Introduction

In recent years the number of students from non-English-speaking backgrounds in New Zealand schools has increased dramatically. As at 1 July 1996, Ministry of Education statistics indicate there were 57,903 non-English-speaking background (NESB) students1 in primary and secondary schools throughout the country, ten percent more than in the previous year (1995). Schools and teachers, particularly in the Auckland district where the majority (74%) of these students reside, are placed under enormous pressure as they endeavour to provide adequate resources and programmes, as well as a supportive learning environment, for their NESB students.

The New Zealand Curriculum Framework (Ministry of Education, 1993) states that:

‘... all young people in New Zealand have the right to gain, through the state schooling system, a broad, balanced education that prepares them for effective participation in society.’ (p. 5)

The principles set out in this document also state that the curriculum should reflect the multicultural nature of New Zealand society and provide all students with equal educational opportunities by responding to their individual needs. According to Davison (1993), the curriculum must also help to strengthen and affirm a student’s cultural background and awareness, while providing opportunities to challenge and extend them. Hence, Waite (1992b) suggests that the purpose of the school is to:

‘... empower students to deal with their world with confidence, to use their oral skills to develop and maintain their identity, to establish relationships with other people, to learn about the world, to obtain information and advice, to inform and advise others, to participate in recreational activities and to appreciate their own and others’ cultural heritage.’ (p. 10)

The extent, however, to which such goals can be successfully incorporated within schools relies heavily on factors such as adequate funding to administer language programmes, sympathetic teachers who have had adequate training opportunities, classroom procedures, teaching strategies, appropriate resources, and supportive parents and school community. According to McKay and Scarino (1991), teaching English as a second language is a:

‘... complexity of different programmes, different personnel and different emphases, depending on the needs of the learners and the resources available.’ (p. 10)

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1 Figure excludes New Zealand Maori, special education, adult, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (MFAT)-sponsored, and foreign fee paying students, but includes students who were classified in ESOL funding Categories 4 and 5, although students in these two categories did not attract ESOL funding. (As described on page 12 of this report, at the time of the study schools were required to use five broad categories to classify NESB students’ competence in English when lodging applications for discretionary ESOL resourcing. However, as students in Category 4 were categorised as requiring only subject-specific support, and those in Category 5 as needing no additional support, these students did not receive funding.)
The Factors that May Influence NESB Students’ Ability to Learn English

A number of factors relating to issues of policy, resourcing, staff development, student participation, curriculum, and examination design and delivery can influence NESB students’ ability to learn English and impact on the success of language support programmes provided for these students in schools (Robson, 1987).

One factor that influences NESB students’ ability to learn English is the provision of a learning environment which is supportive and which provides students with a variety of opportunities to experience and practise language with others (Kaplan, 1980; Davison, 1993). Also, the Ministry of Education in the Australian state of Victoria (1990) states that NESB students need opportunities to develop English language skills through as broad a range of activities and experiences as possible — in much the same way as they learnt their first language as a young child.

According to McKay and Scarino (1991), learning is more meaningful for NESB students when the curriculum incorporates the individual cultural and first language needs of these students.

Ovando and Collier (1987) stress the importance for teachers to take into consideration the prior learning experiences of their NESB students and the varying teaching methods these students have been exposed to in their previous schooling, as both can influence student progress and teacher expectations. Without such vital background information, teachers will find it much more difficult to adjust their methods of instruction to provide appropriate programmes, with the result that NESB students run the risk of failure within a system which does not recognise their needs. Ovando and Collier conclude that:

‘... knowing more about the student enables the teacher to relate with empathy.’ (p. 15)

Similarly, Davison (1993) points out that NESB students who were previously taught in schools where they were expected to be quiet and passive and to not question the teacher or to share in group discussions can find being placed in a (New Zealand) classroom, where participation, questioning, and problem-solving are encouraged, unfamiliar and daunting.

Other factors, such as emotional well-being, can also impact on students’ ability to learn a second language. For example, Stewart (1993) notes that the educational and emotional needs of refugees who are forced to leave their homeland are different from those of migrants who choose to settle in a new country. Refugees who have been subjected to violence and persecution in their homeland may have health and behavioural, as well as emotional, problems which need to be taken into account. The fact that many refugee children may have received little or no formal schooling before their arrival in New Zealand also influences the rate at which they progress academically, especially in the case of older students.
Watt et al (1996) suggest that English as a Second Language (ESL) high school students progress through a series of predictable high and low emotional phases, as they adjust to their new school environment, making them particularly vulnerable to leaving school at certain times. During these crucial phases, it is essential that teachers are sensitive and responsive to student needs, in order to minimise their risk of failure.

