition rates for students who leave during their first year of study of Japanese. These include factors outlined above in relation to student choice, e.g. the inherent difficulty of the language, unrealistic expectations of success, the lack of intrinsic motivation, mixed ability classes, and course structures. She further points out that the lack of quality students at the tertiary level, who are capable of

reaching the higher stages of proficiency, is a loss to New Zealand of those who may become teachers of Japanese, or provide role models for students of the future (Oshima, 2012).

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## **Analysis – Part 4.2**

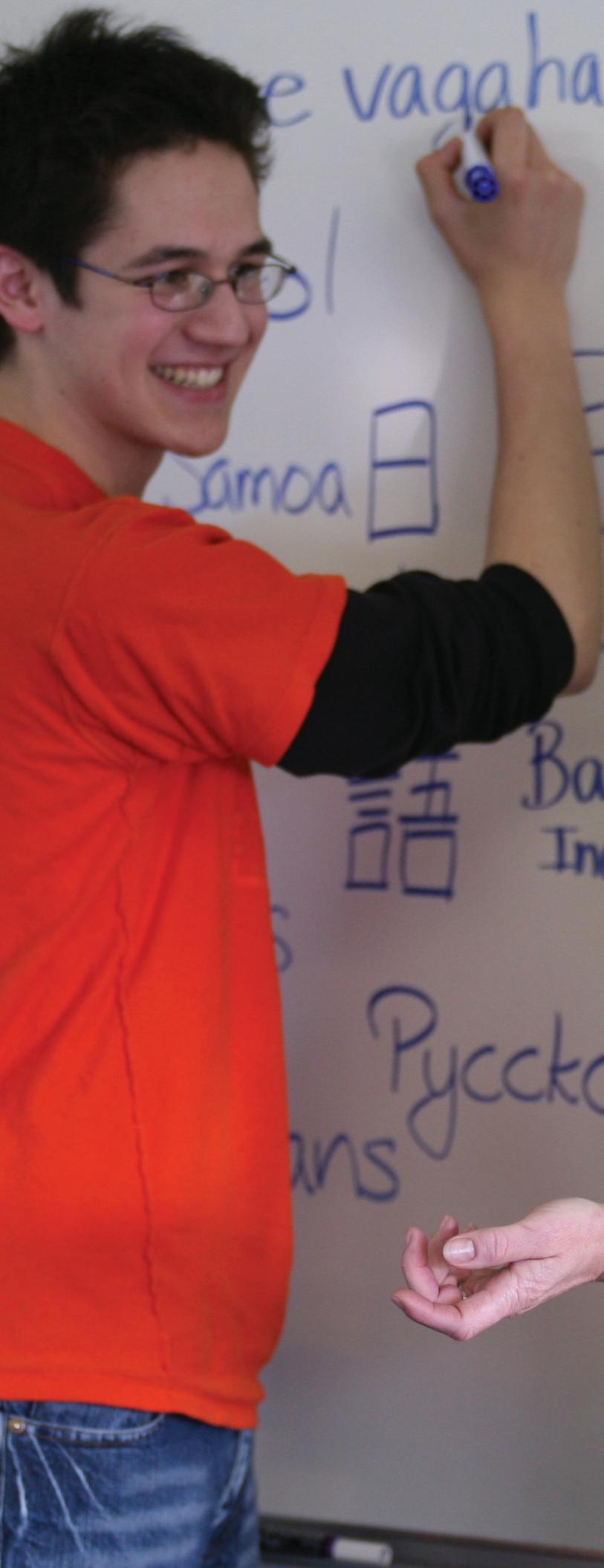
### **Factors relating to Japanese language education as learners move from secondary to tertiary level.**

There is a need for up-to-date data on transition, attrition at tertiary institutions across New Zealand.

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### **Recommendation for further investigation**

3. Using the online survey as outlined in Recommendation 2 above, it would be relatively simple for tertiary institution to provide data on the factors which have been highlighted above, and share these with other institutions through an annual directory as outlined in Recommendation 2. Such data could also be used to identify and share best practice.



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## Part 5: International perspectives and comparisons

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### Overview

This review was broadened to include an international perspective on Japanese language learning for two reasons. First, it is important to relate what is happening in New Zealand to an international context to see if similar declines were also experienced by other countries. Second, in Parts 2 and 3 of the review, we have included relevant international research to support the discussion. In this Part, brief synopses of the current situations in several English speaking countries and non-English speaking countries are provided. Following this, statistical comparisons across countries are examined. To conclude, a small number of countries are selected and presented for a more detailed overview of the current situation in relation to Japanese language learning. There will be no recommendations for further research relating to this part of the review.

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### Synopsis of the current situations in several English speaking countries

Both England and the United States have seen small but steady increases in the number of learners of Japanese. This contrasts with the situation in New Zealand and Australia which have both experienced declines. For the purposes of this review, the current situations in England and Australia were reviewed as points of comparison and are presented in more detail shortly. We have deliberately left the United States out of the detailed analysis because of the complex nature of its federal/state education system and the large numbers of students involved.

In many ways, we found that New Zealand shares similar problems with other English speaking countries such as England and Australia that also encounter 'English is best' attitudes. For example in Australia, there are also declines in Japanese language learning and all three countries experience similar motivation and retention problems not only for Japanese but for language learning more generally. Similarly, in all three countries, there has been a move to language learning at an earlier age which has posed challenges for transition to secondary and has contributed to a shortage of experienced and qualified teachers. However, when compared with England and Australia, in New Zealand there appears to be a difference in the perception of the seriousness of the problem, the possible long-term effects, and the desire on the part of various governments, schools or tertiary bodies to do something about it. In contrast, Australia has recognised the problem and is making serious efforts to halt the decline in Japanese language learning. Examples include the move to language specific curricula in Australia and moves in England and Australia towards compulsory status for language learning with an accompanying increase in status and resources. Further details are discussed about the current situation in each of these countries later in this Part.

**Synopsis of the current situation in several non-English speaking countries**

During our examination of the literature, it became clear that the decline in Japanese language learning was not universal. For example, in countries such as Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam, the learning of Japanese has increased significantly. Korea, with its historical ties, similarity in language and strong trading links has seen a dramatic increase in Japanese language learning. Western countries such as Germany and France have seen small but steady increases.

**Section 5.1  
What the statistics tell us**

This section provides a comparison of the number of students studying Japanese across a range of countries. The source data comes from the Japan Foundation (2011). Although the statistics are subject to different response rates and variations in the nature of the administration processes in different countries, they are considered good indicators of trends.

It can be accepted that from an international perspective, the learning of Japanese has declined in Australia and New Zealand. While different figures have been presented by the TEC and Ministry of Education in New Zealand, they are broadly comparable with the trends shown in data below. It can also be accepted that the learning of Japanese is increasing in other countries, including England.

Table 8: The number of students learning Japanese in the tertiary and non-tertiary sectors from 2006/2007 and 2009/2010.

2006/2007				2009/2010		
Country	Tertiary	Non-tertiary	Total students	Tertiary	Non-tertiary	Total students
New Zealand	2,230	27,674	29,904	1,059	20,816	21,875
Australia	9,395	356,770	366,165	8,520	267,190	275,710
England	3,630	11,298	14,928	5,656	14,017	19,673
America	45,263	72,706	117,969	56,623	84,621	141,244
Canada	8,508	15,326	23,834	10,376	17,112	27,488
France	8,451	7,083	15,534	7,975	8,035	16,010
Germany	5,797	6,148	11,945	5,497	6,893	12,390

Decrease 
 Increase

To summarise at this point, while there is no evidence of a universal, worldwide decline in the learning of the Japanese language, there is definitive proof of a decline in the English speaking countries such as Australia and New Zealand, in contrast to a slight increase in England. Here it is important to note that the learning of Japanese in England has been on the fringes of language teaching and numbers are low in comparison with the student population. In contrast, there have always been significant numbers of students learning Japanese in Australia or New Zealand and it is still one of the most popular language choices. These basic differences, combined with very different approaches at national, regional and local levels, provide a basis for an interesting comparison across the three countries.

The intention of Sections 2 and 3 below is to provide snapshot comparisons across three English speaking countries, two Western European countries and one East-Asian country. Each reveals common areas of concern, such as the impact of policy, teacher shortages and transition. In addition, it is hoped they serve as a good comparative models for the various approaches to Japanese language learning. For example, compulsory versus non-compulsory, central versus regional or state control and common experiences in the introduction of new curricular. They are not intended to act as models but to provide beneficial comparative insights (Adamson & Morris, 2007; Kubow & Fossum, 2007).

**Section 5.2**  
**A broad comparative analysis of the teaching and learning of Japanese in Australia, England and New Zealand**

Using the key problem areas identified in the current review as a framework, the Table below shows comparisons between Australia, England and New Zealand. A brief description of Japanese language learning for each country follows.

Table 9: A comparison of the key problems areas across Australia, England and New Zealand

Key problems areas identified in the review so far	Australia	England	New Zealand	Comments
National policy on language learning	Federal v state	Official strategy	No	
Language learning compulsory	Federal v state	Yes	No	England changed to not compulsory for senior years
Language specific curriculum	Under development	No	No	
Significant resources allocated	Yes	Yes	No	Australia NALSSP 2008
Training in support of the curriculum	Yes	Yes	Some	
Shortage of Japanese teachers	Yes	Yes	Yes	Particularly in the remote regions
Inducements for pre-service training	Yes	Yes	No	Bursaries in England and Golden Hello
PD for in-service teachers of Japanese	Yes	Yes	Some	
Set proficiency level for teachers of Japanese	Yes	Yes	None	
Set qualifications for teachers of Japanese	Yes	Yes	No	
Local management of schools	Some	Only with LEA guides	Yes	
Drop in the number of students taking Japanese	Yes	No	Yes	In Australia, following NALSSP 2008 numbers recovering

**5.2.1 Outline of the teaching of Japanese in Australia**

Japanese is the most popular language studied in Australia. As with New Zealand, it experienced a boom in the 1980s – 1990s which was in response to the success of Japanese companies and international trade. This led to the establishment of a National Languages Policy in 1987, which was followed by the introduction of The National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools (NALSAS) policy in 1994 which included specific funding for Asian languages. Funding for the program was withdrawn in 2002 and this led to a significant reduction in the numbers of students learning Japanese. The National Asian Languages and Studies in Schools Programme (NALSSP) was launched to run from 2008 – 2012, with the specific aim of arresting the decline and funding was given to increase the number of students and teachers for Asian languages and provide training for existing teachers. Substantial resources were allocated and although declines still continue in some regions, possibly as a result of differing

state policies, the follow through effect and the growth of Chinese; the rapid decline in Japanese language learners has been halted. NALSAS and NALSSP are discussed in further detail by de Kretser and Spence-Brown (2010) and Lo Bianco and Slaughter (2009).

Throughout 2010, 'signals' have been given from both political and business leaders at the highest level of the importance of Japanese language learning for Australia<sup>7</sup>. Even as recent as May 2013, the Prime Minister led a call for compulsory language learning in schools. Although these policies are still in the process of refinement and will take a number of years to work through the school process and become fully sustainable, Lo Bianco (2008) describes shifts in public attitudes towards language education in Australia as providing the necessary platform for the provision of universal mainstream language programmes and the eventual attainment of widespread and lasting bilingualism. As outlined in Part 2 of this review, he goes on to suggest that New Zealand has not yet demonstrated widespread public receptivity to compulsory language learning in the school sector and this is an important difference between Australia and New Zealand. In Australia, the links between policy support for particular languages and growth in the number of language learners is recognised and understood. Australia acknowledges that policy issues were strongly linked to the decline of Japanese (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). In New Zealand, the situation is unlikely to resolve itself while ministerial talk of the importance of Japanese and Asian languages is not translated into policy and financial support.

There are several points to bear in mind in relation to comparisons with the Australian statistics and literature. First, the overall national decline masks the fact that there has been less attrition at primary level than secondary level with suggestions that policy changes have had more substantive impacts at secondary level (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). Second, in a similar way to New Zealand, the overall national decline masks its regional nature. In individual states, and in many parts of that state, Victoria for example, Japanese is not in decline. Classes are small, teachers are generally well trained, and Year 12 and 13 students are given bonus university entrance credits. Similarly, as we found in New Zealand, the statistics also mask the school factor. In New Zealand, we found greater retention in higher decile schools and in Australia we see a similar pattern where retention is generally higher in independent schools (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). Third, Australia's education is a mixture of federal, state and regional policies. Some policies favour and promote Japanese language learning, while others do not. In many ways it shares this problem with New Zealand, however in our context, decisions are taken at the school level. Fourth, the teaching of languages is 'compulsory' in some states and not in others. It may also be compulsory for certain years within a state but not others. As has been identified in the international literature, if language learning is compulsory, it attracts funding, resources and is timetabled for the statutory amount of class time. If it is not compulsory, it may be perceived by teachers, administrators and students as being marginal and unimportant.

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7: See *The Current State of Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean Language Education in Australian Schools: Four Languages, Four Stories*, Education Services Australia, 2010, which was launched and supported by the Deputy Prime Minister. Also see the report *Strengthening Japanese Language Learning in Support of the Australia-Japan Business and Academic Relationship*, Joint Australian-Japan Working Group for the Promotion of Language Education and People-to-People Exchanges, 2010, presented at the Sixth Australia-Japan Conference held in Canberra in on 12 February 2010.

While Australia is serious about increasing the number of learners in school and tertiary levels, it still shares many of the inherent problems with other countries. In 2010, five key problem areas were presented to the Sixth Australia-Japan Conference held in Canberra, by the Joint Australian-Japan Working Group for the Promotion of Language Education and People-to-People Exchanges. These

included very detailed recommendations for solving: the quantity and quality of the supply of Japanese teachers, greater language resources for teachers, clearer and stronger transitions and links between primary, secondary and tertiary education, support and incentives for career opportunities and better bilateral links for all government and non-government agencies involved in the promotion of Japanese language education.

Given Australia's commitment to Japanese language learning, it raises questions as to why it still suffers from high attrition rates. One important issue commented on, which is also relevant to New Zealand, is that the expansion was too rapid without adequate planning and support (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). De Kretser and Spence-Brown (2010) provide a very thorough analysis of the key factors which have contributed to the decline in numbers of Japanese learners in Australia. For example, in parallel to the situation in New Zealand and as addressed in Part 3 of this review where motivation and retention were looked at, they comment on the difficulty of Japanese as a language and the growth of Chinese as important factors. As in New Zealand, the presence of 'home-background' or East-Asian students in classes is discussed as a possible issue for retention as other students are concerned about the impact on their ability to get good grades. Asia Education Foundation (2010) and de Kretser and Spence-Brown (2010) take this further and make the link with the transition to secondary issue and more generally suggest that schools have failed to adapt to a changing cohort.