Research evidence (eg, Ministry of Education, Victoria, 1990) further suggests that the greater the difference between the language and culture of the school and that of the home, the more difficult it is for NESB students to learn English. Differences between the expectations of the school and the families of students from different cultures can also seriously affect the learning ability of NESB students (Fitzgerald, 1993). To overcome such difficulties, Fitzgerald suggests that teachers of NESB students should consider adapting their routines to accommodate cultural differences, clearly explain to students and their families the rules of the classroom and the reasons for having those rules, and endeavour to increase family participation within their classroom and the school.

Likewise, Davison (1993) maintains that it is crucial that effective relationships be developed between NESB students’ families and the schools they attend. Stewart (1993) suggests that this may be facilitated by the use of:

‘... home–school liaison personnel with appropriate language skills and cultural sensitivity.’ (p. 86)

Whether teachers’ expectations of NESB students are that they will succeed or that they will ‘fail’ may also have a significant effect on these students’ progress in developing English language proficiency and in their general academic achievement. According to Ovando and Collier (1987), for example, some teachers perceive NESB students as having lower socio-economic status than other students in their class and expect that they are therefore likely to do less well. In opposing this view reportedly held by some teachers, Waite (1992b) notes that NESB students have often developed sufficient linguistic skills in their first language to support the learning of a second language, and that progress in a second language is dependent on the level of adequate resources available within schools to accommodate their learning needs, rather than on (perceived) personal or family ‘shortcomings’.

Finally in this section, Elley (1992) argues that exposure to good language and having adequate opportunity to practise it are key factors in successful language acquisition. He identifies a distinct relationship between high achievement levels in reading literacy and access to books in the home and through well-resourced school and community libraries.

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Research shows that exposure to good language and having adequate opportunity to practise it are key factors in successful language acquisition.

\[2\] ESL is commonly used in countries such as Australia and the USA, whereas the terms ‘NESB’ (relating to students) and ‘ESOL’ (relating to funding, programmes, and staff) are used in New Zealand. The Glossary of Terms in Appendix 2 of this report (page 300) provides further details about these different terms.
Assessment

While there appears to be agreement that assessment of NESB students is both worthwhile and necessary, it remains a complex and unclear area with no apparent consensus on standard assessment procedures. The need for some form of standardised testing is discussed by Kaplan (1980) who suggests that administering a type of proficiency test, either oral or written, to NESB students would help determine initial language competency and enable outcomes to be assessed.

However, while agreeing that assessment is essential for determining classroom placement, identifying a student’s strengths and weaknesses, and developing appropriate programmes, Griffiths (1994) asserts that equitable testing of NESB students is difficult and that the application of tests used for the general student population, such as Progressive Achievement Tests (PAT) or the Burt Word Reading Test, is not an effective means of assessing these students. In her opinion, thorough assessment of NESB students should cover not only reading, but also listening and speaking skills.

While also agreeing with the necessity of completing assessments of NESB students, Stewart (1993) notes that such procedures need to be conducted by sympathetic and trained personnel.

‘Too frequently assessment is accomplished by an untrained staff person who makes decisions based on brief conversations that centre on impressions of the student’s ability to speak English.’ (p. 85)

Assessments of NESB students, as with all students, are generally undertaken at different stages of their schooling, and for a variety of purposes. In New Zealand, van Hees et al (1992, 1994) suggest that initial assessments should ideally be completed at the time the student is enrolled and used primarily for (initial) class placement, providing information for the class teacher, updating school records, and for Ministry of Education returns and applications for discretionary ESOL funding allocations. They further recommend that a bilingual assessment should be administered after a few weeks at school (once the student has had a chance to settle in), to ascertain both first language and English competency, and to identify a student’s strengths and weaknesses in language and other curriculum areas. As the name suggests, ongoing assessment (or curriculum-based assessment) should then, they recommend, be conducted on a regular basis to assess a student’s knowledge and understanding in specific areas, as well as for evaluating the effectiveness of the programmes being administered. Van Hees et al further recommend that in secondary schools assessments be carried out at points of change in a student’s learning, such as when he or she moves to a different class level, or leaves school.