De Kretser and Spence-Brown (2010) also highlight the generic nature of the languages curriculum. They argue that the current generic curricula are not well-suited for supporting languages such as Japanese. There have been suggestions that without language specific curricula to support teaching and assessment, the level of difficulty of assessments for students at senior levels has increased making it challenging for these students to achieve good grades (de Kretser & Spence-Brown, 2010). *The Australian Curriculum: Languages* (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority, (2011), is currently redeveloping language specific curricula for a number of languages including Japanese and is due to be implemented February 2014.

In agreement with the findings presented in Part 2 of this review, de Kretser and Spence-Brown (2010) comment on the lack of information on the number and profile of Japanese teachers. In addition, Asia Education Foundation (2010) also argue that the lack of language-specific training in teacher professional development programs has been problematic and has led to gaps in pedagogical and theoretical knowledge. They suggest that different support is needed for native and non-native speaker teachers with concerns about the Japanese language and cultural competence of non-native speakers. In a similar way to New Zealand, native speaker teachers who were new to Australia sometimes had issues adjusting to the Australian school system, lifestyle and culture.

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### 5.2.2 Outline of the teaching of Japanese in England

In England there was not the same large increase in Japanese language learning that New Zealand and Australia saw in the 1990s. Rather the number of learners is, relative to population and other languages learnt, quite small with numbers slowly increasing since the early 2000s. One of the reasons for the increase is the introduction of a National Languages Strategy in 2002 (Department for

Education and Science, 2002). Prior to this strategy, government support for language learning in schools was predominantly focused on European languages, particularly French, German and Spanish, with French the most popular. One of the key aims of the new strategy was to increase the range of languages available in schools and Japanese was included as part of this focus with the Japan Foundation playing a key support role for schools wanting to teach Japanese. As part of this strategy the government introduced a primary school languages entitlement, which meant that by 2010 all primary school pupils should have the opportunity to study a language. This was seen as positive with Wade, Marshall, and O'Donnell, (2009) finding that by 2008, over 90 per cent of primary schools were offering a language during class time although under three per cent of these were offering Italian, Chinese, Japanese or Urdu. A more negative consequence of the strategy was the removal of the statutory requirement for learners to study a language at Key Stage 4 (14 – 19 year old secondary school learners) (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 2004). The number of language learners in this age group has dropped significantly as a consequence of this decision (Coleman, 2011; Coleman, Galaczi, & Astruc, 2007; Evans & Fisher, 2009), although the numbers of students taking A-levels (school leaving exams) in Japanese increased from 2008 – 2011 (The Guardian, 2012). At Key Stage 3 (11 – 14 year old secondary school learners), where languages remain compulsory, schools now have more say over the choice of language offered as in mid-2008, the statutory requirement for schools to offer at least one of the official languages of the European Union was removed. Along with the National Languages Strategy, this has led to a rise in languages such as Japanese being taught in secondary schools.

The National Curriculum for Modern Foreign Languages (Department for Education and Science & QCA, 1999, 2007), much like the New Zealand curriculum and the current Australian curriculum, provides a generic framework across languages, however it does provide minor modifications for its Japanese and Chinese attainment targets. It has been the subject of much criticism for not taking sufficient account of the developments and research in second language acquisition (Hope, 2004; Mitchell, 2003) and for being too generic to help teachers with everyday pedagogical decisions (Evans & Fisher, 2009). Evans and Fisher (2009) also suggest that the lack of detail in the new curriculum, and the focus on language at word, sentence and paragraph level, could be seen as a backward step from the intended communicative approach to supporting a grammar-based pedagogy. A change in government in 2010 has led to a major review of the National Curriculum and a new curriculum is currently under consultation and expected to be released late 2014. A review panel has recommended that languages be a compulsory foundation subject at primary (although the start age has not been agreed) and at both Key Stages 3 and 4 in secondary schools (Department for Education, 2011) which would reverse the current situation where languages are not compulsory at Key Stage 4. Foundation subjects are compulsory but schools have more flexibility as to how they teach these subjects compared with core subjects such as numeracy and literacy. One negative aspect of these new plans for Japanese is that the Government has said that from 2014, primary schools will only be able to offer one of the following languages: French, German, Italian, Mandarin and Spanish, and ancient Greek and Latin. The fact that Japanese is not included can be seen as a response to the fact that few schools had opted to teach Japanese at primary, mostly due to issues around a lack of qualified teachers.

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### 5.2.3 Outline of the teaching of Japanese in France, Germany and Malaysia

In a bid to balance the comparisons made with the English speaking countries described above and in acknowledgement that the priorities and challenges of non-English speaking countries may be very different, two European countries and one East-Asian are now looked at. France was chosen because it is witnessing a small, yet significant increase in the numbers of students who want to learn Japanese, particularly at tertiary level. Germany was chosen because Japanese language teaching has remained relatively stable over time. Both countries reflect very different European educational systems but at the tertiary level, they are members of the Erasmus student enrolment system and the standardised system of European credits. Malaysia was chosen as it provides yet again a different context and comparisons between the learning of Japanese in New Zealand and Malaysia was the focus of a recent thesis (Jabbar, 2012).

#### **Japanese language learning in France**

The literature relating to the increase in Japanese language in France, suggests that this may be due to two main factors. First, the growth and influence of Japanese pop-culture in the form of *anime* and *manga* films and cartoons, computer games, Japanese pop-music (*J-pop*), and participation in Japanese martial arts (Japan Foundation, 2011). Second and related to this, a wider awareness of all things Japanese generated by cultural events held in Paris. As evidence, Forato (2008) offers the attendance records at the annual Japan-Expo which rose from 8,000 in 2000 to 135,000 in 2007. Thus, the choice of Japanese appears to be mostly related to intrinsic rather than extrinsic factors. It is worth noting, however, that institutions are encountering similar problems to those experienced in Australia and New Zealand after the rapid growth of Japanese language learning of the 1980s – 1990s. These take the form of high rates of attrition, particularly in the first year of tertiary, a shortage of teachers and competition for numbers from languages such as Chinese (Forato, 2008).

#### **Japanese language learning in Germany**

In relation to its school population, only a very small number of students choose to learn Japanese and it is only offered in 63 secondary schools across the country, as reported at the national Japanese language teachers annual meeting in 2009 (Japan Foundation, 2011). It has been taught in Germany since the 1980s but has always been regarded as an elite language. As is the case in Australia, each of the 16 German states is responsible for the delivery of education and therefore curriculums vary from state to state, they are taught in different ways and assessed to different standards. In contrast, all universities in Germany are state funded but are independent, each with its own Japanese language curriculum (Japan Foundation, 2011). In 1999, in a bid to consolidate standards, and address issues related to secondary-tertiary transition, a nationwide university entrance exam was introduced. In line with other countries, the financial constraints from 2008 onwards have led to the closure of university Japanese departments (Japan Foundation, 2011).

#### **Japanese language learning in Malaysia**

The work of Jabbar (2012) in her Master's thesis provides a detailed comparative analysis of Malaysia and New Zealand approaches to the teaching of Japanese. In many ways, the problems related to a shortage of Japanese teachers, the allocation of resources, professional development for existing teachers, student motivation and attrition mirror what has been found for other countries and

described above. However, what makes the Malaysia – New Zealand comparison of real significance is that each country introduced a new curriculum at the same point in time, 2010. The way they have gone about it, and the educational systems they work under, provide some interesting points of comparison. Below some of the key points are highlighted.

Each country has a different history in the teaching of Japanese. For example, in Malaysia it is regarded as an elite language, taught only to the children of the wealthy (Jabbar, 2012). In contrast, Japanese is currently the second most popular language taught in New Zealand. However, it still has an elitist appeal as revealed in Part 1 of the review where a link between the decline in student numbers in the lower school decile was found. While the aim of Malaysia's new curriculum is to significantly grow the numbers of Japanese learners, New Zealand is currently suffering a major decline. There are also obvious contrasts surrounding the educational approaches in the two countries. For example, New Zealand has a national curriculum for languages but it is not compulsory for students to take a particular language. Decisions are taken at the school level and resources allocated accordingly. In contrast, the Malaysian government, through its Ministry of Education, controls all aspects of the curriculum, allocates funding and details what will be taught at school for each subject and each level.

At the classroom level, again both countries have different approaches. In New Zealand, there is a lack of prescription and teachers have a lot of flexibility to develop their own materials. By contrast, Malaysian teachers are provided with nominated textbooks and sets of materials. While the syllabus aims to be communicative and teachers are encouraged and trained in this approach, it remains to be seen if this is achieved.

In summary, although Malaysia and New Zealand share some common objectives for their language learning curricula, such as nation building and high levels of proficiency in Asian languages, they remain very different countries, with very different education systems.

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## Analysis – Part 5

### International perspectives and comparisons

This part of the review has no recommendations for further research but suggests that the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education in New Zealand may wish to enter into a collaborative research project with its sister foundations in England and Australia to look at best practice models across the three countries.



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## Part 6: Overview and summary of the report

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This literature review was carried out as a 'pilot study to provide a snapshot of the current situation and identify critical issues contributing to the falling numbers' of Japanese language learning at the secondary and tertiary levels in New Zealand. The research team expanded the brief to include an international perspective in order to both inform the literature and to enable cross-country comparisons. It was also agreed, where possible, to expand the review to include Years 7 to 8.

As part of this review, statistical data was analysed to assess the trends across years and there was a systematic review of relevant academic literature from both within New Zealand and internationally. In order to ensure the current relevance of the review, the focus of the review was on statistical data from 2005 onwards while the focus for the literature was from 2000 onwards. Here attention is drawn to Appendix 1, which contains a Table of New Zealand related academic literature, reports and research, compiled in chronological order. This provides an overview of what has been done in the New Zealand context but also illustrates that the development has been incremental. However, it also suggests that the same issues and concerns have arisen over time and have, to date, not been addressed.

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### The structure of the evaluative review

The review consists of five main parts and each part contains a brief overview followed by a number of sections which examine the key areas identified as contributing to the falling numbers of Japanese language learners. Possible causes are explored and inset boxes at the end of each section make detailed recommendations for further research. A summary of each part and section follows a snapshot of the current situation.

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### A snapshot of the current situation

A summary of the statistics and the evaluative review reveal that it is clear the overall number of Japanese language learners in the secondary and tertiary levels is in decline and has been for some time. For example, there has been a decline of 18% in secondary schools offering Japanese since 2005, and a drop of 37% in the number of students taking the subject. At tertiary level, the statistics reveal an overall drop of 40% in the number of students taking Japanese from 2005 to 2012. The statistics also reveal a large concurrent drop in the number of Japanese teaching staff in tertiary institutions. The current situation at Years 7 – 8 is less clear. There have been annual fluctuations in the numbers of students learning Japanese. However, the overall picture of Japanese language learning is one of a language in decline. Possible causes for this decline are outlined in each section below. The picture is a complex one and it is not possible

to signal a single factor as the cause of the decline. The factors outlined below are complex and interrelated and are all likely to have contributed to the decline witnessed.

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## Summary of Part 1

### New Zealand schools: An overview of the statistics

There is now clear evidence of a general decline in Japanese language learning in New Zealand secondary schools since 2005. Analysing the statistics closely, there appears to have been a more rapid decline since 2009, however, this varies among decile groups and regions.

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#### The significant findings from the statistical analysis are:

- There has been a decline of 18% in schools offering Japanese since 2005, and a drop of 37% in the number of students taking the subject.
- Japanese remains the second most popular foreign language, but the gap between Japanese and Spanish (the third most popular language) is reducing.
- There are nearly five-times more students in high decile schools taking Japanese, than in low decile schools.
- Over three-quarters of high decile schools offer Japanese, whereas only half of low decile schools offer it.
- Retention of Japanese learners through to Year 13 is five times greater in high decile schools compared with low decile schools. However, it is still only 10.7% in the high decile schools.
- Retention is higher in regions with larger cities.
- The regions showing the greatest decreases in students taking Japanese since 2005 are Gisborne, Waikato, Taranaki, and Hawkes Bay.
- The areas with the greatest proportion of schools offering Japanese in 2012 include Nelson/Tasman, Canterbury, Manawatu-Wanganui, Bay of Plenty, and Auckland.
- Twelve out of 15 regions have shown an approximate one-third decrease in the proportion of students taking Japanese since 2005.
- Taranaki, Waikato, and Gisborne all show large decreases in the schools that offer, and students who take, Japanese.
- Overall, more females take Japanese than males, but the gap is reducing.

It is suggested that a detailed investigation of the statistics together with a comparative analysis across regions and among decile groups, may yield some valuable insights into why the decline is happening and the variables associated with it. Furthermore, it may highlight examples of good practice at the regional or local levels where the decline in the teaching of Japanese has been relatively moderate.

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## Summary of Part 2

### New Zealand schools: Policy and curriculum

Due to globalisation, the need for economic growth and a focus on trade, the importance of Japanese and other Asian languages is frequently signalled in the media and in ministerial documents, however, there is a mismatch between what is said at this level and what actually appears in terms of policy directives and implementation.

Although calls for the introduction of a national policy in New Zealand were first made over 20 years ago, and are supported by a wide range of stakeholders, there is currently no national language policy in New Zealand and learning a language is not compulsory in New Zealand schools. The lack of a national policy for languages, and the fact it is not a compulsory learning area within the New Zealand Curriculum may send a negative message about the importance of language learning in New Zealand.

No further research in this area is proposed. However, on-going lobbying is recommended for a national policy on languages, and in particular to promote the learning of Japanese. In addition, a call should be made for language learning to be made a compulsory component of the curriculum, which is adequately resourced and managed.

Although the inclusion of the Learning Languages area as a separate area of *The New Zealand Curriculum* for this first time in 2007 enabled a positive and large scale review of language learning pedagogy, challenges remain. For example, our findings suggest that the generic nature of the new learning area presents challenges for teachers seeking more prescription and support. There is a need for on-going professional development support. In addition, there is a need for more systematic sharing of tasks and materials among teachers.

There is concern around the transition to secondary level. Students are most often grouped by age; however, it is very likely that secondary schools pupils enter with varied language backgrounds. Individual learner needs may not be attended to, resulting in repetition which may lead to boredom and a lack of motivation. There is no information on the methods teachers use to place Japanese language learners into different levels of the curriculum. Using an action research approach, it is proposed that regional groupings and local networks are formed to develop best practice for recognising and managing the difference in levels of Japanese language learners, with the focus on secondary transition. In addition, classroom-based research should be carried out to determine the effects on students and teachers of not managing the different levels of students.

Despite the alignment process between the curriculum and NCEA, issues may still exist and we would signal this as an area for further investigation. We suggest that further work is done to research and monitor the alignment between the curriculum and NCEA for Japanese as well as year to year standards. We also suggest research into the prevalence and nature of any washback effects associated with NCEA testing for Japanese. Here, we suggest that classroom-based research be undertaken with active participation from teachers who are involved with the day-to-day teaching of Japanese across a range of levels.