Reflecting the recommended assessment procedures put forward by van Hees et al, the ‘ESL Framework of Stages’, developed by McKay and Scarino (1991), outlines suggested skills...
and abilities needed by students for each of the ESL levels in the framework and describes techniques for assessing student progress through the various stages.

However, although there are many ideas for what, how and when to assess NESB students, there appears to be no consensus on a common method of assessment or type of placement test which would enable all teachers throughout New Zealand to assess students in a similar manner. The administering of various assessment procedures, particularly the bilingual assessment recommended above, also relies heavily on schools having access to willing and trained personnel to conduct these.

Teaching and other Classroom Strategies Used to Support NESB Students

As suggested above, teachers play a vital role in assisting NESB students acquire second language competency. This role often requires them to adapt their classroom programmes to ensure that the individual needs of NESB students are met. McKay and Scarino (1991) maintain that successful classroom teaching of these students is largely dependent on both sufficient time and competent teachers.

'Successful ESL teaching is undertaken in conditions where the key ingredients, namely time and informed personnel, are available to enable learners to use English at an appropriate level and in a meaningful way, to focus on aspects of the language and skills needed ... and to learn without undue anxiety.' (p. 12)

In their publication *ESL Framework of Stages: An Approach to ESL Learning in Schools, K–12*, McKay and Scarino (1991) outline eight principles of language learning designed to maximise the learning potential of ESL (NESB) students. They propose a holistic view of second language teaching and maintain that learning is enhanced when ESL (NESB) students are:

- treated as individuals with their own needs and interests;
- provided with opportunities to participate in communicative and reflective use of the language in a wide range of activities;
- exposed to language which is comprehensible and relevant to their own interests and cultural background;
- encouraged to develop various language forms, skills, strategies, and aspects of knowledge to support the process of language acquisition and the learning of concepts;
- exposed to socio-cultural information and direct experience of the culture embedded within the language;
- aware of the role and nature of language and of culture;
• provided with appropriate feedback and encouragement on their achievement;
• provided with opportunities to organise their own learning.

As discussed below, evidence of these principles for second language learning are apparent in the classroom strategies proposed in much of the other literature reviewed for this report.

Johnson (1991) suggests that finding out as much information as possible on the cultural background and traditions, as well as the prior learning experiences, of NESB students can help teachers assess the needs of these students and plan programmes accordingly. Based on her own teaching experience, Johnson found that ‘buddying’ an NESB student with another student who speaks the same first language, but who also has proficiency in English, helps the NESB student to feel less isolated in their new school environment. Likewise, Davison (1993) suggests that teachers need to provide opportunities for second language learners to discuss their fears and uncertainties with fellow students who speak the same language, or with bilingual support staff.

Syme (1995) highlighted a need for more bilingual support staff to be employed within schools to provide this type of support, and to liaise with parents and students in their first language, as well as assist with enrolment procedures.

Further strategies proposed by Watt and Watt (1994, cited by Watt et al, 1996) to improve the learning environment for NESB students include the preparation of written homework sheets for students in addition to the verbal instructions issued by the teacher, ensuring students clearly understand what they are required to do for homework by discussing the requirements in class, and organising students into mixed groups for group work, rather than allowing students to choose their own partners.

Davison (1993) affirms that teachers need to provide particularly clear instructions for NESB students within their classroom, tailoring their vocabulary to meet the language levels of their students. He maintains that, because they are not studying in their first language, NESB students need more time to grasp new concepts. He therefore promotes the use of demonstrations and practical examples as effective teaching tools.

Griffiths (1994) advocates ‘partnership teaching’ as a flexible technique which can work well for both teachers and NESB students in mainstream classes. Under this system, teachers share their classroom responsibilities by providing assistance for each other, as well as for the students in the class who most need it. For example, one teacher may take a group of NESB students for particular sessions, while the other teaches the remaining students.

Griffiths further asserts that learning is more purposeful for NESB students when they are able to relate to the subject material being covered. She suggests that establishing ‘self-
access facilities’ where students are able to choose books, tapes, and videos, on subjects which they are interested in, thereby taking responsibility for their own learning, encourages student independence.

From their experience in the field of second language teaching, McKay and Scarino (1991) present a comprehensive list of further teaching strategies designed to assist NESB students which can be incorporated into all aspects of a teacher’s classroom programme. Encouraging students to write in their first language, using open-ended questions as a means of promoting oral communication, and the use of games, drama, music and puppets as learning tools are just a few of their suggestions for teachers.

In New Zealand, van Hees et al (1992, 1994), for the Education Advisory Service, Auckland, have produced two resource booklets — *Effective Provisions for Non-English-Speaking Background Students – A Guideline for Secondary Schools* and *Effective Provisions for Students from Language Backgrounds other than English – A Guideline for Primary Schools* — which detail a range of strategies to ease the transition of NESB students into a new school, including appropriate enrolment and assessment procedures, considerations for class placement, and classroom support techniques, such as buddying and peer tutoring.

**Types of Programmes Provided for NESB Students**

The programmes provided for NESB students within individual schools can vary considerably depending on such factors as the number of students with similar needs attending, the availability of bilingual teachers to administer language programmes, teacher-student ratios, access to resources, training and experience of teachers, community support, and, of course, adequate funding.

Once assessments are carried out, suitable programmes are able to be developed to meet the individual needs of the student. For example, Stewart (1993) notes that adolescent NESB students who have received limited, if indeed any, schooling in their home country, have unique needs which must be addressed through careful and sensitive class placement, as well as the development of programmes appropriate for their age.

Davison (1993) considers that the majority of NESB students would benefit from intensive sessions with a specialist teacher and suggests this could be achieved in a number of ways — through courses at specialist language centres, withdrawal classes within schools, or by grouping students with similar needs together within the classroom. Opinion still appears to be divided over which method — mainstreaming or withdrawal classes — is the most appropriate option for NESB students. In a New Zealand research study comparing the schooling experiences of NESB students in a mainstream class with those attending an intensive English course, Syme (1995) found that more positive experiences resulted for
those students who attended the intensive English course. Students indicated feeling comfortable and safe within this type of learning environment, saying it enabled them to develop more confidence in their own abilities. Almost all of these students also commented that undertaking an intensive language course eased their eventual transition to mainstream classes. By comparison, half of the students who were schooled in a mainstream class from the outset indicated their first few months at school were lonely and traumatic because of their inability to communicate with their peers and teachers.

However, it is also argued — for example, by Gillborn (1990) and Griffiths (1994) — that new NESB students need to socialise and make friends with their English-speaking peers as soon as possible and that by withdrawing them from regular classes, or having them attend a specialist language course such as the one discussed above, hinders their language development by isolating them from other English-speaking students, who serve as strong role models.

Fitzgerald (1993) agrees with this latter view, stating that oral and written language is more likely to develop when NESB students are provided with activities based on social interaction with other students. The lack of opportunity to make friends with English-speaking students was one of the main disadvantages mentioned by students who had attended an intensive English course in preference to a mainstream class (Syme, 1995). Davison (1993) concludes that NESB students need to be provided with carefully designed class programmes, as it is unreasonable to expect these students to develop English language skills simply ‘by osmosis’ within mainstream classes.

Fitzgerald (1993) identified four common types of programmes which are available for NESB students in schools throughout the United States. In cases where funding is limited and the numbers of students are too small to justify a bilingual programme, ‘pull-out ESL’ programmes withdraw students from their classes on a regular basis to attend English tuition with a specialist teacher, although there is generally no allowance for first language maintenance within such a programme. In those schools where there are students from many different cultures, specialist teachers provide ‘content ESL’ programmes, teaching students specific units of work in simplified English to ensure their understanding of the topic.

By contrast, ‘transitional bilingual programmes’ advocate a strong first language base before English is taught and some, if not all, curriculum subjects are taught in the student’s first language. Finally, ‘two-way bilingual programmes’ aim to achieve proficiency in both English and a student’s first language. Ovando and Collier (1987) report that the organisation Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in the United States deems bilingual programmes such as these to be the most appropriate method of teaching to achieve educational equity for NESB students, although the organisation does acknowledge that student numbers and the total number of different languages represented within a school...
limit the extent to which the introduction of bilingual programmes is possible. Within smaller countries such as New Zealand, the availability of tutors with the necessary language skills to coordinate bilingual programmes further restricts the extent to which such programmes can be implemented.

Since 1974, it has been a legal requirement in the United States for schools to provide language assistance to students who have limited English language skills and cannot cope in mainstream programmes. Bilingual programmes, such as those discussed above, are one approach used to address the needs of NESB students. However, in her discussion of bilingual education, Wong Fillmore (1990) notes that teachers very often lack the necessary skills, and also the inclination, to administer lessons in a student’s first language so, in reality, students receive very little of the first language tuition to which they are entitled.