The shortage of suitably qualified language teachers was acknowledged in the early 2000s; however, currently there are no available statistics on the number of teachers of Japanese. This gap prevents an evaluation as to whether this is a continued problem, and if so, the extent of the problem and its seriousness.

The reduction in Japanese learners at the higher levels in tertiary institutions raises further concerns that down the line there will be even fewer teachers. Given the regional variations in the extent of the decline of Japanese language learning, it is proposed that each region is examined for correlations between a shortage of teachers and the decline in the teaching of Japanese. Factors such as locality (rural versus urban), should document the negative effects the shortage of teachers has on student motivation and attrition. Related to this, we also recommend an action research project to look at ways of establishing local and regional networks or communities of professional development for teachers of Japanese. Its aim would be to examine sustainable ways of bringing small groups of teachers together on a regular basis to share experiences, share materials and carry out professional development.

Part 2 of the review includes 13 detailed recommendations for research projects aimed at addressing the problems related to the areas above. They are outlined in the light blue inset boxes at the end of each section of the review.

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### Summary of Part 3

#### Factors relating to choice of study, motivation, and attrition

This part of the review looked at issues related to *selection*, *motivation*, and *retention* and *attrition* for Japanese language learners and learning. Our findings indicate that students' reasons for selecting Japanese are complex, influenced by external factors such as school factors (availability and timetabling issues), difficulty of the language, parents and friends. Students are also influenced by the extrinsic benefits of learning Japanese as a 'career tool' and it appears that schools and parents are significantly influenced by the extrinsic benefits of a language in their decision-making. It is here that the growth of Chinese as a trade language has impacted on the numbers of learners of Japanese. However, increasingly in the literature, intrinsic benefits such as the attraction of Japanese culture are highlighted as important in terms of student selection and retention. Given that there has never been a nationwide study in New Zealand on why students choose to learn Japanese at secondary or tertiary level, a survey approach to obtaining a clearer picture of these factors is proposed. Additionally, surveying key decision makers such as parents and schools on their views is suggested as is the provision of clearer information for stakeholders in terms of the benefits of learning Japanese.

Motivation, retention and attrition are complex concepts and are difficult to assess in terms of the decline in Japanese with limited literature and data. However, it is likely that an interaction between aspects such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, structural factors (class size), importance of the quality of the teaching and learning experience including the relationship between the teacher and learner all play an important role. If we are to understand the causes for the decline in the numbers of students learning Japanese at the secondary and tertiary levels in more detail, up-to-date research is needed into the complex interplay of motivation at the individual student level. In addition, the effects of increased workloads on tertiary teachers need to be assessed as does the impact on teaching and learning. Currently, there is no available data on attrition rates across tertiary institutions in New Zealand. Therefore, it remains difficult to identify its causes and possible solutions. If positive examples can be found of New Zealand institutions with lower attrition rates, these can be shared as case study examples. Here two international case studies were cited as examples which could inform future New Zealand research.

Part 3 of the review includes six detailed recommendations for research projects aimed at collecting data or addressing the problems relating to the areas above. They are detailed in the light blue inset boxes at the end of each section of the review.

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#### Summary of Part 4

##### New Zealand tertiary: An overview

At tertiary level, there is a similar decline in the number of learners of Japanese to that seen at secondary school level. For example, the statistics reveal an overall drop of 40% in the number of students taking Japanese from 2005 to 2012. The statistics also reveal a large concurrent drop in the number of Japanese teaching staff in tertiary institutions.

In the course of undertaking the review, there were several areas of concern. First, the lack of literature and research related to the tertiary sector. Second, and despite excellent assistance from the staff at the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), it was difficult to locate detailed statistics on the numbers of students studying the Japanese or Japanese related topics at New Zealand tertiary institutions. Third, there is a lack of accurate data relating to the number of Japanese specialist teaching or lecturing at the tertiary level.

There is a clear need for up-to-date data on transition and attrition rates at tertiary institutions across New Zealand. Therefore, the researchers recommend that the recently formed network of Japanese teaching staff at New Zealand tertiary institutes contact Japanese specialists across all tertiary institutions in a bid to gain their support for an online system for collecting baseline data on the number of students currently undertaking Japanese related studies. The system could become a means of monitoring the current decline in staff and students. It is further recommended that an annual report could be produced.

Part 4 of the review includes three detailed recommendations for research projects aimed at collecting data or addressing the problems relating to the areas above. They are detailed in the light blue inset boxes at the end of each section of the review.

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#### Summary of Part 5

##### International perspectives and comparisons

The review was broadened to include an international perspective on Japanese language learning. This was done for two reasons. First, it is important to relate what is happening in New Zealand to an international context to see if similar declines in the teaching of Japanese were happening in other countries. Second it was important to look at relevant international literature to compare and contrast with New Zealand findings. The findings suggest that New Zealand has encountered similar problems to those experienced in Australia where there has also been a decline in the number of learners of Japanese. Here there are similarities in the rapid growth of Japanese without adequate planning and support. However, Australia is now making serious efforts at the policy level to halt the decline. Measures taken include an increase focus on being more supportive of Japanese and other Asian languages, and a change to language specific curricula. In Australia, over the years there has also been a lot more research into the retention and attrition of Japanese language learners.

While England did not experience the rapid increase in the number of Japanese language learners that New Zealand and Australia witnessed, there are also

similarities between the three countries. For example, there has been a move to language learning at an earlier age. This in turn has posed challenges for the transition to secondary and has contributed to a possible shortage of experienced and qualified teachers. However, in both Australia and England, languages have a compulsory status for certain years of secondary education and are therefore better supported within the school system. Having a compulsory status signals the importance of languages and allows for better resourcing. Furthermore, to ensure a supply of Japanese teachers, both England and Australia offer incentives such as bursaries for studying languages at the tertiary level, one-off payments for graduates who become language teachers. In the State of Victoria, Australia, additional university entrance credits are given to students who take Japanese exams at the end of their secondary education.

Part 5 of the review has no recommendations for further research but suggests that the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education in New Zealand may wish to enter into to a collaborative research project with its sister foundations in England and Australia to look at best practice models across the three countries.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1

Chronological listing of research, publications and reports relevant to the development of language learning and the learning of Japanese in New Zealand.

The listing does not claim to be exhaustive, but only representative of the stages of development of language learning and specifically Japanese language learning in New Zealand. Nevertheless, it does provide an historical overview of the development of language teaching and the cyclical nature of problems related to the teaching of Japanese. It contains many sources which are not included in the main report as they fall outside of its terms of reference.

The listing from 2000 onwards is by year, and alphabetical order related to the first author or institution within each year.

Please note: The listing is in summary form as uses no particular referencing style. In some cases, additional explanation has been added or details omitted.