First Language Maintenance

As highlighted above, many factors influence an NESB student’s ability to learn English. Debate continues over whether a student’s proficiency in their first language significantly influences the rate at which they attain competency in a second language and the extent to which schools should provide first language maintenance programmes.

In New Zealand, being able to understand and communicate effectively in English enables people to access information and services, express how they feel and what their needs are, and to develop social relationships with others. However, Waite (1992b) cautions that English should not be learnt at the expense of losing first language competency, suggesting that students may experience increased self-esteem and pride in their cultural heritage if they are encouraged to undertake programmes designed to support first language maintenance.

‘Equality of opportunity is more likely to result for people from minority language groups who are able to become bilingual in their own language and in English, than for those who are either unable to maintain their own language or unable to acquire an adequate knowledge of English. The maintenance of one’s own language is a major factor in developing a strong sense of identity, which in turn contributes to self-confidence and positive attitudes.’ (p. 16)

Similarly, Davison (1993, p. 38) proposes that programmes which develop bilingual competency grant students ‘greater cognitive and linguistic flexibility’. Also, according to van Hees et al (1992), such programmes help to minimise the trauma experienced by NESB students when settling into a new school.

Some NESB students, however, see the English language as having greater status than their own first language and consider it the key to being accepted in their new environment. Wong Fillmore (1990), though, maintains that, by using English in preference to their home
or first language, these students run the risk of losing their mother tongue and becoming isolated from their parents and other adults in their community with whom they can no longer easily communicate.

Likewise, Waite (1992a) asserts that first language maintenance is essential as the means by which families pass on their values, traditions, and beliefs:

‘Language is central to our individual and group identity, being the principal medium by which knowledge, ideas and cultural values are transmitted.’ (p. 9)

Emphasising the seriousness of rejecting one’s first language, Banks (1988) states that:

‘Language and culture interweave. For students, language and culture are the heads and tails of the same coin. Rejection of the students’ language is tantamount to cultural rejection.’ (p. 269)

While the literature appears to stress the advantages for NESB students of developing and maintaining first language competency, the extent to which schools are able to provide such programmes for all their NESB students appears highly problematic.

The Need for Effective Teacher Training

Robson (1987) and Banks (1988), for example, point out that it is essential that teachers exhibit positive attitudes towards their NESB students if language programmes are to be effective, achieving positive outcomes for students.

This view is reiterated by Fitzgerald (1993) who states that:

‘...teachers of students with limited English proficiency are more likely to be effective if they are sensitive to various aspects of the cultural and societal contexts of second-language learning.’ (p. 641)

McKay and Scarino (1991) maintain that effective teaching of NESB students requires a specialist approach, using not only mainstream teachers who have received specific training in working with NESB students, but also by utilising the services of trained language professionals.

‘In successful ESL teaching it is essential that teachers know what is happening in the second language learning process, so that they can formulate appropriate language learning goals and objectives, and can provide the optimal conditions which will promote the second language development.’ (p. 12)
In order to adequately cater for the increasing numbers of non-English-speaking background children in schools, Waite (1992a), like McKay and Scarino, suggests that all classroom teachers need to be trained in strategies designed to help NESB children. This would involve colleges of education providing teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) as a component of all teacher trainee programmes, from early childhood through to primary and secondary, and the provision of ongoing training for those teachers already in the field.

In New Zealand, Peddie and Penfold's (1987) evaluation of the English Language Teaching Unit at Mount Roskill Grammar School highlighted the need for adequate training for all teachers in cultural awareness and working with NESB students. The researchers also suggested that in schools where there are large numbers of NESB students, specialist ESOL teachers need to be appointed.

While it is recognised that cultural sensitivity is a component of teacher education programmes within New Zealand, the aim being to equip new teachers with the skills to cater for students from all cultures, the provision of adequate training and professional development in this area for those teachers already employed in schools nevertheless remains an important and ongoing issue. This is particularly the case in light of evidence which suggests a need to provide carefully designed class programmes for NESB students, in addition to a first language maintenance programme of some kind.

**Length of Time Students Need Assistance**

Without a doubt, the acquisition of English language skills for NESB students is often a lengthy process. For those students with no prior knowledge of English, it is estimated (e.g., Kaplan, 1980) that it can take 800 to 1,000 teaching hours for them to achieve reasonable language proficiency, although factors such as student motivation, a positive attitude towards learning, a supportive learning environment, quality language input both inside and outside the classroom environment, and the expertise of the class teacher, can shorten the acquisition process.

Waite (1992a) also stresses how lengthy a process second language acquisition can be, after referring, for example, to research undertaken by Cummins (1980) in Canada which concluded that it takes approximately five years for NESB students to reach a level of proficiency in English which is equivalent to their class peers.

While NESB students generally accomplish effective conversational English in a relatively short time-frame — usually within two to three years of arriving at school (Watt et al, 1996) — the more complex, academic language needed for subjects such as English or social studies takes longer to acquire, possibly five to seven years. Watt et al further state that it is therefore necessary to continue ongoing support for NESB students once they have reached
competency in conversational English, even though it would appear that they are now able to cope adequately in a normal classroom environment. Watt et al assert, too, that NESB students are disadvantaged when second language support is withdrawn too early, because they are less likely to acquire the skills necessary to achieve in academic subjects, making it more difficult to develop to their full potential by realising their ambitions for post-compulsory education.

Syme (1995) notes that NESB students themselves often set unrealistic goals, particularly those anxious to pursue tertiary education, expecting to achieve proficiency in English within a shorter time-frame than research and other evidence has shown is likely. Watt et al (1996) report similar findings, stating that both students and their teachers are prone to overestimating initial levels of English language proficiency. Syme (1995) suggests that teachers need to closely monitor the language development of NESB students and advise those [secondary school] students who have not reached an adequate level of English language competency to consider waiting before sitting national examinations in language-based subjects, so as to prevent their becoming disillusioned and despondent.

The Need for Long-Term Planning

As indicated above, learning English as a second language is clearly both a lengthy and ongoing process, generally taking students between two and seven years to develop language proficiency (Wong Fillmore, 1990). Long-term planning of resources and services which promote language development is therefore required to enable teachers to provide NESB students with the assistance they require over time. McKay and Scarino (1991) note that:

‘A long-term map of ESL learning provides teachers with a chance to see ESL learning in terms of progress rather than deficiency, to recognise that for learners to be successful in the mainstream they will need ESL teaching planned over the long term.’ (p. 14)

In response to the need for long-term planning, the ‘ESL Framework of Stages’ (McKay and Scarino, 1991) provides a framework for organising ESL (NESB) students, taking into account their individual backgrounds and language proficiency, and sets out suggested goals, objectives, and assessment activities. McKay (1992) suggests that the ‘ESL Framework of Stages’ enables teachers to map student progress from class to class, as well as school to school, and:

‘... encourages a positive rather than a deficit view of ESL teaching and learning in the school, since teachers can be helped to see the progress that ESL learners have already made in their learning, and not the gaps, which, because of the ever moving mainstream curriculum, they often never seem to quite fill.’ (p. 66)
Concluding Comments

From the brief review of literature presented here it is evident that non-English-speaking background (NESB) students have unique language needs which must be addressed if their educational outcomes are to be maximised and they are to achieve their academic goals. It is imperative that carefully designed language programmes which cater for their individual needs be implemented, and that students are not simply immersed in mainstream classes to ‘sink or swim’. Language programmes, however, must be developed with a long-term view, taking into consideration the evidence that it can take NESB students somewhere between two and seven years to achieve proficiency in the English language, the length of time depending on factors such as a supportive learning environment, teacher expertise, the student’s previous education, and so on.

With long-term planning of resources and services in mind, schools need to develop and implement policies which reflect the multicultural nature of their school and strive to provide a supportive learning environment for all students. Ultimately, though, the success of programmes designed to support NESB students relies heavily on sympathetic teachers who exhibit positive attitudes towards their students and who have received adequate training in appropriate learning strategies for NESB students. This highlights the need for ongoing professional development and support for teachers already in schools and to ensure those still undertaking training programmes receive adequate instruction in this area. It also highlights the need for adequate resourcing in terms of funding and teacher hours, to enable schools to develop and maintain appropriate language programmes.

The types of language programmes available in New Zealand, as in other countries, vary from school to school. The number of students within a school with similar needs, the level of funding available to implement language programmes, the availability of bilingual tutors, and access to suitable resources all impact on the sorts of programmes which can be implemented. However, programmes which promote first language maintenance are thought to increase self-esteem and cultural pride and ease the transition of NESB students into a new school. The introduction of other useful strategies such as ‘buddy tutoring’, ‘self-access facilities’, and ‘partnership teaching’ are also suggested in the literature.