Year	Document
1986	Ministry of Education. (1986). <i>Japanese syllabus: Level one (up to the end of Form Five) (Draft)</i> . Wellington, New Zealand: Department of Education.
1988	Wevers, M. (1988). <i>Japan, its future, and New Zealand</i> . Wellington, New Zealand: Victoria University Press.
1990	Williams, L. (1990). <i>Active Japanese</i> . Auckland, New Zealand: Longman Paul.
1991	Aschoff, T. (1991). <i>Japanese language in New Zealand secondary schools</i> . Palmerston North: New Zealand Centre for Japanese Studies.
1991	Aschoff, T. (1992). <i>Reasons for studying Japanese language in New Zealand secondary schools</i> . Palmerston North: New Zealand Centre for Japanese Studies.
1992	Waite (1992). <i>Aotearoa: Speaking for Ourselves</i> . A report commissioned by the Ministry of Education.
1993	Ministry of Education. (1993). <i>The New Zealand curriculum framework</i> . Wellington, New Zealand: Learning Media.
1993	Ministry of Education. (1993). <i>Japanese: Draft syllabus for schools</i> . Wellington, New Zealand: Learning Media.
1994	Beal, T. (1994). Taking up the Asia challenge. In T. Beal (Ed.), <i>Educating for Asia: Discussion and recommendations</i> (pp. 63 - 107). Wellington, N.Z.: Centre for Asia/Pacific Law and Business.
1994	Trotter, A. (1994). Some issues for New Zealand universities. In T. Beal (Ed.), <i>Educating for Asia: Discussion and recommendations</i> (pp. 109 - 118). Wellington: Centre for Asia/Pacific Law and Business.
1997	Haugh, M. (1997). <i>The teaching of Japanese in New Zealand: a national profile</i> . Auckland: Institute of Language Teaching and Learning.
1997	Levett, A. & Adams, A. (1997). <i>Catching up with our future: The demand for Japan skills in New Zealand</i> . Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Japan Foundation.

1997	Williams, L. (1997). <i>Japanese teaching and teachers in New Zealand</i> . Palmerston North, New Zealand: New Zealand Centre for Japanese Studies, Massey University.
1998	Ministry of Education. (1998). <i>Japanese in the New Zealand curriculum</i> . Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
1998	O'Hallahan, J. (1998) <i>Hai! An introduction to Japanese – teacher's guide and support materials</i> . Wellington: CWA New Media.
2000	Ellis, R. (2000). What makes for successful second language learning. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> , 26, 37–48.
2001	Holt, R., Maeda, H., Sasai, Y., Shaw, C., Walker, Y. and Young, S. (2001). Year 10 Japanese: A study of retention factors in New Zealand schools. Research Report. School of Languages, Auckland University of Technology and Christchurch Polytechnic Institute of Technology.
2001	Lilly, A. (2001). Critical factors in the teaching of Japanese in New Zealand at Years 7 and 8. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> , 27, 11–25.
2002	May, S. (2002). Where to from here? Charting a way forward for language and education policy in Aotearoa/New Zealand. <i>TESOLANZ Journal</i> , 10, 22–35.
2002	May, S. (2002). Accommodating multiculturalism and biculturalism in Aotearoa/ New Zealand: implications for language education. <i>Waikato Journal of Education</i> , 8, 5-26.
2002	Ministry of Education (2002). The Curriculum stocktake report. Wellington: New Zealand Ministry of Education.
2002	Ministry of Education (2002). Learning languages: A guide for New Zealand schools. Wellington: Learning Media.
2003	East, M. (2003). Planning a multilingual future in a monolingual culture: Challenges for international language learning in New Zealand. <i>TESOLANZ Journal</i> , 11, 10–22.
2003	Ellis, R. (2003). <i>Task-based Language Learning and Teaching</i> . London: Oxford University Press.
2003	Gibbs, C. & Holt, R. The Teaching of International Languages In New Zealand Schools in Years 7 and 8: An Evaluation Study. Wellington: New Zealand Ministry of Education.
2003	Kaplan, R. B., & Baldauf, R. B., Jr. (2003). <i>Language and language-in-education planning in the pacific basin</i> . Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
2003	Mitchell, R. (2003). Rethinking the concept of progression in the national curriculum for modern foreign languages: A research perspective. <i>Language Learning</i> , 27.
2003	Shearn, S. (2003). Attitudes to foreign language learning in New Zealand schools. Unpublished PhD dissertation. Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand.

2004	May, S. (2004). Medium of instruction policy in New Zealand. In J. Tollefson and A. Tsui (eds.) <i>Medium of Instruction Policies: Which agenda? Whose Agenda?</i> (pp. 21-41). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
2004	Shearn, S. (2004). Attitudes to foreign language learning in New Zealand schools. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> 30, 71-77.
2004	Spence, G. P. (2004). The practice of policy in New Zealand. <i>Current Issues in Language Planning</i> 5(4), 389-406.
2005	Alison, J. (2005). Teachers talk about NCEA: Research report on focus groups with secondary teachers. NZ Post Primary Teachers Association, Wellington.
2005	Bell, A., Harlow, R., & Starks, D. (2005). <i>Languages of New Zealand</i> . Wellington, New Zealand: Victoria University Press.
2005	Bracefield, J. (2005). Gifted and talented in Japanese: How to sustain students' motivation. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> 35, 23-27.
2005	Cullen, S. (2005). <i>Language utilisation in an international business organisation - a New Zealand case study</i> . (Unpublished master's thesis). Auckland University of Technology, Auckland.
2005	Ellis, R. Instructed Second Language Acquisition: A Literature Review. Wellington: Ministry of Education.
2005	Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Hacker, P. (2005). An evaluation of the Second Language Learning Funding Pool (1999-2003): <i>Prepared for the New Zealand Ministry of Education</i> , Auckland UniServices Limited.
2005	Guthrie, J. (2005). "Have you got a Japanese teacher up your sleeve?" New Zealand principals' perceptions of language teacher supply. <i>New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics</i> 11(2), 43-58.
2005	May, S. (2005, August). <i>Developing a national languages policy—overview</i> . Paper presented at the New Zealand Diversity forum @ Te Papa, The Challenges of Diversity, Wellington. Retrieved 28 September 2008, from <a href="http://www.hrc.co.nz/hrc_new/hrc/cms/files/documents/28-Aug-2005_18-57-22_Stephen_May_NZDiversity.doc">http://www.hrc.co.nz/hrc_new/hrc/cms/files/documents/28-Aug-2005_18-57-22_Stephen_May_NZDiversity.doc</a>
2005	Nash, R. (2005). A Change of Direction for NCEA: On Re-marking, Scaling and Norm-referencing. <i>New Zealand Journal of Teachers' Work</i> 2(2), 100-106.
2005	Peddie, R. (2005). Planning for the future? Languages policy in New Zealand. In A. Bell, R. Harlow, and D. Starks (Eds.), <i>Languages of New Zealand</i> (pp. 30-58). Wellington: Victoria University Press.
2005	Spence, G. (2005). "Curriculum Matters: Learning Languages." Ministry of Education Advisory Paper.
2006	Barnard, R. (2006) International Languages in Primary Schools: Aims, Constraints and One Way Forward, Presented at NZALT July 2006 'Bridging Cultures, Reaching Heights'. Auckland.
2006	Erlam, R. Draft Learning Languages in the New Zealand Curriculum -Implications for pedagogy and assessment. Wellington: New Zealand Ministry of Education.

2006	Holt, R. (2006) Persistence factors in secondary school: Additional language study. <i>Journal of Language and Learning</i> 5 (1), pp 86-97.
2006	McLauchlan, A. (2006). Second Language (L2) Learning in New Zealand High Schools: a preliminary report into the reasons for studying and for discontinuing. <i>New Zealand Society of Applied Linguistics</i> , 12 (1), 70-81.
2006	Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade. "Our Future with Asia." White Paper, 2006.
2006	Scott, A., Litwin, G. and Schmid, J. (2006). Scholarship languages: Has NCEA made a difference?
2006	Spence, G. (2006). Curriculum Matters: Learning Languages. Paper presented at the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers Biennial Conference 2006 'Bridging Cultures, Reaching Heights'. Retrieved from <a href="http://www.nzalt.org.nz/whitepapers/14.pdf">http://www.nzalt.org.nz/whitepapers/14.pdf</a>
2007	Critique of The New Zealand Curriculum: Draft for Consultation 2006. Joanna Le Métails, Report prepared for the New Zealand Ministry of Education January 2007.
2007	East, M., Shackleford, N., & Spence, G. (2007). Promoting a multilingual future for Aotearoa/New Zealand: Initiatives for change from 1989 to 2003. <i>Journal of Asian Pacific Communication</i> , 17(1), 11–28.
2007	McLauchlan, A. (2007). Bilingual Dictionaries in Written L2 examinations: why New Zealand must catch up with Australia. <i>The Australian Journal of Language Teachers</i> . 41 (3), 24-28.
2007	McLauchlan, A. (2007). The negative L2 climate: Understanding attrition among second language students. Napier: Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education.
2007	Ministry of Education (2007) How will my son or daughter benefit from learning a language? A document for parents. Ministry of Education. <a href="http://learning-languages.tki.org.nz/Promotional-Material">http://learning-languages.tki.org.nz/Promotional-Material</a>
2007	Ministry of Education. (2007). The New Zealand curriculum. Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.
2007	Ministry of Education. The generic framework for teaching and learning languages in English-medium schools. Wellington: Learning Media.
2007	Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education. (2007). <i>Introducing Japanese to your school</i> . Jo Barber (Powerpoint Author). Retrieved from <a href="http://www.sasakawa.co.nz/index_sffjle.htm">http://www.sasakawa.co.nz/index_sffjle.htm</a>
2007	Scott, A., & Butler, P. (2007). 'My teacher is learning like us': Teachers and students as language learners. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> , 33, 11-16.
2007	Scott, A. J., & Butler, P. J. (2007a). <i>Evaluation of pilot programmes for effective teaching in languages, years 7 &amp; 8</i> . ( Report No. 373-2435 Final Report). College of Education, Massey University.
2008	Alison, J. (2008). The NCEA and how we got there: The role of PPTA in school qualification reform 1980-2002. <i>New Zealand Journal of Teachers' Work</i> , 5 (2), 119-138.
2008	Asia New Zealand Foundation. (2008). Educating for Asia: <i>The New Zealand Curriculum and Asia Guide</i> . Wellington: Asia New Zealand Foundation.

2008	Clarke, K. (2008). Action research for the teaching and Learning of Japanese at Years 7 – 8 level in New Zealand: Does developing a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions in Japanese increase L2 output? Report prepared for the Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education, presented at the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers Conference, Wellington, July 2008.
2008	Educating for Asia: The New Zealand Curriculum and Asia Guide. Wellington: Asia New Zealand Foundation, 2008.
2008	Insley, S., & Thomson, W. (2008). Supporting teachers to increase the quality and quantity of student target language use: Description and analysis of the teacher professional development in languages (tpdl) programme. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher 34</i> , 21-30.
2008	Jacques, A. (2008). Mixed-level languages classes at Year 9: What are our students saying? <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher 34</i> , 14-20.
2008/9	McGee, C., & Cowie, B. (2008/2009). The context of contemporary curriculum change. <i>Waikato Journal of Education 14</i> , 91-104.
2008	Scott, A., & Butler, P. (2008, 6-9 July). Motivation in language classrooms: Using the ten commandments as a framework. Paper presented at the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers International Biennial conference, Wellington, NZ.
2008	Okamura, Y. (2008) Clearing cultural clutter: Experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers teaching Japanese in New Zealand. Unpublished PhD, University of Canterbury
2008	Scott, A. & Butler, P. (2008). Motivation in Language Classrooms: Using the Ten Commandments as a Framework. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher 34</i> , 48-53.
2009	Asia New Zealand Foundation. "Asia: Aware: Why Asia matters to New Zealand." Asia: NZ Foundation research paper, March 2009.
2009	Curriculum Implementation Exploratory Studies. Report to the Ministry of Education Bronwen Cowie, Rosemary Hipkins et al. New Zealand Council for Educational Research. The University of Waikato.
2009	Harvey, S., Conway, C., Richards, H., & Roskvist, A., (2009). 'Evaluation of Teacher Professional Development Languages (TPDL) in Years 7-10 and the Impact on Language Learning Opportunities and Outcomes for Students'. Commissioned Report to Ministry of Education.
2009	Hipkins, Rosemary. "Reshaping the secondary school curriculum: Building the plane while flying it?" Findings from NZCER National Survey of Secondary Schools, New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 2009.
2009	Jacques, A. (2009). Language Learning in transition – The experiences and attitudes of Year 9 language learners in a New Zealand High School. Canterbury University, Master's thesis.
2009	The Japan Foundation. (2009). Present condition of overseas Japanese-language education: survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 2006 summary. Tokyo: The Japan Foundation.
2009	Languages in Aotearoa New Zealand Te Waka a Reo - Statement on Language Policy, Human Rights Commission: Wellington.
2009	Scott, A. & East, M. (2009). The standards review for learning languages: How come and where to? <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher 35</i> , 28-32.

2010	Daly, N. (2010). Context, content, and teacher education: Six language teachers in a New Zealand primary school setting discuss their language teaching identity. <i>Babel</i> 45(2/3), 51-58.
2010	Hirata, A. (2010) An Exploratory Study of Motivation and Self-Regulated Learning in Second Language Acquisition: Kanji Learning as a Task Focused Approach. Unpublished masters thesis Massey University.
2010	Insley, S., & Thomson, W. (2010). "Got a donkey anyone?": How teachers can ensure that learning languages fits the vision and principles of the New Zealand Curriculum (2007) <i>New Zealand Language Teacher: Proceedings of the NZALT biennial international conference</i> , 36, 53-63.
2010	Madjar, I., & McKinley, E. (2010). <i>Uni bound?: students' stories of transition from school to university</i> . Wellington: NZCER Press.
2010	Ministry of Education. (2010). <i>First Class! Effective Languages Learning Levels 1 and 2</i> Wellington: Cognition Education Ltd and Visual Learning.
2010	Ministry of Education. <i>Learning Languages Curriculum Guidelines</i> . Wellington: Te Kete Ipurangi. Online only at: <a href="http://learning-languages-guides.tki.org.nz/">http://learning-languages-guides.tki.org.nz/</a>
2010	Newton, J., Yates, E., Shearn, S., & Nowitzki, W. (2010). <i>Intercultural communicative language teaching: Implications for effective teaching and learning</i> . Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
2010	Rivers, J. (2010). <i>An introduction to the concept of intercultural communicative language learning and teaching: A summary for language teachers</i> . Wellington: Ministry of Education.
2011	Briefing to the Incoming Minister. December 2011. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
2011	de Burgh-Hirabe, R. (2011) <i>Extensive reading and L2 reading motivation in Japanese as a foreign language: A case study of New Zealand high school students</i> . Otago, New Zealand: University of Otago. Unpublished PhD thesis.
2011	Harvey, S., Roskvist, A., Corder D, Stacey, K. (2011). <i>An Evaluation of the Language and Culture Immersion Experiences (LCIE) for Teachers Programmes: Their Impact on Teachers and their Contribution to Effective Second Language Learning</i> . Ministry of Education.
2011	Henry, S. and Erlam, R. (2011) <i>To blog or not to blog: how does it impact on writing in a Japanese classroom?.</i> <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> 37.
2011	The Japan Foundation. (2011). <i>Present condition of overseas Japanese-language education: survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 2008 summary</i> . Tokyo: The Japan Foundation.
2011	Mizutani, S, Rubie-Davies, C., Hattie, J. and Philp, J. (2011) <i>Do beliefs about NCEA and its washback effects vary depending on subject?</i> <i>New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies</i> 46 (2) pp 47-59.
2011	Ogino, M. (2011). <i>The challenge of consistency in NCEA examination papers: The case of Level 3 Japanese reading over a five year period.</i> <i>New Zealand Language Teacher</i> , 37, 28-38.
2011	Scott, A. (2011). <i>Teaching additional languages in New Zealand: One piece of the national jigsaw - pre-secondary teachers of Japanese.</i> <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> 37, pp 13-18.
2011	University of Auckland (2011). <i>Towards an Asia-Savvy Education: Enhancing the Incorporation of Asian Languages and Studies in New Zealand Secondary Schools</i> . W. C. H. Chau.

2011	Wang, Y. J., and Erlam, R. (2011). Willingness to communicate in the Japanese language classroom: An inquiry learning project in a year 7 classroom. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> 37, 39-44.
2012	East, M. (2012). Working towards a motivational pedagogy for school programmes in additional Languages. <i>Curriculum Matters</i> , 8, 128-147.
2012	Howard, J. (2012). Teaching and learning languages in New Zealand primary schools: Principals' perspectives. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> , 38.
2012	Jabbar, S.A. (2012). Japanese Language Teaching in Malaysia and New Zealand: Recent History, Current Practice and Curriculum, Master of Education Thesis, University of Waikato.
2012	Koefoed, G. (2012). Policy perspectives from New Zealand. In M. Byram, & L. Parmenter (Eds.) <i>The common European framework of reference: A case study of cultural politics and educational influences</i> . (pp. 233 - 248). United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
2012	Ogino, M. (2012). What has changed in the revised NCEA achievement standards? An analysis of passage lengths and linguistic errors in the external examination papers: The case of level 1 Japanese. <i>The New Zealand Language Teacher</i> 38, 72-82.
2012	Ormand, D. (2012.) Aligning curriculum and assessment- divergent approaches in the framing of knowledge. <i>Curriculum Matters</i> 8, 9-32.
2012	Oshima, R. (2012) An Investigation into the Reasons of Discontinuance of Japanese amongst First Year Tertiary Students who have Studied Japanese to Year 13 at Secondary School. Auckland University of Technology – Master's Thesis.
2012	Richards, H.Conway, C., Roskvist, A.and Harvey, S. (2012). Foreign language teachers' language proficiency and their language teaching practice. <i>The Language Learning Journal</i> 41 (2) 1–16.
2012	Scott, A.J., & East, M. (2012). Academic perspectives from New Zealand. In M. Byram, & L. Parmenter (Eds.) <i>The common European framework of reference: A case study of cultural politics and educational influences</i> . (pp. 253 - 262). United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
2012	Semba, T. (2012, December). Problems and proposals for Japanese language education in NZ to bridge the gap to tertiary level: Analysing statistics for secondary and primary level of Japanese language teaching Presented at The Tertiary Teaching of Japanese in New Zealand Symposium: Issues in the Asian Century. Palmerston North, New Zealand.
2012	Wood, B., & Sheehan, M. (2012). Dislodging knowledge? The New Zealand curriculum in the 21st century. <i>Pacific-Asian Education</i> , 24 (1), 17–30.
2013	Languages in Aotearoa New Zealand. March 2013. The Royal Society of New Zealand.

## Appendix 2a

Information from [www.careers.govt.nz](http://www.careers.govt.nz)

A search under 'Courses' with the term 'Japanese' results in 10 qualifications; 4 from IPC, 3 from CPIT, 1 from Canterbury University, 1 from Auckland University, and 1 from AUT.

A search on the front page of the website with the term "Japanese" returns 223 pages. Vast majority the various qualifications with which you can incorporate or major in Japanese.

### **If you select 'Languages' from 'Subject Matcher', the following occupations are returned:**

#### Education and Social Sciences

- Private Teacher/Tutor
- Secondary School Teacher
- Tertiary Lecturer

#### Government, Law and Safety

- Foreign Policy Officer
- Workplace Relations Adviser
- Immigration Officer

#### Arts and Media

- Interpreter
- Translator
- Historian

#### Hospitality, Tourism and Recreation

- Tour Guide
- Travel Agent/Adviser

#### Transport and Logistics

- Flight Attendant

### **If you select 'Languages' from 'Skill Matcher' the following occupations are returned:**

#### Education and Social Sciences

- Secondary School Teacher
- Tertiary Lecturer

#### Government, Law and Safety

- Foreign Policy Officer
- Immigration Officer
- Customs Officer

#### Arts and Media

- Interpreter
- Translator

#### Hospitality, Tourism and Recreation

- Tour Guide
- Travel Agent/Adviser
- Transport and Logistics
- Flight Attendant
- Check-in Agent

### Information from the Tertiary Provider Websites

The following institutions (from where one can achieve a NZQA recognised qualification) have information about careers with a qualification in Japanese Studies (although it varies considerably in its content)

#### University of Auckland

[www.arts.auckland.ac.nz/uoa/home/about/subjects-and-courses/japanese](http://www.arts.auckland.ac.nz/uoa/home/about/subjects-and-courses/japanese)

#### Waikato University

[www.waikato.ac.nz/wfass/subjects/humanities/japanese/careers.shtml](http://www.waikato.ac.nz/wfass/subjects/humanities/japanese/careers.shtml)

#### Massey University

[www.massey.ac.nz/massey/learning/programme-course-paper/programme.cfm?major\\_code=2025&prog\\_id=93118](http://www.massey.ac.nz/massey/learning/programme-course-paper/programme.cfm?major_code=2025&prog_id=93118)

#### Victoria University

[www.victoria.ac.nz/slc/study/subjectsoffered/japa](http://www.victoria.ac.nz/slc/study/subjectsoffered/japa)  
[www.victoria.ac.nz/st\\_services/careers/resources/degree\\_options/asian\\_languages.aspx](http://www.victoria.ac.nz/st_services/careers/resources/degree_options/asian_languages.aspx)

#### Canterbury University

[www.canterbury.ac.nz/careers/what\\_can\\_i\\_do\\_with\\_a\\_degree\\_in/japanese.shtml](http://www.canterbury.ac.nz/careers/what_can_i_do_with_a_degree_in/japanese.shtml)

#### Otago University

<http://www.otago.ac.nz/japanese/>

#### IPC Tertiary Institute

[www.ipc.ac.nz/home/careers](http://www.ipc.ac.nz/home/careers)

#### AUT

[www.aut.ac.nz/study-at-aut/study-areas/language-culture/careers-in-language-culture/careers-in-languages](http://www.aut.ac.nz/study-at-aut/study-areas/language-culture/careers-in-language-culture/careers-in-languages)

#### UNITEC

No career information – short courses only in Japanese

#### CPIT

[www.cpit.ac.nz/study-options/our-study-interest-areas/humanities/international-languages](http://www.cpit.ac.nz/study-options/our-study-interest-areas/humanities/international-languages)

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### Information provided to secondary schools

No specific careers information is provided to teachers of Japanese in NZ schools. Aside from the occasional University prospectus, nothing else is sent to teachers.

The same is true for Career Advisors; except for information from tertiary providers, no other resources are sent to schools.

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### Other resources

Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education – have profiles of 49 former NZ Japanese Language students

Appendix 2b





Sasakawa Fellowship Fund  
for Japanese Language Education



**IPC**  
TERTIARY  
INSTITUTE  
NEW ZEALAND

Higher Education for the Internationally Minded



**MASSEY**  
UNIVERSITY  
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUORA

UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND