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IMPLEMENTING CRITICAL LITERACY
IN A
TONGAN BILINGUAL CLASSROOM

A thesis submitted

in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

of

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By

PESETI TUPOU'ILA VEA

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ABSTRACT

This report describes a research study which trialled a unit of work designed for senior high school levels in a Tongan bilingual classroom. The main purpose of the study was to investigate the appropriateness and possible benefits of using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in bilingual classrooms in Tonga. A critical literacy approach is relatively new in Tonga, so the study set out to test if this approach would contribute to making the teaching of English more innovative and student-centred.

The methodology used in this study was a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods within an action research paradigm. One action research cycle spanned three months for trialling of the study unit and for collecting data.

A class of thirty-four students from one Form Six class participated in this study, along with their English teacher as a participant observer. Eleven teachers of English from the same school also participated in interviews for further data collection. I took the role of teacher-researcher. In addition to teaching the study unit, I conducted interviews with teachers and students for further data-gathering.

Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data indicated that both participating teachers and students identified that a critical literacy approach to teaching of English as a subject was highly appropriate to use in Tongan classrooms. Teachers identified resources to be a detriment to the successful implementation of a critical literacy approach. While this concern is acknowledged as a long-term one, in the short-term, existing available resources can still be of practical use.

The study was conducted under a bilingual program that might be viewed by researchers on bilingual education as a subtractive bilingual program. Findings related to students' ability in both Tongan and English language signified a very low competence in these two languages. But findings related to bilingual teaching indicated a mismatch between the newly adopted bilingual curriculum in Tonga and Tongan English teachers' perceptions of bilingual education. It was shown in this study that this mismatch stemmed from a lack of teacher understanding of

bilingual education. A couple of pedagogical issues were recommended in order to clear up this misunderstanding.

The report concludes with the researcher's recommendations for the explicit inclusion of critical literacy in the Tonga Language curriculum. Parental involvement and teachers' training are two issues to address in order to achieve a successful implementation of the newly adopted bilingual curriculum where a paradigm shift in teaching is necessary. Recommendations for further research are also included.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section is a brief introduction to Tonga through the researcher's personal experiences as a high-school teacher. Section two will outline the research question. The third section will talk about the rationale for the study and the last section offer a brief outline of the study unit that was trialled.

1.1. A brief introduction to Tonga

Tonga is a developing island, and traditionally a monolingual country. The native vernacular, Tongan language is spoken by almost every Tongan citizen. However, in her quest for economic and educational progress, English language was introduced for communication purposes. English is now instrumental in business, local government and schools and even within Tongan households, claiming its official position alongside the Tongan language. Although both languages are now used widely in domains other than schools, English language is gaining accelerating recognition and prestige. On the other hand, Tongan language is deteriorating in value. Based on personal observation, this language shift can be witnessed in the urban areas owing to a range of factors which will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

The Tonga Ministry of Education has recently become concerned about the status of Tonga language and also students' overall academic attainment. As a result, the Language Syllabus has been revised. A bilingual education program is to be implemented in schools beginning in 2010. Tongan Language will be the mediums of instruction for the first five years of a child's education, that is from Early Childhood Education to Class Three (English Language Syllabus and Teacher Guide Class: 2008). English language will be introduced later in Class Three, in its oral aspect only. In secondary schools, English and Tongan languages are given an equal duration of 50%. The underlying reason behind this time allocation is to gear

towards a maintenance bilingual education program to operate under an additive approach (refer to Chapter 2, section 2.3).

Recalling my experiences in the seven years I taught in three different schools in Tonga, the majority of the students did not like English as a subject nor as a second language. This experience triggered the idea of trialling critical literacy as a teaching strategy in a Tongan bilingual classroom. Therefore, both teachers (Tongan English-teaching) and students are important in the trial of this unit. By recording both parties' responses to the unit, enough evidence will be collected to allow for a description of the impact of critical literacy and a bilingual additive approach as teaching strategies for literature and literacy in this particular bilingual setting.

Collecting data on students' and teachers' responses to the implemented unit was aimed at providing basic evidence for whether it might be a worthwhile strategy for Tongan English teachers to use critical literacy in their teaching approaches. It was thought that findings may potentially help influence policy-makers and curriculum-writers to include critical literacy explicitly in the Tonga Language Syllabus. It might be an avenue to strengthen students' interest in English. Also, students might hopefully develop interest in reading literacy texts with a new critical lens instead of reading texts for comprehension purposes only. In general, my intention was that this study would be an opportunity to produce answers that might contribute to the improvement of education in Tonga.

1.2. Research questions

My personal experiences as an English teacher, teaching English as a subject and as a second language for the past seven years in Tonga, combined with a reading and critique of some literature on critical literacy and bilingual education prompted the following research aim:

To investigate the appropriateness and possible benefits of using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in bilingual classrooms in Tonga.

This study sought to answer the following questions:

- 1. How do participating students react to this teaching strategy (Critical literacy) in terms of their:**
 - a. Motivation?**
 - b. Achievement?**
- 2. What are the participating students' perceptions of critical literacy as a teaching strategy?**
- 3. How do Tongan English-teachers view critical literacy as a teaching strategy in Tongan classrooms?**
 - 3. 1. What are the challenges of using critical literacy as a teaching strategy in Tongan classrooms?**
 - 3. 2. What are the benefits of critical literacy as a teaching strategy in Tongan classrooms?**
- 4. How effective are bilingual additive strategies in supporting a critical literacy approach in Tongan classroom?**

1.3. Rationale for the study

The passion to conduct this study: *Implementing a critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom*, stemmed from personal experiences as a high-school teacher, teaching English in three different Tongan schools for seven years. Tongan students showed a great lack of interest in English as a subject, despite the deadly threat that failing English in national exams means a fail in overall results regardless of gaining excellent grades in other subjects. As a result of students' lack of interest in this subject, their interest in reading in English deteriorated. Sadly, reading became something coerced and supervised by teachers, otherwise it would not be done at all. Reading is a crucial prerequisite to English as a subject and literacy awareness. The Tongan students' situation in relation to learning English as a subject and as a second language raised serious concerns for me. Being a Tongan and having grown up in a developing island nation, in which economic expansion relies heavily on overseas donors, English language is considered a necessity.

The students' negative attitude towards English as a subject may have been caused by a number of possible factors. The system of education has formally demanded that teachers teach students in English. Therefore, the teachers in classrooms demand children to perform in ways that formal education itself has established to suit its own purposes without making much reference to the norms of students (Corson, 2001). Students are mostly speaking in Tongan language and they are forced in the classroom to learn the subject content in English language. According to Corson (2001), there is a "mismatch between the discourse norms of students and the norms favoured in schools and classrooms" (p. 39). As a result, Phillips (1983) reports that "students become incomprehensible to the teacher, cannot be assimilated into the framework within which the teacher operates" (p. 129). Therefore, the gap between the students' home literacy and the school literacy becomes wider (Neuman & Roskos, 1994). Consequently, students become alienated from learning English as a subject in the classroom.

Further to that, based on personal observation, Tongan students are quite reserved when they are in an unfamiliar context. A classroom that requires students to speak a foreign language would be an unfamiliar context to them. Students will tend to remain inactive and unresponsive to interaction with teachers, particularly when teaching is done in English language. The students are afraid of making mistakes for they might be humiliated by their peers, and this is shame, *ma*. In most Tongan classrooms *ma* (shame) can be portrayed in two ways. Students are shy to speak because they may make mistakes and end up being laughed at or students are shy to lead in discussions, in case it is interpreted as conceit. Within the context of Tongan culture, it is not customary for individuals to set themselves above other group members in status or in public achievement, unless approved by the group. However, the act of setting themselves above others without a prior consent from the group "infringes a cultural value" (Corson, 2001, p. 41), and it is considered disrespectful. *Ma* or shame is considered a prevailing cultural concept in most Polynesian cultures including Tongan and the bearer is normally faced with indifferent treatment or rejection if they infringe.

In most circumstances, the concept of *ma* or shame is not acknowledged by teachers in Tongan classrooms. In other words, teachers lack the pedagogies appropriate to handle such a cultural value. Students normally resort to remaining

silent as their personal way of dealing with *ma*. Corson (2011) maintains that these silence or shyness patterns are “derived from different child-rearing, sign systems and cultural values that produce discourse norms inconsistent with the hegemonic practices of formal schooling” (p. 56). This further de-motivates Tongan students from learning English as a subject.

It is also observable that Tongan English teachers in Tonga are facing a continuing battle; the expectations from parents and the school can be exhausting. One is judged by national exam results (in all national exams, a pass in English is compulsory). Because this is normally a criterion for promotion, classroom teaching becomes exam-oriented. When teaching is exam-oriented, it becomes related to Freire’s (1970) banking model, where students sit idly and teachers deposit knowledge from the front of the classrooms. When such a pedagogy is employed in a Tongan classroom, students are normally inactive owing to a misunderstanding of subject content. This further makes them uninterested in English as a subject.

It was hoped in this study that approaching literary texts using critical literacy, with an additive bilingual approach, would help to revive students’ interest in English as a fun subject to learn and not (in accordance with the myth) a difficult subject. Also, I hoped that students would develop an appreciation of reading literary texts, both in English and in Tongan language through the lens of critical literacy.

These concerns resulted in the idea of trialling a critical literacy unit in one of the high schools on the main island, Tongatapu. The school has a population of over one thousand. The study would be conducted in one senior secondary class only for ease of management. The study school would be a co-ed school situated in the capital of Tonga, Nuku’alofa.

1.4. The study unit

The study unit was based on the theme of sport. Sports are a current issue of interest to Tongan students with a variety of underlying discourses and stereotyping. Because of these underlying discourses, fuelling behaviours such as

fighting which causes bitter relationship between two major high schools in Tonga, namely, Tonga College and Tupou College, society (parents) are sometimes reluctant to allow their own children to join sports. Some Tongans view sports as a means of earning money, leading to a secure future as shown by some Tongan Rugby icons. Others think of Sports as dangerous because people can be injured. The teaching of the unit was conducted in both Tongan and English Language. Students were allowed to respond in Tongan to questions asked in English, should they feel at any point uncomfortable to answer back in English.

The new revised Language syllabus in Tonga doesn't make any explicit mention of critical literacy. However, the general aims of the study unit were designed in accordance with the rationale for English stipulated in the Tonga Language Syllabus:

- Increase students' understanding of other cultures and people;
- Expand career and life choices within and beyond Tonga;
- Extend opportunities to use new technologies for work and leisure;
- Expand opportunities to continue education within Tonga or in international destinations (Tonga Language Syllabus and Teacher Guide Glass, 2008, p. 8).

Therefore, it was hoped that after engaging students with this unit they would have the power and authority to construct their own beliefs and views of sports on their own. To be more precise, this unit had the following three inter-connected objectives,

Students should be able to:

- Understand the motivation behind writing the texts, realize that no text is free of bias, the author's perspective is not always the truth and that each text makes them understand sports in a particular way;
- Become active users of information in texts to develop independent perspectives, as opposed to being passive reproducers of the ideas in texts, also to critique and question society's views of sports then draw their own conclusion;
- Appreciate textual engagement through using both Tongan and English language in class as a way of critically assessing values in

contemporary Tongan society in which English language is quite instrumental.

Three texts were chosen because they present crucial, contrasting views on sport. Also, from experience as an English teacher in Tonga, these texts were suitable to the participating students' level of ability.

The three selected texts:

1. A short story "Beginning of the Tournament" by Witi Ihimaera.
2. A newspaper article from Matangi Tonga online, "Tonga's Walter Pupu'a new Light Heavyweight Champ."
3. A poem by English poet, A. E. Housman, "To an Athlete Dying Young."

The study unit was then divided into 13 daily lesson plans. Each lesson had its own objectives which were designed closely to be in keeping with the aims stipulated by the Form Six Pacific Secondary School Certificate Prescription (PSSC) and they were as follow:

- Improve their ability to understand a variety of types of spoken and written English;
- Better express themselves orally and in writing for a variety of communicative purposes;
- Develop skills required for further study;
- Develop their awareness of the nature of English and the variety of its use;
- Interpret, analyse, appreciate and evaluate a range of literary and non-literary texts (2007, p. 4).

The study unit was introduced using a debate. The proposition for the debate was as follow: "*Oku totonu nai ke kau e sipoti he ngaahi silapa a e ako*" (That sports should be included in the schools' curriculum). The debate was conducted in Tongan language. The purpose for doing so was to establish the students' existing opinions on sports using their mother tongue. It was also believed that doing so would build momentum to the teaching of the unit which was conducted in both Tongan and English language.

The three texts were taught one by one. The first one was the short story, then the newspaper article, then the poem. Teaching of the texts was based on three

different categories, lead-in activities, focussing questions and follow-up activities. There were three different formative assessment tests executed after the teaching of each text.

The purpose of the lead-in activity was to lead in students to the teaching of the text's content. The lead-in activities were mostly based on the title of the text. Students were given prediction questions, to guess the content of the text based on their understanding of the title. Lead-in activities also included personal response questions, inviting students to relate the sport's name given in the title to their own community and their own personal experiences. Students were often put into small groups for two to three minutes of discussion before reporting back to the whole class. The lead-in activities were followed by the reading of the text. The longer text was read by the teacher and the students alternately. The shorter text was either read by the teacher or by a volunteer student.

Activities in the category of focussing questions were aimed at the general purpose of the text, different meanings of the text and the structure of the text. Students were expected to comprehend the text, decode the story-line, identify and discuss the different aspects of the text, the language features used by the writer, discuss the purposes of the texts, give personal responses to the texts and ideas created by the writer, detect then discuss ways used by the writer to create meanings in the texts, relate cultural background and context of the text to their own, give reasons or appropriate details from the text to support ideas, dispute author's meaning, work out the different points of views given in each text and show that a text has multiple meanings and identify the partiality in the text. A variety of activities were used in order to arrive at the above realizations. These include whole-class discussion, small-group discussion, individual tasks, paired discussions and homework. The teacher circulated around the class to lend assistance and to check on student progress with activities given.

The follow-up activities were designed to gauge students' knowledge of the text. They ranged from short paragraph writing to advertisement production, role play, and composing a poem to drawing imagery. These tasks were done in class individually, in pairs and in small groups; some were given as homework. Students

were expected to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding gained from the text and also to analyse ways the writers positioned their readers

The final category of activity was comparing and contrasting the three texts studied. The purpose of this task was to evaluate students' knowledge of sports and sports participation. Students were given the chance to compare and contrast the different views on sports and sports participation presented by the three texts studied. Different tasks were given on this basis, such as general discussion, filling in boxes on views of sports presented by the three texts, self-evaluation and writing extension activities. These tasks were done individually, in pairs and in small groups. Students were also reminded of their views at the beginning of the unit from the debate and asked to compare these views with the views they had obtained after studying about sports and sports participation from the three texts studied. A post-intervention test was executed after these activities.

In summary, this chapter has introduced Tonga through the personal experiences of the researcher as an English teacher over the past seven years. Despite the fact that the English language is rapidly gaining popularity in Tongan communities, Tongan students have been observed to lack interest in English as a subject. The reasons for this will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3. The rationale, aim and the focussing questions for the present study were also given. This chapter ended with a detailed discussion of the unit designed for implementation in the process of data collection. Chapter 2 will discuss the literature, relevant research and debates pertaining to the topic of the present study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

I discovered during my postgraduate diploma in literacy journey that critical literacy is an effective teaching approach to use with English language learners in bilingual classrooms. In order to confirm this hypothesis, I was required to search the literature to find out whether my views on critical literacy and bilingual education as a teaching approach and pedagogy were shared by other educators, researchers and theorists as well as to identify other debates that might be relevant to implementing critical literacy as a teaching approach in bilingual Tongan classrooms. This review of literature consists of three main sections:

- The first section discusses literacy and how it is an evolving phenomenon from generation to generation, including different discourses that characterize literacy. It also discusses how English as a subject should incorporate literacy and its multi-faceted dimensions.
- Section two reviews research on critical literacy, discussing its history, meaning and how it is a social action. It also discusses how critical literacy can be implemented in the classrooms as a teaching approach.
- Section three explores the ongoing debate over bilingual education on the basis of the research conducted in this field. It also discusses different theories of bilingual education. This section also provides a discussion of the implications of this research and theory for classroom practices, looking at the extent to which Tonga has adopted a bilingual program.

2.1. Literacy

This section of the literature review discusses the multifaceted dimensions of literacy. It also discusses different discourses encapsulated in the term literacy. A discussion of literacy and English as a school subject is also given, arguing that

teachers teaching English as a subject should consider multi-dimensional literacy when teaching English as a subject.

2.1.1. Literacy as an evolving phenomenon

The traditional characterization of literacy as being able to read and write has often led to a view of literacy simply as a process of decoding or encoding texts so that an individual's performance is appraised against a normative standard and criteria (Kelder, 1996). As a result of such a narrow perception of literacy, certain people are empowered and others disempowered. People who can afford it are privileged at the expense of others (Kelder, 1996).

This traditional idea and meaning of literacy has been contested by recent research and writers in the field of literacy. Literacy has been seen to evolve from generation to generation, time to time, and to differ according to context. According to Rassool (1999), a belief that literacy is being able to read and write situates literacy in the individual person, rather than in a society. Rassool, however, declares that literacy is now more generally regarded as a "social practice that is integrally linked with ideology, culture, knowledge and power" (p. 25). Street (1995) also uses the word "practice" rather than events; "practices are the beliefs that people have about reading and writing when they are involved in the activities" (p. 76). In addition, Rassool (1999) further argues that literacy is perceived to be "organic because it is seen as a cultural activity that involves people in conscious and reflexive action within a variety of situations in everyday life" (p. 25). Janks (2009) further states that "more recently, literacy has been defined as a social practice" (p. 2).

Aligned with these arguments, the work of Graff (1995), Heath (1983, 1988, 1992, cited in Rassool, 1999), Street (1984, 1995), Langer (1990, 19995) and others point to a plurality of literacies or what Street (1995) called "social literacies", those literacy practices that people engage in at home, communities or in the professions, for example, academic literacy. This plurality forms the basis for what Street (1995) calls the New Literacy Studies, an approach that combines the anthropological model with a sociolinguistic framework. Experimental

psychologists have criticised this view for focussing only on sociocultural aspects of literacy, rather than extending the meaning of literacy to include sociological concepts and sociolinguistics as well as historical relations (Rassool, 1999).

Since literacy is a cultural activity involving people within a variety of situations in life, and serving a variety of social, economic, ideological and political purposes, it is multidimensional (Rassool, 1999). Gee (1996) maintains the same argument, claiming that “multiliteracies are produced in a range of context-related situations” (p. 33). As a consequence, the concept of literacy has “lost much of the rigidity and linearity associated with it in the traditional, decontextualised, skills-oriented framework” (p. 34). As a result of this, Rassool (1999) states that literacy can be analysed and theorised in relation to both individuals and broader contextual issues. These refer to social and individual development in relation to complex political, cultural, educational, functional, critical and ideological processes and practices.

2.1.2. Discourses as constituting literacy

Literacy is multifaceted. It is viewed in this thesis as political, social, functional, critical and cultural. In other words, there are discourses that constitute literacy in particular ways. Foucault (as cited in Hall, 2001) defines discourses in the following way.

Discourses are ways of constituting knowledge, together with the social practices, forms of subjective and power relations which inhere in such knowledges and relations between them. Discourses are more than ways of thinking and producing meaning. They constitute the nature of the body, unconscious and conscious mind and emotional life of the subjects they seek to govern. (p. 72)

MacDonell (1986) suggests, “Discourses differ with the kinds of institutions and social practices in which they take shape and the positions of those who speak and those whom they address” (p. 1). These discourses are not always in agreement with each other. In a working place, different voices represent different discourses. Some of these voices are stronger, active and possibly domineering. Others might be quiet and helpless (Rassool, 1999). Domineering voices normally overshadow the silent ones and they gain more power, therefore having the ability of deciding

who can speak and make up what Pecheux (1982) calls the discursive processes through which control over meaning is exercised.

Literacy is then understood as a socially situated practice. It is then underpinned by ideology, culture, knowledge and power and it is based on power (Rassool, 1996). Luke (1996) asserts that the history of literacy education is about power and knowledge. But it is about power not solely in terms of which texts and practices. It is also about who in the modern state will have access to a privileged position in specifying what will count as literacy (p. 30). Luke (1996) further argues that:

Schooling and literacy are not only used to regulate access to material wealth, but also access to legally constitute rights, to cultural and sub-cultural histories, to religious virtue and spiritual rewards, and to actual social networks, gendered desires and identities. (p. 30)

The emphasis in literacy as a social practice is on the “transference of cognitive literacy skills to the process of living in society” (Rassool, 1999, p. 32). More recently, the focus has extended to the uses to which basic literacy knowledges are applied and, accordingly, centres on “what people read, the amount of reading that is done, the purposes and effects of reading” (Edwards, 1997, p. 119). Therefore, in a print-based culture, reading and writing is the vehicle to knowledge. In this case, literacy is valued according to knowledge and skills that are contextual within particular social boundaries. Literacy, as something constructed discursively in different ways in different societies/fields, is always contestable (Gee, 1996).

Literacy as cognitive phenomenon views literacy in a broader sense, which is more than simply decoding words as experimental psychologists would have it described. It is about obtaining and interpreting meanings from the text. If not, students are simply “barking at print”, as Rassool (1996, p. 31) describes it. Instead, cognitive aspects of literacy are concerned mainly with the impact of literacy on intellectual development and, particularly, abstract thinking skills. In other words, the focus is on the development of higher-order reading skills and cognitive processes. It requires understanding of the communicative functions of the texts, including different textual and cultural systems (Rassool, 1999). In this

case, readers and writers are required to bring meaning to the text in terms of their knowledge both of the language system and the socio-cultural context. Stubbs (1980) states that:

In addition to its linguistic characteristics, any writing system is deeply embedded in attitudinal, cultural, economic and technological constraints, and these pressures are particularly powerful in the case of an international language like English.... People speak, listen, read and write in different social situations of for different purposes. (Stubbs, 1980, p. 15)

The reader is then expected to socialise in that type of situation in order to be successful in the meaning-making process. This would involve obtaining the intellectual and conceptual abilities to engage with the text.

Functional literacy is theorised as a set of technical skills necessary in the corporate market in order to boost the economic advancement of a country. Gee (1996) states that, “within this framework, jobs are matched with literacy skills and with economic needs; it becomes intertranslatable with time, work, and money, part of economy” (p. 123). Rassool (1999) associates this view of literacy to discourses about the measurement of societal development.

Functional literacy is also described as “the process and content of learning to read and write, the preparation for work and vocational training, as well as a means of increasing the productivity of the individual” (UNESCO, 1960, quoted in Rassool, 1999, p. 7). Moumou (2205) notes that supporters of functional literacy tend to share an ideological shift towards work-based, work-oriented skills and learning as a means to increase productivity levels, as opposed to basic literacy involving basic decoding of simple written texts and the writing of simple statements within the context of everyday life. Furthermore, functional literacy discourse indicates a relative shift from basic technical skills to more explicit concerns about coping skills and self-help skills within the community. This discourse tends to view literacy as value-free. It is considered to be beneficial and empowering because, once acquired, these skills can be applied to other areas of learning; thus they can increase knowledge and develop thinking (Rasool, 1999). Consequently, individuals can more easily change jobs in the marketplace.

Also, literacy is political and has the potential to contribute to a democratic citizenship as advocated by Fairclough (1992) and Rassool (1999). According to Moumou (2005), “literacy related to democratic citizenship involves having the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for exploring, making informed decisions about and exercising responsibilities and rights in a democratic society” (p. 43). Rassool (1999) maintains that such communication skills as argumentation, formulating, expressing and valuing opinions, understanding bias and omissions, are central elements in learning how to participate effectively in a democratic process. The Kingman Report, published in the UK in 1988 to provide the conceptual framework for English as a subject in the National Curriculum, emphasised the important role that critical literacy plays in the democratic process. The report (1988, p. 7, quoted in Rassool, 1999) stated:

People need expertise in language to be able to participate effectively in a democracy. There is no point in having access to information that you cannot understand, or having the opportunity to propose policies which you cannot formulate. People receive information and misinformation in varying proportions from, amongst others, family and friends, work mates, advertisers, journalists, priests, politicians and pressure groups. A democratic society needs people who have the linguistic abilities which will enable them to discuss, evaluate and make sense of what they are told, as well as to make effective action on the basis of their understanding. The working of a democracy depends on the discriminating use of language on the part of its entire people. (p. 9)

This view of literacy emphasises the integral link between literacy and oracy as well as the importance of being able to read beyond the literal meanings within the text; to engage in social critique. This kind of literacy allows us to take positions in relation to the world (Habermas, 1977).

Since literacy is a social practice, that is, it is implanted in the daily lives of people and serves as a means of cultural transmission and reproduction, it is cultural. Cultural literacies are characterized by religious virtue and spiritual rewards, social networks, gendered desires and identities, and may have high personal value associated with issues of group and self-identity. Cultural literacies defined within the framework of cultural norms relate to the acquisition of “knowledge of selected works of literature and historical information necessary for informed

participation in the political and cultural life of the nation” (McLaren, 1988, p. 213). Therefore, they have high status associated with literary canons and form part of the selective tradition described by Williams (1961) as the process by which certain meanings and practices are emphasised.

In learning literacy as a cultural practice, the individual is involved in exploring the subordinating meanings, values and beliefs that are inherent in dominant discourses and traditional cultural practices. Examples are the maintenance of gender and political hegemonies through religio-cultural practices and beliefs by means of which women’s and minority groups’ access to power is controlled or shut down entirely. Dominant cultural literacy practices can serve to overpower local cultures. Such suppression can be disseminated through texts and dominant institutions.

Literacy as a cultural practice, according to Rassool (1999), also extends to a consideration of the relative importance ascribed to particular types and forms of literacy within culture. These include such examples as religio-cultural literacies, work-place literacies and those related to leisure which provide individuals with the appropriate knowledges in order to function successfully in particular communities in order to become “useful citizens” (Rassool, 1999, p. 50). Rassool (1999) concludes that analyses should consequently include the ways in which cultural meanings are produced and reproduced within and through literacy practices.

2.1.3. Literacy and the subject English

English as a subject has been regarded as an influential political tool used by governments to further encourage particular ideologies. Additionally, English as a subject has been perceived to further complicate the existing discourses in the classrooms. For instance, the choice of language of instruction and text selection in classrooms are examples of such influences. In this case, the education system generally fails to provide students “from subordinated groups in society with knowledge of, and access to the legitimate language” (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 62). Unsurprisingly, “English is seen as the language of power and access” (Janks,

2009, p. 15). Some argue that what is needed is language education that reverses a lot of this, that offers mastery of English, *together with* a critical view of its status as a global language (Granville, 2003). It is therefore suggested in this thesis that to achieve an education that reverses a narrow or disempowering conception of English as a subject, “multiple literacies” as advocated by Gee (1996), Street (1995), Langer (1995), Rassool (1999), Janks, (2009) should be incorporated into English as a subject. English teachers should be aware of, and equip their students with a variety of literacies: functional, cognitive, cultural, political and social while recognising the literacy practices that also characterise their students’ lives.

English as a subject can still explicitly incorporate functional literacy without being adversely affected by negative aspects of the discourse. Functional literacy is closely related to the skills model of English and, among other things, focuses on correctness. Of paramount importance are the correct forms of expression and presentation of self. This discourse is related to the idea of communicative competence in oral discourses. Functional literacy involves the development of different levels of competence.

This includes grammatical competence’ (phonological, lexical and morpho-syntactic abilities), discourse competence (cohesion and coherence within the text), de-coding competence (the essentials of the language code), strategic competence (the metacognitive abilities involved in planning, execution and evaluation of written texts) and sociolinguistic competence (understanding of literacy conventions and cultural background knowledge). (Verhoeven, 1994, p. 9)

Moumou (2005) argues that “a functional curriculum tends to focus on grade criteria, assessment items and levels of achievement. Language development tends to be treated as a serial progression of atomic units” (p. 46). Lankshear and Lawler (1988) view this version of English as underpinned by an ideology aimed at producing passive recipients of skills and providing “docile and effective workers and acquisitive consumers” (in Ball, Kenny and Gardiner, 1990, p. 77). Freire (1972) ruthlessly critiqued the notion of functional literacy as repressive and silencing learners. He supported the active participation of students in social critiques as vital to their learning. He wanted to promote critical thinking amongst students reflecting on their reality with the ultimate aim of converting or

transforming it. Freire (1972) argued that what is important is that the person learning words engages in critical analysis of the socially constructed world in which men exist: reading the word and the world. Gee (1990) contrasted literacy as a social practice, which creates concepts of self-identity and self-definition, to the utilitarian-vocational emphases of functional literacy.

According to Moumou (2005) the critical view of literacy (advocated by Freire, Gee and others) has given rise to the “Radical” model of English. Radical English, as identified by Ball, Kenny and Gardiner, (1990), is based on a critical view of literacy which sees literacy as inherently ideological and as a site for contestation. This model tends to draw on post-structuralist reading traditions (Locke, 2003). It is assertive, class-conscious and political in content. Therefore, “campaigns and struggles in the community become the vehicle for learning social and literacy skills. Students are taught that nothing is natural and sacred about knowledge, which must be questioned and recreated” (Moumou, 2005, p. 47). Radical English has the potential to empower minority groups to resist existing inequalities in structural power and their human consequences. The emphasis is on shared and communal effort, where the existing state of associations is challenged or disputed.

Literacy as cognitive can be connected to the personal growth version of English as a subject. This version, according to Dixon (1975), is embedded in the view that language serves the human need to make sense of and share experience. When experience is shared, the speaker or writer chooses the right words and expressions so as to make his/her experience real to him/herself and others. That, according to Dixon (1975), results in imaginative work which leads to the child’s self-construction of his/her reality. Therefore, the language classroom encourages the acquisition of the linguistic competencies that will allow students to continuously make sense of the world. Locke (2003) argues that the personal growth model encourages “self-realisation, creative exploration and personal integration” (p. 61).

In summary, the discussion of literacy has been expanded from its traditional and narrow view of being able to read and write to being multifaceted. Literacy encapsulates cultural, political, cognitive and social practices. It is categorized by different discourses which are born of a variety of ideologies. Critical literacy is

seen as a vehicle to contest English's hegemonic status and some of its "versions" and will be discussed in the next section.

2.2. Critical Literacy

This section discusses theories of critical literacy. It discusses its origin, its meaning, how critical literacy is regarded as a social action, and critical literacy as a classroom practice.

2.2.1. Critical literacy: Its beginning

Critical literacy is in part derived from the work of Paulo Freire (a Brazilian educator and a social theorist), who taught adult learners that in order to "read the world" they must "read the word". In the process, they must try to engage in a cycle of reflection and action (Luke, 2004; McLaughlin & Devoogd, 2004; Shor, 1999). Critical literacy is also linked to theorists who contest "mainstream" interpretations of texts and the notion that there is a singular or "correct" interpretation of any text" (Literacy Gains, 2009, p. 1).

Social critical theorists such as Freire, according to Brady (1994), are viewed by many educators and social theorists as the most influential source of critical literacy and pedagogy, by virtue of their ability to interrelate theory, ideological commitment and political practice (Freire, 1970, 1972, 1978a, 1985; Freire & Madeco, 1987; Freire & Shor, 1987). Social theorists developed the term "critical literacy" to reflect a concern to dismantle social structures leading to unfairness and disparity. These social critical theorists contend that unequal power relationships are widespread, and those possessing power are the ones who generally choose what truths are to be honoured (Coffey, 2004). Therefore, institutions like schooling and governments sustain these ideologies, thus perpetuating the status quo. Within schools, only particular kinds of knowledge are legitimized, thus excluding the group that are vulnerable from contributing to the process of validating what constitutes knowledge (Coffey, 2008). Beck (2005)

adds that critical educational theory or critical pedagogy applies the principle of critical social theory to the educational arena and takes on the task of examining how schools reproduce inequality and injustice.

Because of the oppressive and unjust relationships produced by traditional forms of schooling, social critical theorists critique the traditional models of education, which typically place the teacher at the front of the classroom possessing and transmitting the knowledge to students who sit idly learning or receiving the information (Freire, 1970). Janks (2009) notes that Freire was the first to challenge the assumptions about literacy as simply teaching students the skills necessary for reading and writing and to insist that we “reflect critically on the process of reading and writing itself” (p. 19).

Street (1984) developed this further when he distinguished between autonomous and ideological views of literacy. Larson (1996) reports that Street’s autonomous models of literacy are based on:

Essay-text form of literacy rooted in Western academic circles and represents a culturally specific model that is masked in claims of universalism. In this autonomous model, school-based concepts of literacy are held as a standard definition of literate competence across contexts. (p. 440)

But in the ideological model, literacy is conceptualised as a critical social practice that makes explicit underlying assumptions and power relations embedded in literacy as a social practice. In other words, “literacy is more than acquiring content but, in addition, locates reading and writing in the social and linguistic practices that give them meaning” (Larson, 1996, p. 441).

In *Pedagogy of the Oppressed and Cultural Action for Freedom (1970)*, Paulo Freire provides an example of how critical literacy is developed in an educational context. Freire describes a traditional type of education as the “banking concept of education” (1970). This model of education is characterized by instruction that turns (students) into containers or receptacles to be filled by the teacher. In these classrooms, Freire (1970) argues that “knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing and the teachers separate themselves as being the possessors of knowledge”

(p. 72). In this role, the teacher does not challenge the students to think authentically or value students' own funds of the knowledge.

In opposition to the banking model, Freire (1970) argues, teachers who recognized the possible value of developing critical literacy do not view their students as vessels to be filled, and instead create experiences that offer students opportunities to actively construct knowledge (Coffey, 2008). Therefore, in this view, schools should encourage students to gain their sense of themselves as agents who can act to transform the social situations in which they find themselves. This is the process of reading the word and the world critically. Freire argues that literacy becomes a means of breaking the culture of silence of the poor and dispossessed. For Freire, "liberation is praxis, the action and reflection of men upon their world in order to transform it" (1970, p. 52).

Both reflection and actions according to Freire (1972) require words:

To exist, humanly, is to name the world to change it. Once named, the world in its turn reappears to its namers as a problem and requires of them a new naming. Men are not built in silence, but in word, in work, in action-reflection....It is in speaking their word that men transform the world by naming it, dialogue imposes itself as the way in which men achieve significance as men. (p. 61)

In this model, schools become spaces where students interrogate social conditions through dialogue about issues significant to their lives. In Freire's (1972) own words:

Teachers engaged in critical literacy serve less as instructors and more as facilitators of conversations that question traditional power relations. Knowledge emerges only through invention and re-invention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry human beings pursue in the world, with the world and with each other. (p. 72)

However, Brady (1994) challenges the foundation of critical literacy based on Freirean theory. Examining Freire's underlying theory, Brady (1994), doesn't intend to discredit but to extend it, in the light of some of the theoretical gains that have been made by feminists and a number of other theorists in recent years. Consequently, Brady (1994) argues that Freire "ignored the various forms of

domination and social struggles being addressed by feminists, minorities, ecologists, and other social actors” (p. 143). To have a holistic critical literacy approach, McLaren cited in Brady (1994) notes:

The critical theory to which Freire’s work speaks must be extended in order to allow women as well as minorities to emerge as critical, social actors on the stage of human transformation and struggle. Furthermore, the conceptual frame-works that purport to uncover and transform the constructions of subjectivity need to be purged of their phallocentrism, Eurocentrism and masculinist ideologies. (p. 133)

Instead of situating Freire’s work in a politics that provides the basis for transformative pedagogical practices, “a number of Freirean-based educators have largely displaced the political aspect of Freire’s work for the safety of a list of prescriptive rules that allegedly add up to a model of critical pedagogy” (Brady, 1994, p. 144).

The foundation for critical literacy was laid by the social critical theorists. Later research and inquiry conducted in the field have expanded the meaning and practices of critical literacy as reported by Janks (2009). In Australia, different researchers and educators such as Luke (1992), Gilbert (1989), Davis (1989), Kamler and her colleagues (1994), O’Brien, (1994), Comber and Simpson (1995), have used critical literacy in various ways, including literacy practices in schools where children explore the relationship between language, gender and the classroom, constructions of gender in young children’s writing and deconstruct everyday texts such as Mother’s Day cards and so forth. This has led to the use of critical literacy as a teaching pedagogy.

Janks (2009) also notes that in Western Australia, Chalkface Press was established and was publishing critical literacy materials for use in high-school English classrooms. The early workbooks used post-structuralist theory to deconstruct literacy texts (Mellor, Patterson & O’Neill, 1987; 1991; Moon, 1992). A decade later, Fremantle Press published workbooks using post-colonial theory to help students rethink texts to do with ethnicity, gender and aboriginality and to understand the positioning of texts dealing with the “invasion” and settlement of Australia (Kenworthy & Kenworthy, 1997; Martino, 1997).

From early 1990s, Ray Misson and Wendy Morgan were working with high-school English students, working with both literary and non-literary, popular culture texts (Mission & Morgan, 2006). Their ideas on working critically with the aesthetic, developed since the 90s, appeared as a book in 2006 (Misson & Morgan, 2006). Morgan's classroom work on textural representations of Ned Kelly, an Australian folk hero (1992, 1994) is a superb example of the kind of work that can be done with non-literary texts. The multiplicity of accounts (of the famous outlaw) was designed to de-stabilise all the accounts and to show that all textualisations are representation of truth. Janks (2009) notes that:

The richness of all this classroom-based research combined with materials that made these new pedagogies available to both primary and high school teachers coincided with strong equity policies in Australian education at the time. More than anywhere else, these new ideas took root in classrooms, such that by the end of the 1990s critical literacy was firmly established in the English curriculum in Australia. (p. 22)

Critical literacy was then developed later in other countries such as the United State of America and Britain and it is now found (unevenly) in all Anglophonic educational settings.

2.2.2. Critical literacy: It's meaning

Critical literacy is an approach to reading, examining and assessing reality as constructed through the engagement with a text or a form of media. Misson and Morgan (2006) extend this meaning by adding that despite the fact that critical literacy is "pre-eminently pedagogy for reading, it is not intending to divorce the writing curriculum from reading curriculum" (p. xvii). Additionally, Luke and Freebody (1997) point out that:

Although critical literacy does not stand for a unitary approach, it marks out a coalition of educational interests committed to engaging with the possibilities that the technologies of writing and other modes of inscription offer for social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement. (p. 1)

Ciardiello (2004) suggests that critical literacy is a “set of practices and civic competencies that help the learner develop a critical awareness that texts represent particular points of view while often silencing others” (p. 138). Comber (2001) argues that critical literacy is the use of language in powerful ways to get things done in the world, enhance life in school, and to question privilege and justice.

McLaren and Lankshear (1993) further argue, that “critical literacy is a political commitment to democratic and emancipating forms of education” (p. 380), one that is fundamental to Dewey’s (1996) view of democracy, social justice, and what it means to be literate (Gregory & Cahill, 2009). Morgan (1997) explains:

That critical literacy investigates how forms of knowledge, and the power they bring, are created in language and taken up by those who use such texts. It asks how language might be put to different, more equitable uses and how texts might be re-created in a way that would tell a different story. (p. 1)

Shannon (1995) states further that critical literacy is literacy that brings with it the freedom to explore and act on our past, present and future. Hood (1998) adds that “critical literacy is a concept which has been adopted relatively recently in second language teaching in Australia. Hood continues to say that the purpose stemmed from “concerns of many ESL practitioners for social justice and equity of access for their students” (p. 11).

The critical literacy perspective that is assumed in this thesis shares commonalities with these and presupposes a sociological perspective of reading, writing and speaking in which “teaching and learning to read is about consequences” (Luke & Freebody, 1997, pp. 208-209). Critical literacy advocates critical reading. Gilbert (1993) argues, that through the process of reading critically using critical literacy approaches, readers will be able to “address the practices by which words enact social meaning, and the practices by which we, as social subjects, make meaning” (p. 324).

The development of critical literacy encourages students to question issues of power explicitly, disparities within social contexts related to socio-economic status, race, class, gender, sexual orientation (Coffey, 2008). Becoming critically literate, according to Coffey (2008), means that students have mastered the ability to read

and critique messages in texts in order to better understand whose knowledge is being privileged. Essentially, teachers using critical pedagogy demonstrate how to evaluate the function that language plays in the social construction of the self (Hood, 1996). Knobel and Lankshear (2002) suggest that when students become critically literate, they can examine the parts they play in the world and how they make sense of experiences. Halliday (1996) continues by stating:

To be literate is not only to participate in the discourse of an information society, it is also to resist it, to defend oneself and others against the anti-semantic, anti-democratic ‘technologizing’ of that discourse. And here more than ever one needs to understand how language works, how the grammar (in its systematic sense of lexico-grammar) interacts with the technology to achieve these effects. If you hope to engage successfully in the discursive contest, you have first to learn how to engage with the discourse. (p. 357)

Facilitating the development of critical literacy promotes the examination and reform of social situations and exposes students to the biases and hidden agendas within texts (Simpson, 1996). Thus, in order to become critically literate, one must learn to “read” in a reflective manner, “Read” in this sense means to give meaning to messages of all kinds, instead of just looking at the words on a page and comprehending the meaning of those words (Coffey, 2004). Instruction that encourages critical literacy development, according to Coffey (2004), comes as a response to the marginalization of a growing number of American students who are not members of the culturally dominant group of white, middle-class youths. Furthermore, according to Blackledge (2000), critical literacy emphasizes the potential of written language to be a tool for people to analyze the division of power and resources in their society and transform discriminatory structures.

2.2.3. Critical literacy: A social action

Individual identities are created by socially situated and constructed practices such as reading, writing and speaking (Gregory & Cahill, 2009). Participating in these social practices requires language and these practices are entrenched in discourse communities shaped by contradictory cultural knowledge bases, practices and values (Gee, 1992). However, for some individuals, getting access to and to having

the knowledge of the codes of the culture of power (Delpit, 1995) often, according to Gregory and Cahill (2009), leaves them disqualified and/or de-legitimized and uninformed of their own historicity, that is, the “understanding of how one’s immersion in a particular culture and subcultures at a particular moment in time affects one’s world view” (Hinchey, 2001, p. 2). Therefore, Gregory and Cahill (2009) argue, literacy acts as a cultural tool that provides us with capital, where capital is seen as cultural and social ways of being and doing that are represented and embodied in individuals as a habit or part of a socially recognized credential (Bourdieu, 1991). Critical literacy, as part of our set of cultural tools, provides us with the means for reflection and action as we engage in examining our social worlds (Gregory & Cahill, 2009).

Critical literacy education invites the teacher to serve as the facilitator of social change. Kretovics (1985) suggests that in addition to teaching students functional skills, the teacher must also provide “conceptual tools necessary to critique and engage society along with its inequalities and injustices” (p. 51). Furthermore, with the activist potential in critical literacy education, students learn how to envision a world in which all people have access and opportunity (Delpit, 1992).

Gilbert (1993) contends that to work with a commitment to critical literacy, therefore, will inevitably necessitate an engagement with the politics of language practices, and gives examples from various authors who have demonstrated what this might reveal in terms of group oppression through ethnicity, socio-economic status, or gender. In addition, Gilbert (1993) states:

That exploring the social context of language practices is inevitably to explore the networks of power that are sustained and brought into existence by such practices. It is to explore how language practices are used in powerful institutions like the state, the church, and how these practices contribute to the maintenance of inequalities and injustices. (p. 325)

Therefore, for teachers, it means engaging with issues that are often controversial, certainly contemporary, and perhaps quite volatile or unstable. Brown (1999) argues that a critical approach needs to be a regular part of the classroom practice. But then, Brown acknowledges that some learners may be limited in their ability to

develop critical literacy due to their cultural backgrounds. Aligned with Brown's perspective, Wallace (1995), suggests that, "critical literacy may be an issue when students come from cultural traditions where resisting either the text or the teacher is considered highly inappropriate" (p. 341). Atkinson (1997) cautions against the uncritical adoption of a culturally based concept for students whose cultural experiences are perhaps diametrically opposed to the modes of thought and education endorsed by a critical approach. But then Wallace (1995) suggests that we look at the issue of "submissive or critical readings not as a polarised divide, but rather as a layered and complex set of responses where different kinds of responses can co-exist for the one reader" (p. 347). In other words, Wallace (1995) argues that it is not a question of students finding the right critical reading of a text but of students seeing the potential for their own multiple readings of the text.

This researcher would argue that critical literacy contradicts certain core values of the Tongan culture such as *Faka'apa'a* (respect), which prescribes absolute respect of elders, disallowing younger citizens to question elders or authority. Failing to abide is considered a cultural abuse and one must pay the ultimate social cost of societal ridicule and shame. Normally, this social cost is not paid individually; parents and the whole extended family are indirectly compelled by society to bear the shame, an emotionally and spiritually distressful and disgraceful charge.

However, in pursuing this project, I have chosen to argue for the appropriateness of critical literacy's place in the Tonga English curriculum and for its use as a teaching approach in Tongan classrooms. The Tongan government is undergoing political reform, heading towards a democratic system which will be embedded this year (November, 2010). There are possibilities for discursive and ideological shifts, which may complicate the already embedded discourses and ideologies which are actively instrumental in Tongan society. Critical skills are a necessity, and acquiring them may permit Tongan citizens to assess, deconstruct then construct (Janks, 2009) these underlying traditional cultural discourses as well as popular culture discourses and multi-media discourses. Critical literacy is a vehicle for this assessment, deconstruction and re-construction of values, discourse and

ideologies in a Tongan society which is vulnerable to waves of change and their potential disastrous effects.

Therefore, when students learn to use the tools of critical literacy, they can expose, discuss, and attempt to solve social injustices within their own lives. When engaging in the development of critical literacy skills, students learn to acknowledge the unfair privileging of certain dominant discourses with which society engages. Students participate in conversation about the injustices of privileging one group or ideal over another because of skin colour or socio-economic status, and teachers can help to empower students by providing opportunities for them to find their voices. Teachers engaged in methods that support critical literacy can, as Delpit (1992) suggests, “let our students know they can resist a system that seeks to limit them to the bottom rung of the social and economic ladder” (p. 301).

By developing lessons based on dialogue with students about their needs and interests, educators can invite students to take part in a larger community discourse that attempts to solve problems and create alternatives to oppressive situations and connect the curriculum to the outside world in a tangible way (Christensen, 2000). By participating in social action projects or creating a public discourse, students may see the relationship between curriculum and the world beyond the walls of the school. Essentially, students learn to restructure their knowledge base and challenge accepted societal norms in order to transform all institutions that oppress.

2.2.4. Critical literacy: In the classroom

Critical literacy as a teaching approach is used to teach English texts critically. Through this approach teachers may unravel different levels of power constructed by an author of a book to allow students to critically assess these different levels of power for themselves. Within the frame of critical literacy, it is important to look at texts, such as novels, magazine articles, short stories, films etc, through a lens that challenges societal norms (Coffey, 2008). Students can evaluate whose knowledge is being privileged in texts and deconstruct their messages and

meanings. As readers, students must also evaluate the social constructions of a text and question the factors that may have influenced the author to create the text in a specific manner. Moreover, using critical literacy, teachers encourage students to look at texts from other perspectives and re-create them from the standpoint of marginalized groups in order to analyze the power relations and social inequities promoted by the texts. Janks (2009) notes that a critical teacher is, in addition, interested in what all kind of texts (written, visual and oral) do to readers, viewers or listeners and whose interests are served by what these texts do. As Molden (2007) succinctly states:

Books or literary texts are written with an intended purpose in the author's mind. It may be to inform, explain, illustrate, entertain, explore, persuade or a combination of thereof. With this purpose in mind the author will make the decisions on what needs to be included in the writing, such as contexts, language, and structure. The writer then wants us to see the story from his/her point of view, so the story is angle to manipulate the reader into that point of view. (p. 50)

Implementing a critical literacy practice entails possible transformation to occur within the social contexts and environments that students interact with (Gregory & Cahill, 2009), through exposing them to the hidden agendas, power relations and biases of texts (Simpson, 1996; Luke, 2000). MacLaughlin and DeVoogd (2004, cited in Gregory & Cahill, 2009), state that there are four understandings regarding the relationship between the reader and the author that underpin critical literacy.

These are a focus on issue of power that promotes reflection, transformation, and action; a focus on the problem and its complexity; the use of techniques that are dynamic and adapt to the contexts in which they are used; and an examination of multiple perspectives. (p. 10)

Each of these provides classroom instruction opportunities independently or separately, which eventually lead to students experiencing texts with a critical lens. Therefore, the use of critical literacy helps pull the power away from the author and makes it an equal relationship between the author and the reader. Since critical literacy focuses on issues of power, promoting reflection, transformation, and action, it encourages readers to be active participants in the reading process: to question, to dispute, and to examine power relations. Also, it encourages the

search for meanings beneath the surface instead of just believing what is written down. In doing so it involves asking questions such as:

- What version of reality am I given here?
- Whose perspective on the world is this?
- What other knowledge and perspectives are there that I am not given, and if I know them, how does this alter my reading of this text?
- What viewing angle or reading position am I being given by this text, and what kind of reader am I assumed and encouraged to be? What responses am I being coached to make? (Morgan, 1996, p. 3).

These are examples of questions that should be asked in order to allow for critical assessment of a text in order to identify the writer's partiality. Every book can be said to be partial. This is because, "first, they represent a version of reality, that version is necessarily incomplete; and second, because they promote that version, they take its part" (Morgan, 1996, p. 4).

However, Janks (2009) cautions that critical literacy is dependent on an ability to decode the text and to engage with its meaning. Moreover, Gee (1990) further argues that critical reading is only possible if one is able to stand outside the codes of the text, the print code, the semantic and structuring codes, and the pragmatic code (Luke & Freebody, 1997). This can only be achieved if one has more than one discourse, more than one combination of "saying writing-doing-being-valuing-believing" (Gee, 1990, p. 142), more than one way of thinking about the world. Because texts are instantiations or realisations of discourses, it is easier to see them otherwise from the standpoint of a different discourse (Janks, 2009).

Critical literacy also allows the analysis to go further than reading critically, to acknowledge that all texts occur in social contexts that are variable, relative and able to be questioned. In other words, a text is made in a particular society at a particular time. This influences the "form it takes and the ideas it presents" (Morgan, 1997, p. 39). Therefore, analysis of language is central to this because language in some form is central to all human communication. Berlin (1993) posits that critical literacy denies the inherent distinction between representational texts and creative texts, arguing that language in all its uses structures rather than reflects the signified. Berlin (1993) continues to argue that:

Language thus never acts as a simple referent to an extra linguistically verifiable thing-in-itself. It serves instead as a terministic screen that forms and shapes experiences. Since all language use is inherently interpretive, all texts are involved in invention, in the process of meaning formation..... Language is a social construction that shapes the subject as much as the subject shapes it. Since language is a product of social relations, it is inevitably involved in power and politics. Language thus constitutes an arena in which ideological battles are constantly fought. (p. 258)

In a broader sense, language that is particular to a group of people can be called a discourse, which can be defined as “...characteristic ways in which a group of people talk and write, so that they confirm their shared views of the world and give themselves and others a role of identity” (Morgan, 1996, p. 4). In addition, discourse defined in terms of power/knowledge constitutes the means by which power is exercised through relations of dominance established within social terrain (Foucault, 1980).

As a result of this, discourse creates ideologies which are shared understandings of what is viewed as important. Locke (2004) defines an ideology as “....an elaborate story told about the ideal conduct of some aspect of human affairs” (p. 33). Therefore, choosing to use one text is limited if it is removed from the wider discourses from which it emerges and draws its power. In this respect, “we need to look at discourses rather than a single text if we want to understand more about the way ideologies do their work” (Morgan, 1996, p. 4).

Janks (2009) argues that “different realizations of critical literacy operate with different conceptualisations of the relationship between language and power by foregrounding one or other of *domination*, *access*, *diversity* or *design*” (p. 32). Janks (2009) views these orientations of critical literacy as interdependent. Through the *domination* perspective, educators examine how positions of social and political domination are maintained through the use of language and signs. From an *access* perspective, educators provide access to language and language structures of the dominant group while maintaining the integrity of non-dominant language and structure use. This is an approach that is advocated by Delpit (1995) who asserts that it is the responsibility of the teacher to accept students while at the same time taking responsibility for teaching them; she advocates especially

strongly that access to the codes of power (i.e. the rules for participating in power) be provided.

Those educators working from a *diversity* perspective give attention to the way that language is used to create or legitimize social identities. Through the use of a *design* perspective, the need for selecting from signs and semiotic systems is emphasized. Here the reproduction of social life as produced by semiotic systems (e.g. language) is examined as representations of reality, the building of identity (i.e. social, communal, and individual), as well as the means by which we act and relate socially (Fairclough, 1989, 2003). Gregory and Cahill (2009) argue that while these perspectives, or orientations, may guide an educator, it is necessary that all four of these perspectives must work together to “provide balance to one another to achieve the social justice goal of critical literacy” (p. 9). Janks (2009) warns that any one of *domination*, *diversity*, *access* or *design* without others creates a problematic imbalance. Therefore, reconstruction needs deconstruction in order to understand the “manifold relationships of force that take shape and come into play in the machinery of production” (Foucault, 1978, p. 94). Without this integration of effort, the practising of critical literacy pedagogies is subject to challenges based upon bias or subjectivity (Freebody, 2008). Therefore, Janks (2009) strongly recommends that:

We need to weave them together in complex moves from deconstruction to reconstruction to deconstruction, from access to deconstruction to redesign, from diversity to deconstruction to new forms of access. These different moves need to control and balance one another. (p. 38)

To pursue the kind of classrooms advocated by Janks (2009), Gregory and Cahill (2009) and Morgan (1997) suggests intertextuality, or exposing students to more than one text under one theme in the classrooms. Gregory and Cahill (2009) call this multiple perspectives. MacLaughlin (2001) suggests that conveying ideas from a multiplicity of perspectives challenges all involved in the education process to expand their thinking and to discover diverse points of view, beliefs, positions and understandings. Coffey (2008) maintains that, incorporating multiple texts based on similar literacy themes offers students the opportunity to critique the values or voices that are being promoted. For Mellor and Patterson (1996), this

practice challenges the idea that meaning is fixed and encourages students to use evidence to support their interpretation. Students can evaluate the social, cultural and historical frameworks of texts by analyzing differing perspectives on a single person or event.

But to do this within a classroom, Gregory and Cahill (2009) contend, intertextuality or using of multiplicity perspectives requires authenticity. This simply means that classrooms that engage in critical literacy must be equipped with a wide variety of materials or resources. These resources or materials must be an authentic representation of voices related to the problem or issue being considered.

Because critical literacy theory focuses on the relationships between language, power, social practice, and access to social goods and services, there are numerous methods of engaging students in becoming critical members of their society. Behrman (2006) explains that the development of critical literacy encourages social justice and exploration of language and literature in many forms. The examination of power relationships that are found in language and literature shows students that language is never neutral. Because critical literacy looks different in every classroom, based on the subject matter and the population of students, there is no formula for how teachers engage students in mastery of critical literacy.

However, there are some practices that appear in lessons more commonly. Behrman (2006) maintains that developing a “pedagogy that includes critical literacy is an organic process that continually needs to be revised and refined” (p. 490). Behrman (2006) suggests that the most commonly used practices that support critical literacy include: reading supplementary texts, reading multiple texts (as advocated by Morgan, 1997; Gregory & Cahill, 2009; Coffey, 2008; Mellor & Paterson, 1996 and McLaughlin, 2001), reading from a resistant perspective, producing counter-texts, having students conduct research about topics of personal interest, and challenging students to take social action.

Because of its flexible nature, a critical literacy approach can be applied to many teaching contexts, including teaching English for English language Learners (ELLs), and is a valuable innovative approach to use by Teachers of English to

Speakers of Other Language (TESOL). According to Daniel and Lenski (2007) “critical literacy is a novel approach to schooling for ELLs because it is about relative truth and social justice and having the freedom to disagree with the teacher and with society” (p. 32). Hood (1998) further argues that through the process of teaching a second language, students reflect on sensitive issues such as cross-cultural communication and the potential for cultural values to be imposed. In this case, students with English as a second language are empowered to understand social conventions regarding genres and registers, and cultural perspectives. Daniel and Lenski (2007) contend that:

When approaching texts from a critical literacy stance, ELLs learn that they should use their personal lenses to examine and decide what is right and wrong. Engaging ELLs in provocative dialogues sets up a classroom society that is not centred on the majority culture’s viewpoint, nor is it centred on the interpretation of words from an author’s perspective or the teacher’s stance. (p. 33)

In summary, this section has discussed the origins of critical literacy, its meaning, how it is a social action. It had also discussed critical literacy and how it might be used as a classroom practice. Despite the argument that critical literacy would disturb Tongan cultural issues and values, it is argued here that students need to be allowed to explore culturally sensitive issues and be able to make decisions for themselves.

2.3. Bilingual Education

“Bilingualism is to intelligence as food to human fitness” (Baker, 1988, p. 1).

This section will discuss a range of issues concerning bilingualism. It is divided into the following sub-categories: the effects of bilingualism on cognition and performance, bilingualism and the brain (SUP/CUP), the thresholds hypothesis, the interdependence hypothesis and conversational language skills and academic language skills (BICS, CALP). This section ends with a discussion of the implications of bilingualism for classroom practice.

2.3.1. Issues in bilingual education

Bilingualism is a very broad and complex phenomenon to define. As Baker (1988) states:

Between the notions of complete bilingualism and complete monolingualism there are not only different shades of grey, but different shades of a great range of different colours. Deciding which colours must be included in definition and measurement and the strengths of the shades of colour is a near impossible task. There are no definite cut-off points to distinguish the bilingual from the monolingual. (p. 2)

It is no wonder that there has been a lot of debate over bilingualism's effects on children. The early research on bilingual education, cited in Bialystok (2001), for example, Stoddard and Wellman (1934), Saer (1923), Thompson (1952), Barke and Perry-Williams (1938), Harris (1948), Brunner, (1929) argued against bilingual education. According to May, Hill and Tiakiwai (2004), this research, conducted primarily between 1920-1960, "claimed to demonstrate that bilingualism was largely a negative phenomenon" (p. 19). The common ground for these early researchers' argument was that "proficiency in two languages retarded cognitive growth and only led to mental confusion" (Lee, 1985, p. 501). Also, these early studies based on academic retardation and low IQ scores achieved by bilingual students, suggested that there were negative effects from bilingualism on cognitive development.

Furthermore, Macamara (1966), Brake and Perry-Williams (1948); Carrow (1957, cited in Lee 1996) claimed that bilingual children's

Lower verbal intelligence was a result of a "balance effect" whereby proficiency in a second language necessitated a loss in proficiency in one's first language. Thus, it was proposed that bilinguals never reached comparable levels of linguistic proficiency as did monolinguals. (p. 501)

Also, these studies illustrated that bilingual children, in comparison to monolinguals, demonstrated weaker verbal abilities, including poorer vocabularies.

This was clearly indicated by deficiencies in bilinguals' development of non-verbal abilities, such as mathematic competence.

These studies and views on bilingual education vividly show pitfalls in empirical methods. Hakuta and Garcia (1989) report "much of these early works on bilingualism in children can be interpreted within the context of the social history surrounding the debate over the changing nature of immigration in the early 1990's" (p. 375). The basic data to be explained were bilingual children's poor performance on various standardized tests of intelligence.

From the empiricist point of view, the bilingualism of the children was thought to be a mental burden that caused lower levels of intelligence (Hakuta & Garcia, 1989). Cummins (1984) suggested that a principal reason for the findings of these early negative studies, aside from their methodological limitations, was that "the minority language children in these studies often failed to develop a sufficiently high level of proficiency in the school language [L2] to benefit fully from their educational experiences" (p. 333).

Parallel to Cummins' argument, Zelasko (2009) also disputes the debate against bilingual education by stating that:

Much of the debate over bilingual education stems from an unrealistic expectation of immediate results. Many people expect English learner students to accomplish a task that they themselves have been unable to do; become fully proficient in a new language. Furthermore, they expect these students to do so while learning academic subjects like mathematics, science, and social studies at the same rate as their English speaking peers in language they do not yet fully command. (p. 6)

In affirming the benefit of bilingual education, Peal and Lambert (1962) concluded in their study that the bilingual is at an advantage because the bilingual's two language systems seem to ensure "a mental flexibility, superiority in concept formation, and a more diversified set of mental abilities, in the sense that the patterns of abilities developed by bilinguals were more heterogeneous" (p. 20). As a result, Franken, May and McComish (2008) report that "research has consistently confirmed that bilingual students in additive bilingual contexts exhibit clear and consistent advantages over monolingual speakers in the following four

areas; cognitive flexibility, metalinguistic awareness, communication sensitivity and field independence” (pp. 19-20).

Two studies conducted in Tonga on bilingual education and mathematics came up with a similar conclusion in favour of bilingualism. Fasi (1999) investigated the language in which Tonga bilinguals learn mathematics and the relationship between the language of instruction and students’ achievement in mathematics. This study found that students with high mathematical ability are often disadvantaged by the use of the English language both for instruction as well as assessment. The study also showed how the language of assessment plays a significant role in the failure, poor results and inaccurate classifications of some mathematically able students. When the effect of the language is removed, the true ability of the student is revealed and any selection based on this result would be fairer, more valid and more reliable than one based on language-biased assessment (Fasi, 1999).

Manu (2005) from his investigation on “*Language switching and mathematical understanding in Tongan classrooms*”, concluded that “if Tongan-type bilingual students are allowed the flexibility of language switching, and thus access to appropriate terms and images in either language, it is clear that these students can be declared in no way mathematically disadvantaged from their monolingual counterparts” (p. 68).

2.3.2. The effects of bilingualism on cognition and performance

The early studies conducted mainly before 1960 concluded that bilingualism caused mental retardation for young children. However, this negative perspective was challenged by the study undertaken by Peal and Lambert in 1962 which was a milestone for later studies on bilingualism because of three reasons (Baker, 1988):

First, it was methodologically more advanced than earlier studies. Second, its finding that bilingualism may have positive outcomes has been widely quoted to support bilingual policies in a variety of institutional and geographical settings. Lastly, it laid foundation for further research to seek positive consequences of bilingualism in terms of a wider view of cognitive abilities. (p. 16)

Despite its critics, Peal and Lambert's research "remains a watershed study" (May et al., 2004, p. 24). They concluded that the bilingual was at an advantage because the bilingual's two language systems ensure "mental flexibility, superiority in concept formation, and a more diversified set of mental abilities, in the sense that the patterns of abilities developed by bilinguals were more heterogeneous" (Peal & Lambert, 1962, p. 20).

Another factor which is positively affected by bilingualism is the bilingual's metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic abilities were examined in terms of subcategories of linguistic competence in respect of word awareness, syntax and phonology (Bialystok, 2001). A range of research (cited in Bialystok 2001) has been conducted in this regard: for instance, Leopold (1961), Bialystok (1986) and Ben-Zeev (1977) on word awareness; Galambos and Hauta (1988), Balombos and Goldin-Meadow (1990), Gathercole and Montes (1997) on syntactic awareness; Rubin and Turner (1989), Bruck and Genesse (1995), Campbell and Sais (1995) on phonological awareness (Bialystok, 2001).

These studies, according to May et al, (2004), used bilingual and monolingual students, revealing advantages of bilingual children in certain aspects:

These are counting words in sentences, symbol substitution, the sun-moon problem, using novel names in sentences, the word-referent problem (giraffe), judging grammaticality of anomalous sentences, and phoneme segmentation. The following tasks did not produce a bilingual advantage; word counts in strings, describing attributes of words, determining ambiguity, explaining grammatical errors, judging grammaticality of incorrect sentences, understanding count-mass errors noun distinction and phoneme substitution. (p. 32)

In general, Bialystok (2001) reports that these studies indicated that bilingual children do not have superior knowledge over monolingual children but the "benefit is traced back to a specific cognitive process that develops more readily in bilingual children. This process, control of attention, is central to certain metalinguistic problems, and it is in solving these problems that bilingual children excel" (p. 180). Hamers and Blanc (2000) continue to support this notion by stating that "bilingual children reach a deeper level of information processing, which leads to a greater metalinguistic awareness and a greater degree of verbal

creativity” (p. 89). In addition, Mohanty and Perregaux, (1997) conclude that bilingual children probably develop special reflective skills which generalise to other metacognitive processes. Hamers and Blanc (2000) posit that “developing these skills enables the child to exercise a greater control over his cognitive functions and use them in more effective ways; he will therefore improve his performance in a variety of academic tasks” (p. 91). The authors assume that, “because of their [bilingual children’s] superior metalinguistic skills and greater linguistic sensitivity, bilinguals are better learners” (p. 91).

Communicative sensitivity is another area in which bilingual children are believed to outperform monolinguals. In this case, bilinguals need to be aware of which language to speak in which situation. They need constantly to monitor the appropriate language in which to respond or in which to initiate a conversation (Baker, 2001). They also have to pick up clues and cues about when to switch languages. Other research, such as Baker and Prys-Jones (1998), has found that bilinguals are more responsive to hints and clues given in the experimental situation. That is because bilinguals seem more sensitive in an experimental situation, and correct their errors faster compared to monolinguals (Baker, 2001).

In the dimension of field dependence and independence, research has proved in favour of bilinguals. This simply means that some people tend to view in wholes, others in parts, the latter being associated with an analytical style (Franken et al., 2008). So, Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough and Karp (1962) found that as children grow to maturity, they become more field independent. Witkin and his co-workers regarded it as a general ability to be aware of visual context which is related to problem-solving ability and ease of restricting cognitive. Then Duncan and De Avila (1979) confirmed this notion from their studies using an Embedded Figures Test, concluding that proficient bilinguals might have advantages in cognitive and in analytical functioning (Franken et al., 2008).

Another important cognitive aspect is divergent thinking. Divergent thinking according to Baker (1988) is “a more creative, imaginative, open-ended and free-thinking skill. Instead of finding one correct answer the pupil is given a set time to produce a variety of answers, most of which are likely to be valid answers” (p. 23).

Most research comparing bilinguals' and monolinguals' divergent thinking has found "that bilinguals are superior to monolinguals on divergent thinking tests" (May et al., p. 25).

However, Cummins (1977) found that balanced bilinguals, "the degree to which proficiency in both languages is comparable" (May et al., 2004, p. 12), were superior to a "matched" non-balanced bilingual group on the fluency and flexibility scales of verbal divergence, and marginally on originality. The matched monolingual group obtained similar scores to the balanced bilingual group on verbal fluency and flexibility but scored substantially higher than the non-balanced group. From this Cummins proposed that there might be a "thresholds level of linguist competence that a bilingual child must attain in order to avoid cognitive deficits and allow the potential benefits of becoming bilingual to influence cognitive growth" (May et al., p. 25).

2.3.3. Bilingualism and the brain (SUP/CUP)

Despite the cognitive advantages of bilingualism, controversy and misconception persisted. One of the major reasons for this continuing controversy and misconception has been the basic misunderstanding about how the brain stores languages. The misunderstanding is "still widely held by parents, teachers, and policy-makers, is that bilingualism may result in 'cognitive overload' for the child" (May et al., p. 37). As a result of this misunderstanding, parents think that bilingual education is educationally, socially and academically harmful.

This misconception derives from a model of the mind known as Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP). The SUP model views the mind as having two languages stored separately within it like two balloons. In this view, the two language compartments are separated and they also have limited storage capacity. The two languages also seem to work against each other. When some new data in one language is added to the scales, this causes an imbalance on the other side, and hence loss of some of the other language (Baker & Hornburgar, 2001). This view of the brain underpinned much of the early research on bilingualism.

However, the SUP model was not supported by either research or practice (May et al., 2004). Baker (2001) declares that “research suggested that it is wrong to assume that the brain has only a limited amount of room for language skills, such that monolingualism is preferable” (p. 164). In short, the SUP model gained no recognition. This is because the SUP model does not reflect the working of the mind. As Hoffman (1991) states, this SUP model encourages the misconception that bilingualism may result in linguistic deficit. Because of these reasons, the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model or the Iceberg Analogy was seen as a more accurate depiction of how the mind works (Cummins, 1980, 1981). This model was first developed by Cummins (1980) in opposition to “time on task theory” (maximum exposure in the second language is required for successful language acquisition), a notion that related to the SUP model.

The CUP model is presented in the form of two icebergs. These two icebergs are separate above the surface. In this case, the two languages are visibly different in outward conversation. But underneath the surface, the two languages are fused so that the two languages do not function separately (May et al., 2004). It is in this storage where the two languages are kept, and associations between concepts and representations located (e.g. words and images). Both languages operate through one central processing system that both languages can contribute to, access and use (Baker, 2001; Baker & Prys-Jones, 1988; Holmes, 1984). In general, the CUP model is aligned with wider cognitive and neurological research which is well supported by the realities of life in bilingual contexts (May et al., 2004) and totally in contradiction to the SUP model.

2.3.4. The thresholds and interdependence hypothesis

Adding to the misconception on mind is another myth that many bilingual students, especially minority students, have limited success at school because of their bilingualism. To explain this myth, Cummins (1976) and Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977) proposed the thresholds theory. The thresholds model resembles a three-storied house, with each floor of the house signifying a level of proficiency. At each floor there is a description of the level of “linguistic ability

and, associated with this, particular cognitive and linguistic consequences” (Baker, 2001, p. 166). In order for an individual to benefit fully from bilingual education, Cummins (2000) argues that he/she needs to progress beyond the second floor and, ideally to the third.

The thresholds hypothesis importantly explains why many children from minority groups continue to fail in school and why early studies on bilingualism largely found negative effects of bilingualism. However, Cummins (2000) argues that the major reason for early studies’ negative findings, aside from methodological limitations, was that the minority language children in these studies often failed to develop a sufficiently high level of proficiency in the school language (L2) to benefit fully from their educational experiences (Cummins, 1984). This slow development was specifically related by Cummins to subtractive environments, “where a second (majority) language is seen as being in competition with and eventually replacing a first (minority, low status) language” (May et al., 2004, p. 8). According to this theory, attaining cognitive progress and language proficiency in level 3 is most likely to occur in additive bilingual contexts. “Additive bilingualism sees the addition of a second language at no expense to the first, with the additional language usually being of high prestige” (May et al., 2004, p. 8). But, May et al, (2004) argue that additive bilingual contexts need not be limited to the acquisition of so-called elite languages.

However, the thresholds theory was not free from critics. Its major weakness was the use of ambiguous terms such as semilingualism, competence level and school success. As a result of the controversy over the thresholds model, Cummins in 1979 modified it to what he termed a developmental interdependence hypothesis (Baker, 2001).

This hypothesis suggested that a child’s second language competence is partly dependent on the level of competence already achieved in the first language. The more developed the first language, the easier it will be to develop the second language. When the first language is at a low stage of evolution, the more difficult the achievement of bilingualism will be. (p. 169)

Cummins argues that it normally takes two years for a child’s conversational ability or surface fluency in an L2 to develop, yet between 5 to 7 years before the

more evolved academic skills required to cope with classroom language and curriculum content are developed fully. This finding is aligned with Hakuta, Butler and Witt's (2000) California study which casts doubt on Oller's (1979) claim for a single dimension of language proficiency. In this case, Cummins and others argue that children can have highly developed conversational skills in both languages, yet may still perform poorly in school if their academic language skills remain undeveloped (May et al., 2004).

2.3.5. Conversational language skills and academic language skills (BICS, CALP)

The duration of language acquisition for both L1 and L2 is quite significant. The thresholds theory and the interdependence hypothesis, along with subsequent research supporting the latter, clearly specify the extended time it takes students to acquire proficiency in a second language. The principle reason for this was discussed in detail by Cummins when he developed the distinction between conversational and academic language proficiency, using the terms "Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)" (Baker, 2001, p. 169).

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) occurs when there are contextual supports and props for language delivery. The term relates to language aspects such as phonological, syntactic and lexical skills necessary to function in everyday interpersonal contexts. "The requirements for conversational competence are usually cognitively undemanding and contextually supported" (May et al., 2004, p. 50). For example, with face-to-face context embedded and non-verbal support to secure understanding (Baker, 2001), children are likely to acquire competence in an L2 within 1 to 2 years.

In contrast, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) occurs in context-reduced academic situations, "where higher order of thinking skills (e.g. analysis, synthesis and evaluation) is required by the curriculum, language is disembedded from a meaningful and supportive context" (Baker, 2001, p. 170). In addition, Cummins states that these "skills are a necessary prerequisite for the successful

acquisition of literacy skills at schools because they involve the ability to use language as an instrument in problem solving” (May et al., 2004, p. 50). For this reason, CALP takes much longer, 5-8 years, for children to acquire language proficiency in an L2.

The distinction between CALP and BICS can be illustrated graphically by The Iceberg Representation of language proficiency (Baker, 2001). Conversational competence inheres in the skills of pronunciation, vocabulary and comprehension, which lie above the surface and are evident in conversation. Academic language proficiency lies below the surface and consists of the deeper, subtle skills of semantic meaning analysis and creative composition (Baker, 2001). In order for academic language proficiency to be successfully attained, Cummins (1979) argues that the common underlying proficiency of bilingual children must be well developed in bilingual children. This underlying ability can be developed via the interdependence principle and, depending on the context, either through the first or second language.

2.3.6. Implications of these theories

In general, research shows that bilingualism affects students’ cognitive performances positively. The thresholds hypothesis is an indicator of why students in minority groups fail in schools. Cummins (2000) argues that the major reason why students fail, as indicated by the thresholds hypothesis, is that they are in a subtractive bilingualism environment. This suggests that the school system and education policy-makers need to adopt an additive bilingual program. Crucially, under an additive bilingual approach, a certain threshold level of proficiency in the native language is necessary for minority students’ development of high levels of proficiency in L2 (Cummins, 2000). For instance, in Tonga, Tongan students must be proficient in Tongan language (both in CALP and BICS) in order to develop a high level of proficiency in their L2, English language. Also, where an additive approach to bilingualism is adopted, cognitive, social and educational advantages ensue, as later research on bilingualism (from the 1960s onwards) has consistently demonstrated (May et al., 2004). Such researchers argue that additive bilingual

approaches for all bilingual students (not just socially and educationally advantaged students) will foster the cognitive benefits of bilingualism and lead to wider educational success for bilingual students.

The interdependence hypothesis is of “crucial importance in understanding the nature of students’ academic development and in planning appropriate educational programs for students from both minority and majority language backgrounds” (Cummins, 2000, p. 175). The suggestion here is that policy-makers need to foster bilingual programs that allow academic language proficiency to transfer across languages so that students who have developed literacy in their L1 will tend to make stronger progress in acquiring literacy in L2.

This kind of theorising further suggests that a late exit in a transitional program (for instance, in Tonga, the transition is after 6 years) is beneficial, cognitively and linguistically to children than an early exit. Cummins (2001) contends that early exit (the early introduction of L2) is a fallacy which is directly associated with the outmoded SUP model of how brain works. Therefore, a late exit, “that is the use of L1 as an instructional language continues for at least 4 years” (May, et al., 2004, p. 73) in a bilingual program means that students’ L1 is well developed before the L2 is introduced. This view is aligned with the fact that learning of CALP in an L2 (English language in the Tongan context) takes longer, 5-8 years, in order for students to fully become fluent and competent. Proficiency in BICS is not enough for academic success.

However, in practical terms, the implications of these theories can vary from country to country, owing to various factors, such as diversity of population. For instance, bilingual programs in Aotearoa/New Zealand need different implementation strategies from those in Tonga. This may be due to political and economic reasons also. For instance, an immersion or elective bilingual approach (choosing to learn an additional language) can still be applicable under certain circumstances in Aotearoa/New Zealand. In Tonga, it is believed that a maintenance bilingual education program under an additive model is the most suitable bilingual program to implement in schools. This is because Tongan students at the appropriate age of transition should be able to use their Tongan language to scaffold the learning of English (L2).

In Tonga, the immersion program (under a subtractive model) has changed to a maintenance bilingual education. (This will be discussed in section 3.3: The bilingual education program in Tonga). The previous immersion program used, considering the background of the students (most speak the Tongan language), led to widespread academic failure. Tongan schools are now prescribed to teach in Tongan from Early Childhood Education up to secondary school. It is assumed that by Form Five, Tongan students have acquired high proficiency in their mother tongue, Tongan language. Under an additive bilingual approach, the Tongan students then use their acquired skills in Tongan language to learn English language.

In summary, research has shown considerable evidence of bilingual cognitive advantages such as metalinguistic awareness, divergent thinking, and field-dependence and independence. Also, research concludes that the theory of two languages acting like a balance in the thinking quarters of a bilingual is incorrect. Instead, the Common Underlying Proficiency model suggests that languages operate from the same central operating system. The thresholds theory suggests that bilinguals who have age-appropriate competence in both languages share cognitive advantages over monolinguals. Conversational and academic proficiency can be divided into two language registers, that is, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and Basic Interpersonal Communications Skills (BICS). The former takes longer to acquire, 5-8 years, whereas the latter takes less time, 1-2 years of acquisition. In Tonga, it is assumed that a maintenance bilingual approach under an additive model is the most suitable bilingual program.

This chapter has discussed English as a subject as related to multiple constructions of literacy and to the teaching of English as a subject. It has also discussed different theories and research on critical literacy and bilingual education. Despite the fact that critical literacy is seemingly at odds with sensitive Tongan cultural values, students are required to engage with a Tongan society undergoing continual political, economic and social changes. The proponents of critical literacy would suggest that it has a role to play in helping students make decisions for themselves about their society and its discourses. This chapter has discussed the implications of different theories of bilingual education, indicating the

appropriateness of a maintenance bilingual program for Tonga. Chapter 3 will discuss the context of the study.

CHAPTER 3: CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

This chapter discusses the place of English language in the context of the study, how English language is perceived by Tongan people in general and how it is used in the classrooms. It also discusses Tongan students as English language learners of relevance to teachers when teaching such students the acquisition of academic English language. The bilingual program adopted by the Tonga Ministry of Education is discussed too. The last part looks at critical literacy and the Tonga Language Curriculum.

3.1. English language versus Tongan language

English language is Tonga's second language. The local vernacular, Tongan language, is the mother tongue. English language is observed to have gained accelerating recognition in Tongan society at the expense of the local vernacular for a number of reasons.

Firstly, the Education system in Tonga has empowered English language. English hegemony is well established within the school system and can be traced back to the first formal education established by the British Wesleyan Mission in 1828. The Tonga Government policy regarding English Language is reflected in its compulsory usage in government high schools, Tonga High School, Vava'u High School, Ha'apai High School and 'Eua High School, as a medium of communication. Students are harshly punished for speaking in their mother tongue inside the school compound. This measure was taken to improve students' academic performance. Also, students must pass English as a subject in the external exam in order to pass the overall exam. Otsuka (2007) found that if one wishes to pursue a university degree, it is mandatory to be proficient in English. As a result, English language is viewed by Tongans as the pathway to equal employment opportunities, higher education and social elevation in Tonga. Therefore, Tongans have been observed to possess negative attitudes towards the Tongan language, an attitude well illustrated by Thaman's (1974) poem:

Please do not despise me

Please do not despise me if I am
too old in the head and shoulders
too inadequately schooled
in the ins and outs of today
but since I've lived three score years
and am not high or low
wise or wealthy, I would
be grateful if I'm just accepted
as your other grandmother
WHO CANNOT SPEAK ENGLISH

The persona, who is the grandmother, is despised because she cannot speak in English. She is begging for acceptance from Tongan people who are able to speak in English and to take her for who she is. Such an attitude is normally displayed by the younger generation in Tonga.

Secondly, globalization and trade have also put small island nations like Tonga in a position where in order to survive, they are compelled to conform to a Western development model that is associated with English as a socioeconomically privileged language (Otsuka, 2007). Otsuka points out, that as a result of “postcolonial experience and economic struggle, Tonga voluntarily shifts from emphasis on local language to that of English. The English language is given political recognition and autonomy” (p. 448). Otsuka (2007) sums up by saying that Tonga as an island nation with no major export power, continues to privilege English language over Tongan in order to survive in this globalization era.

Thirdly, since the beginning of European language imperialism, Tongans have been indoctrinated into believing that the English language is the only language in which they can obtain power, prestige and economic well-being (Pulu, 1988). Consequently, many Tongans have come to perceive the Tongan language as an impediment or an obstacle to their academic and economic progression (Pulu, 1988). This distorted perception creates a threat to the survival of our native language. In fact, this threat to our ancestral tongue is so pervasive and ever-present that not only does it exist amongst Tongans in our home land but also Tongans overseas (Pulu, 1988).

Lastly, Taufeulungaki's (1992) findings from her ethnographic study on "*Language community attitudes and their implications for the maintenance and promotion of the Tongan Language*" also show that there is a cause of concern for the government re the loss of the Tongan language. Taufe'ulungaki (1992) shows that while Tongan language is considered an important marker for group identity, its role in individual identity is increasingly questioned. While Tongan language performs satisfactorily, it is not the preferred medium of higher education and lacks efficiency as an official language.

Consequently, the status of the Tongan language continues to be threatened by the pervasiveness of English. Pulu (1988) points out that the deterioration of the Tongan language is already apparent. She provides evidence for her claim by pointing out that Tongan children have a "very limited vocabulary in their native language, with words being borrowed from English for which Tongan has almost perfect equivalents" (p. 45). This erosion is likely to be connected to the depreciating value accorded to the Tongan language. Pulu (1988) further explains, that "parents who speak to their children in English are really saying that Tongan isn't that important and that English is" (p. 46). Thus the message that is given to children is that "Tongan is worthless". Based on these observations, it appears that the endangerment of the Tongan language is a phenomenon that is prevalent among Tongans, whether residing overseas or in homeland Tonga.

English language is therefore valued for instrumental reasons, particularly its role as an instrument of higher education and a vehicle for modern development and international communication. As a result, the government has worked at rewriting its Language Policy for schools in Tonga to promote language maintenance and bilingualism (refer to section 3.3. Bilingual program in Tonga), an exercise that requires human resources, restructuring of the education system, a curriculum shift, which is likely to put a huge burden on Tonga's frail economic resources.

3.2. Tongan students: As second language learners

Currently SLA [Second Language Acquisition] “research orientation can be captured by a single word: complexity” (Nunan, 2001 cited in Franken et al, 2008, p. 60). The complexity of language learning and acquisition for bilingual Tongan high schools students is an issue to consider. As DelliCarpini (2008) reports, “in the past, it was common to have ELLs [English language learners] work with ESL teachers primarily on what is called communicative competence” (p. 99). In other words, this is “conversational language” (Franken et al., 2008; Cummings, 2002). The majority of the Tongan students are circumstantially bilingual; the language they speak is Tongan language and they are required by circumstance to speak the English language (majority language, in terms of worldwide use) (May et al., 2004). They could easily absorb the requirement of conversational language through informal interactions in contexts outside of school. But this is contrary to the demand of modern Tonga; Tongan students must acquire high competence in academic language in order to survive in such a competitive society. This makes second language acquisition of Tongan students in Tongan high schools more complex.

3.2.1. Academic language: English

English as a language can be divided into two categories, conversational and academic (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.5). Fundamentally, teachers of English as a second language must note the differences between these two categories, particularly when trying to identify the different features and to teach academic English. “Conversational English is the language used in everyday and ordinary situations” (Uribe, 2008, p. 1). Unfortunately, second language learners often fall into the conversational category. Based on personal experiences and observation, the majority of Tongan students’ level of English competency can be categorized as conversational. The fact that students pick up conversational language easily through informal interactions with peers, family members or from popular culture confirms this claim. As Franken and colleagues (2008) succinctly put it.

Conversational competence relates to the phonological, syntactic and lexical skills necessary to function in everyday interpersonal contexts. The requirements for conversational competence are usually cognitively undemanding and contextually supported. Children are likely to acquire this kind of competence in an L2 within 1-2 years. (p. 24)

On the other hand, academic language not only includes several dimensions of knowledge, but it also emphasizes the context where learning takes place. Educators need to be aware of all these dimensions in order to teach English language learners effectively the necessary skills to succeed in life and become productive members of society. Those dimensions are: “linguistic, cognitive and socio-cultural/psychological” (Uribe, 2008, p. 6). These dimensions incorporate components and vital academic skills in reading, speaking, writing and listening which are all pertinent prerequisites to producing productive, effective and competent academic English.

In addition, academic English is the language required in highly formal contexts such as in sophisticated workplaces. This is because of the “multiple complex features of English required for long-term success in public schools, completion of higher education, and employment with opportunity for professional advancement and financial rewards” (Rumberger & Scarcella, 2001, p. 1). Therefore, if “students want to achieve socio-economic success, it is imperative that they are able to perform at the appropriate academic level” (Uribe, 2008, p. 1), which is one of the desires of the Tonga Ministry of Education Strategic Plan (2008). In this case, academic English is highly imperative.

The proper use of academic language is necessary for research and other academic work. But performing at this level can be a continuing struggle considering Tongan students’ ability. Academic language proficiency, in contrast to conversational language, requires children to manipulate or reflect on the surface features of language outside immediate interpersonal contexts. These requirements are most apparent in “contextually reduced or disembedded, academic situations where higher order thinking skills are required, such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation” (Franken et al., 2008, p. 25).

Cummins (2000) argues that these skills are a necessary prerequisite for the successful acquisition of literacy skills at school because they involve the ability to use language as an instrument of thought in problem-solving. According to Scarcella (2003), academic English is “needed to challenge the tenets of those in power who use it, without knowledge of academic English, individuals may be excluded from participation in education and prevented from transforming it” (p. 1).

3.2.2. Issues for ESL teachers to consider

The complexity of language acquisition for Tongan students stems from the fact that Tongan students in high school vary in their English language ability. From the researcher’s personal experience, low and average students in terms of English acquisition struggle to master competent academic English. It is difficult to teach this group, owing to a variety of social factors. The most notable is that ELL students are not only diverse in ability but also in economic background. Zehler (1994) suggests that “some ELLs come from backgrounds where there are financial difficulties or health problems. These students may need support from health and social service agencies” (p. 2). This group tends to develop a sense of inferiority in comparison with other mainstream and English dominant groups in Tongan high schools. This sense of inferiority also arises from different discourses present in the high school context and in the home or family. “Discourse spoken within their family unit and community (primary Discourse) varies greatly from those that dominate curriculums and assessment tools in public education (academic Discourse)” (Mays, 2008, p. 2). Gee (2001) defines Discourses (capital D) “are ways of combining and coordination words, deeds, thoughts, values, bodies, objects, tools, and technologies, and other people (at the appropriate times and places) so as to enact and recognize the specific socially situated and activities” (p. 721).

According to Mays (2008) “the academic Discourse and culture of public education is, for the most part, familiar to the mainstream (white, middle-class) population and is thus easier for them to fluidly navigate. Due to “disparities between academic Discourses and an ELL’s primary Discourse... in actuality,

perpetuating an education for ELLs that is far from equal and costs them daily” (Mays, p. 2). Such issues discussed are vital for ESL teachers to consider when teaching and educating students, in this case, Tongan bilingual students in high schools.

It is the responsibility of the ESL teachers to ensure that the teaching of academic English is scaffolded from academic Tongan language. In this process, teachers must be reminded that the effective teaching of academic language involves more than just code-switching between the two languages. Bilingual teaching requires careful planning, ensuring that the content “provides background knowledge through the L1 (in this case Tongan academic language), via subject matter teaching in the first language. Moreover, literacy needs to be provided in the first language (Krashen, 1999, p. 2). Through the constructive planning of Tongan academic language as the content basis of a subject, students feel that their L1 is not inferior to English. As a result, there is a potential reduction in English hegemony in Tongan bilingual classrooms (Shannon, 1995, p. 197). Franken and colleagues (2008) state that other important factors in the teaching contexts are “responsiveness to student learning processes, instruction which scaffolds learning and provides good feedback, promoting students’ own understanding of how to learn, and having learners and teachers engage constructively in goal-oriented assessment” (p. 5).

This responsive process could be achieved through establishing a therapeutic environment of learning. In classrooms in which ELLs can and do succeed, “teachers have taken the time to get to know all their students in a way that goes beyond beginning-of-the-year introductions. When teachers have knowledge of students’ culture and community, it enables them to form the important, strong relationships that create successful learning environments” (DelliCarpini, 2008, p. 1).

However, TESL teachers should be reminded that effective bilingual education as a teaching strategy is more than just employing interchangeably two languages as a means of instruction or code-switching. English teachers must acquire an in-depth understanding of students’ language acquisition ability, design teaching programs or content that consider Tongan students’ ability in L1 and L2, taking on

board the cultural, economic and social background of students. It is also vital to scaffold teaching and to base it on L1's academic language because students can then apply their skills already mastered in L1 to learning of L2, even L2 (English) academic language (Franken et al., 2008). Also, since academic English requires high cognitive thinking, a critical literacy approach is highly recommended. It is also of paramount importance that the Tongan Education System provides resources for Tongan language initiatives equivalent to L2's standard, in order for the process of transferring skills in language acquisition to take place effectively (Franken et al., 2008).

3.3. Bilingual education in Tonga

The Tongan Ministry of Education recently adopted a maintenance model of bilingual education program for use in Tongan schools. This new bilingual education program replaces the Transitional bilingual education program that was used in the past. Under this new bilingual program, Tongan language is given more time than ever before for use in schools. The purpose is to revitalize the value of Tongan language and also to increase students' academic attainment. Taufe'ulungaki (2009) reports, "this choice over other models of bilingual education is based on sound research from around the world which clearly demonstrates that the most effective language for teaching a child is his/her mother tongue" (Email Interview, 19/08/2009).

Under the new Tongan maintenance bilingual program, students are expected to develop their native language right from the beginning of their formal education. Therefore, students are taught in Tongan language from early childhood education to Class Three at primary school. Baker (2006) argues, "the school is usually an essential agent in developing the home language. When a child enters kindergarten or elementary school, first language development needs to be formally addressed, irrespective of whether or not that child has age-appropriate competence in the home language" (p. 293).

English is introduced in Class Three, beginning with its oral aspect only. It is not until Class Four that English as a subject and as a language of instruction begins to

pick up momentum. At this level, 20% of the language of instruction is to be in English language and 80% in the Tongan language (Table 3.2). In terms of time devoted in the classroom to the subject of English language, 350 minutes is be devoted to the English language as opposed to 450 minutes for the Tongan language (Table 3.1). The percentage of use of language of instruction and time devoted to each language subject (Table 3.2) progresses and rises gradually from here as it goes on to Class Six, where they are used in equal proportion and time devoted to each language as a subject is also in equal proportion. This is in contrast to using both Tongan and English language from early childhood education onwards under the previous bilingual program. Taufe'ulungaki (2009) states that, "one of the reasons for this shift is based on the understanding that language (in this case Tongan language) is the instrument through which the Tongan traditional values, beliefs, ways of thinking, world views, traditions and behaviours of Tongan people are transmitted from one generation to another, while English is acquired for education, business and communications purposes" (Email Interview, 18/09/2009).

Therefore, beginning the bilingual program using students' native language (Tongan language) aims not only at maintaining the first language of the students but to strengthen their sense of cultural and linguistic identity, and affirm their individual and collective ethnolinguistic rights (May et al., 2004). Despite the fact that in the early stages, the language of instruction of the program is predominantly in L1 (Tongan language), as Baker (2001) argues, this is full bilingualism because this is a preparation for the later introduction of the L2 (English).

English is introduced after 5 years of a child's education in Tongan language, ECE to Class Three (Table 3. 2). This is called a late-exit program, which is the most common program among maintenance programs, that is, the usage of L1 (Tongan Language) continues for at least four years (May et al., 2004). The purpose for Tongan language's late-exit program is to maintain the students' L1 for a sufficient amount of time so that academic language proficiency in the L1 is achieved. This in "turn facilitates the acquisition of literacy in an L2, on the basis of the developmental interdependence" (Cummins, 1979, p. 117). With up to six

years of bilingual instruction, the students are “far more likely to have developed academic-level language skills” (May et al., 2004, p. 86). Also, “the purpose of this program is to ensure that language minority children continue to maintain and develop their mother tongue up to a native or at least near native level, learn the majority language at a native level and become biliterate” (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995, p. 96). Therefore, when English is introduced, Tongan students are expected to have mastered their L1 (Tongan language) fully before learning their L2 (English).

At secondary schools, Tongan and English are both used as languages of instruction at an equal proportion of the time, 50% each (Table 3. 1). The amount of time dedicated to teaching of each subject is specifically stated (Table 3. 2). As this model suggests, students’ L1, in this case, Tongan, is expected to be fully developed so that their acquired skills will be used in learning their L2, English. This is parallel to the interdependence theory advocated by Cummins (1979).

The level of L2 competence which a bilingual child attains is partially a function of the type of competence the child has developed in L1 at the time when intensive exposure to L2 begins...[an] initially high level of L1 development makes possible the development of similar levels of competence in L2. However, for children whose L1 skills are less well developed in certain respects, intensive exposure to L2 in the initial grades is likely to impede the continued development of L. (p. 233)

The time allocation reflected in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2 should enable the acquisition of Tongan CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) and BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) to take place. It takes normally longer time to acquire CALP (4 to 5 years) but a shorter period of time to acquire BICS (May et al., 2004). The reason for this time difference can be drawn from their distinction as outlined by Cummins (2000) and as discussed in section 2.3.3. When Tongan students master skills in Tongan language CALP and BICS, they then use these skills to scaffold learning of English CALP and BICS.

Furthermore, the time allocation given in both Table 3.1 and Table 3.2, for teaching and instruction, is aimed at gearing the Tongan bilingual program towards an additive approach, which “presupposes bilingualism as a benefit and

resource, both for individuals and the wider society, which should be maintained and fostered” (May et al., 2004, p. 1).

The teaching approach which is prescribed by the Tonga Revised Language Syllabus (2008) for use is Code-Switching. Tongan and English are both used customarily in secondary schools (Table 3:1). Cummins (2001) argues that this is heading towards the situation of additive bilingualism, where the new language is added to the first speaker’s language. According to TESOL (1992/1993), a maintenance bilingual education uses “content-subject instruction in both the home language and the second language (English) to achieve the goal of strong literacy in both languages” (p. 44). Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) states that a maintenance model under an additive approach naturally leads to high levels of linguistic competence in the minority language.

Table 3.1. Time allocated to medium of instruction

CLASSES	TONGAN LANGUAGE	ENGLISH LANGUAGE
ECE	100%	0%
1-3	100%	0%
4	80%	20%
5	70%	30%
6	60%	40%
FORMS 1- 7	50%	50%

(Adopted from English Syllabus and Teacher Guide: 2009)

Table 3.2. Time allocated to Tongan and English per week

CLASS	TONGAN LANGUAGE SUBJECT	ENGLISH LANGUAGE SUBJECT
EEC	100% TONGAN	
1-2	880 MINUTES a week	0 MINUTE a week
3	880 MINUTES a week	0 MINUTE a week
4	450 MINUTES a week	330 MINUTES a week
5	400 MINUTES a week	380 MINUTES a week
6	390 MINUTES a week	390 MINUTES a week
FORMS 1- 7	240 MINUTES a week	240 MINUTES a week

(Adopted from English Syllabus and Teacher Guide: 2009)

The community that the above bilingual education program serves is traditionally monolingual, speaking the Tongan language. However, due to educational,

political, economic and social contacts with Western countries, English language, as a major medium of communication, was inevitably introduced. English is now becoming an official language in Tonga. In urban areas, English language dominance is progressing at a fast rate. In the rural areas and the outer islands, Tongan language is still seen dominant but the influence of English language is growing rapidly and is capturing the young generation's interest and attention. In general, English language is rapidly gaining popularity at the expense of the native vernacular for various reasons (refer to section 3.1 for more detail on English language's place in Tonga).

As mentioned earlier on, the Ministry of Education chose to use a maintenance bilingual model in order to revitalise the value of the Tongan language and also to improve students' academic attainment. Taufe'ulungaki (2004) reports that one of the reasons for the attention paid to the vernacular and its role in classroom interaction is the search for solutions to the continuing high failure rate of Pacific Island children, not only in mainstream classrooms in developed countries such as in New Zealand and Australia, but also in their own Pacific-controlled schools. Consequently, the Tongan Ministry of Education reviewed its language syllabus to coincide with the new bilingual program, giving more time to the usage of Tongan language in the classroom.

However, the success of a bilingual program depends on effective teaching strategies. Although theory advocates numerous advantages of a maintenance bilingual model, it is the implementation process that matters. Based on anecdotal evidence and my own personal observation, English teachers and metropolitan parents in Tonga do not fully support the new bilingual program recently launched.

3.4. Critical literacy: In the Tongan English language curriculum

The English language curriculum document in Tonga does not make any stipulation for critical literacy in the teaching and learning of English (English Language syllabus and teacher guide class, 2009). However, gaps exist in the document, suggesting a need for a critical awareness of language. The Tonga Education Policy Framework (2004) specifies the following Language policy:

- ❖ 8.63. Basic literacy and numeracy skills are essential to success in education and are the right of all children. Two key principles therefore underpin Tongan policy on language and literacy:
 - Effective education builds on the child’s early learning in the mother tongue;
 - Literacy in the first language is needed before the introduction of reading and writing in the second language.
- ❖ 8.68. There is a recognition that increasing globalisation, Tonga’s trade and relations in the Pacific with other English-speaking nations, and the fact that English is used as the language of much business in Tonga, make proficiency in English for all Tongans a necessity. (pp. 36-37)

The English Language curriculum was then revised according to the Ministry of Education policy framework. Embedded in the new English Language curriculum (2009) are the following aims:

- Develop a sound level of literacy in both Tongan and English language.
- Develop key attributes needed for achievement, such as the ability to pay attention, ask and respond to questions, work cooperatively with others, compromise, consider the needs of others, see another person’s point of view, express needs, respect rules and boundaries. (p. 5)

Also stated in the English curriculum is the rationale for teaching and learning of English language, “through English education students learn to know, learn to do, learn to be and learn to live together. When students become proficient in the use of spoken and written English they:

- Increase their understanding of other cultures
- Expand career and life choices within and beyond Tonga
- Extend opportunities to use new technologies for work and leisure
- Expand opportunities to continue education within Tongan or international destinations. (English Language Curriculum, p. 8)

The TELC reflects the notion of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). The notion of communicative competence advocates a communicative approach to the teaching of English and it is facilitated by the model of appropriateness described by Fairclough (1992). The Tonga Ministry of Education Framework (2004),

advocates literacy in the Tongan language as a vehicle for the successful assimilation of the English language. Due to globalisation, proficiency in English-speaking leads to profitable trading. More specifically, the TELC aims at developing sound literacy and in both Tongan and English and to develop key attributes for achievement. This involves students in learning about the appropriateness of language for social and functional purposes in carrying out social and functional activities, Fairclough (1992) argues:

Learners will not only try to convey meaning effectively but must pay greater attention to the social context the interaction is taking place in. Their success is measured in terms of functional effectiveness of the language, as well as acceptability of forms used. (p. 38)

Under such circumstances, students are constrained to focus their learning on discourse norms offered by non-standard varieties of English (such as speech with friends, advertising, and other popular forms), when Standard English is preferred.

Based on the content of the TELC, the model of communicative competence appears to restrain the development of critical literacy pedagogy due to the following reasons. Firstly, the concept of appropriateness (which emphasizes the model of communicative competence) perpetuates Standard English's hegemony. The faulty use of Standard English leads to speakers or writers being judged as inept or incompetent or rude. But as Fairclough (1992) argues, the concept of inappropriacy is marked by a racist and "classist" bias. Even in an almost mono-cultural society like Tonga, students belonging to different socio-economic and friendship groups have different ways of using the English Language. It is noted from personal experience that Tongan students whom normally carry the so-called label of "academically weak", have perfect command of a non-standard form of English that is not taught at school. This is literacy with their peers and home literacy. Disregarding these forms of literacy in favour of Standard English is marginalising the group, their class and values. The generalisation of a competence model of language on which the TELC is based, presupposes unacceptable appropriateness models of language variation (Fairclough, 1992). This leads to some 'texts' or 'students' cultural ways of using language to be rejected as bad English.

Secondly, the appropriateness model emphasizes a shift towards seeing knowledge packaged in terms of competence, what people can do (Peters, 1994). If language practices can be neatly divided into what is appropriate or not, then language education can be reduced to skilling (Fairclough, 1992). Fairclough (1992) continue to argue that the reality, however, is that matching language to context is characterized by indeterminacy, heterogeneity and struggle. Therefore, it is suggested here that the concept of appropriateness is of considerable ideological and political significance and must be contested.

In this thesis, it is argued that in order to contest the political and ideological domination of appropriateness of language in Tongan classrooms, critical literacy pedagogy is crucial. In scrutinising attitudes towards socio-linguistic practice, students will be able to make informed choices of their linguistic practice based on, as Fairclough (1992) maintains, the estimates of possibilities, risks and costs of going against dominant judgements of appropriate usage.

In summary, this chapter has discussed the context of the study in relations to how English language has overpowered the local vernacular, Tongan, owing to political and economic factors and the younger generation's attitude towards the Tongan language. Tongan students, as English language learners, were also discussed, recognising the complexity of second language acquisition and, in particular, academic English language. As pointed out, the Tongan Ministry of Education has introduced a new bilingual education program with the hope it will revive the status of the Tongan language and increase students' academic attainment. This chapter has ended with a look at the Tonga Language curriculum, noting the absence of any explicit mention of critical literacy. Chapter 4 will outline the theoretical underpinnings of the methodology chosen for this study and presents the methods and procedures used.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

The framework employed by this study was an action research one. The study then used a mixed method of qualitative and quantitative procedures to collect and analyse data. Qualitative procedures contributed meaning to the empirical data, whilst quantitative procedures provided a way of analysing numerically all the participants' responses. This chapter is divided into two main sections. Section one outlines the theoretical underpinnings of the methodology. Section two presents the methods and procedures involved in the study. The latter is divided into the following seven parts:

- A description of the procedures undertaken for entry into the educational institution and access to participants;
- An overview of the school and participants;
- The method of sampling utilised for data collection;
- A description of the methods of data collection;
- A description of the methods of analysis;
- A discussion of the researcher's bid to establish reliability and validity;
- A discussion of ethical considerations.

4.1. Theoretical underpinnings

This section is divided into two parts. Part one discusses the paradigm of action research and its place in the present study, using Carr and Kemmis's (1986) action research cycle, which involves the teacher as researcher putting his/her practices to the test in order to generate findings to support future teaching. Part two discusses qualitative and quantitative procedures as a mixed method and how they are used in the present study. A mixed method procedure in educational research not only generates a rich base of data for a comprehensive picture of all participants' views but also improves various forms of validity or quality of research (Creswell, 2003; Brewer & Hunter, 2006).

4.1.1. Action research

Research is defined as a “systematic attempt to provide answers to questions” (Tuckman, 1988, p. 1) or “a structured inquiry that utilizes acceptable scientific familiarization, and creates new generally applicable knowledge (Hopkins, 1980). Research involves gathering data in order to solve a problem, illuminate a situation, or add to our knowledge. The research question should relate to the “researcher’s context, interest, and world view, and shapes the subsequent research decisions” (Mutch, 2005, p. 14). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) point out three different characteristics of research. That is, “where as experience deals with events occurring in a haphazard manner, research is systematic and controlled, research is empirical and research is self-correcting, that is, it is open for public scrutiny by professionals” (p. 7).

But, before research begins, the researcher should have in mind the paradigm relevant to his/her approach in order to determine the most appropriate methodology and the methods to use. The research paradigm that directs this study is action research. As its name implies, action research can be viewed as having “two main outcomes; action and research” (Dick, 1992, p. 2). Hopkins (1958) suggests that the “combination of action and research renders that action a form of disciplined inquiry, in which a personal attempt is made to understand, improve and reform practice” (p. 32). This was what I hoped to do in my study, to implement an innovative idea that I hoped would improve the teaching of English as a subject in Tongan schools using a critical literacy approach.

Ebbutt (1985) regards action research as a “systematic study that combines action and reflection with the intention of improving action” (p. 156). It is also seen as a way to encourage the professional development of teachers either by providing them with skills that will allow them to be reflective and inquiring practitioners (Gore & Zechner, 1991), or through the knowledge that they will acquire from the completion of action research projects in their classrooms (Fals-Borda & Anisur, 1991). The present study aimed to implement a teaching pedagogy, critical literacy, in a Tongan bilingual classroom to test its appropriateness for use in Tongan schools to teach English as a subject.

Cohen and Manion (1994) define action research as a “small scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such an intervention” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 297). The present study designed an intervention for implementation in one of the high schools in Tonga in order to investigate the effects of critical literacy as a teaching pedagogy and whether bilingual teaching supported it when teaching English as a subject. Prior to this study, it was identified from personal experience that the majority of Tongan students showed a lack of interest in English as a subject. It was expected that through the developmental nature of action research (Feldman & Minstrell, 2000), the teacher-researcher would engage in teaching to get better and become part of the knowledge base of teaching and learning.

Therefore, through this action research study, I (as an English teacher in Tonga) would have the opportunity to reflect on my own practices as Hopkins, 1958; Ebutt, 1985; Gore and Zechner, 1991; Fals-Borda and Anisur, 1991 advocate. During the process of implementing critical literacy as a teaching approach in a real Tongan classroom situation, I would be reflecting on it to see if critical literacy pedagogy had helped to motivate Tongan students to like English as a subject. During the process, the teacher-researcher set out to familiarise sampled teachers with critical literacy as a teaching pedagogy and additive bilingualism through a workshop. The intention was to familiarise them with these teaching pedagogies, then to later invite their opinions and ideas through a focus group interview.

It was thought that action research was the most appropriate paradigm for this study because of the nature of the study. The study aimed to find out how effective critical literacy with an additive bilingual approach was for use in Tongan classrooms by English teachers. Bruce-Fergusson (2003) advocates the use of action research by teachers as the best approach to “resolve problems, extend practice and understand their environments better” (p. 52). Action research can help teachers identify a situation in their practice that they may want to analyse and design an intervention for, because action research is more systematic and collaborative in collecting evidence on which to base rigorous group reflection (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1992). It is also a “tool for learning in the classrooms and

schools” (Stringer, 2008, p. 2). Reason and Bradbury (2001) extend this vision by describing action research as a “participatory, democratic process concerned with developing practical knowing in the pursuit of worthwhile human purposes” (p. 10).

However, Carr and Kemmis (1986) suggest that action research should not be seen as a recipe or technique for bringing about democracy, but rather as an “embodiment of democratic principles in research, allowing participants to influence, if not determine, the conditions of their own lives and work, and collaboratively to develop critiques of social conditions which sustain dependence, inequality or exploitation” (p. 164).

McNiff (2002) adds that action research aims for a democratic involvement of participants in an investigation at every stage of the action research cycle in order to generate knowledge which leads to improved understanding and experience for social benefit. The present study aimed to establish the validity and the possibility of critical literacy as a teaching pedagogy in the Tonga Language Curriculum. And given it is suitable and possible, what are the considerations that must be regarded in its implementation. The students’ views were sought in order to further analyse the effects of the new practice.

Action research supports the view that “people can create their own identities and that they should allow others to do the same” (McNiff, 2000, p. 17), and is concerned with “improving social conditions” (Grundy, 1987, p. 142). Because of its cyclical approach, it allows teachers to make improvement to an intervention until it gets to the point where they are satisfied (Bruce-Fergusson, 2003). In doing so, they are not only concerned with making discoveries, but also that their discoveries are properly applied (Chein, Cook & Harding, 1988). Action research generates knowledge that can be theorised and practically implemented on a broader scale. The present study sought to generate knowledge about teaching strategies and the medium of instruction that would best suit the interests of Tongan students when learning English as a subject. Action researchers know that they must generalise beyond their data. They never deal with the same situation twice. They are interested in applying their findings to tomorrow’s or next year’s class (Corey, 1988). Therefore, “to do action research is to plan, act, observe and

reflect more carefully, more systematically, and more rigorously than one usually does in everyday life” (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1992, p. 10).

The present study made use of Carr and Kemmis’s (1986) action research cycle, which involves the teacher-researcher in reflecting on the situation in the class; planning how he/she will try to remedy the situation; taking action which includes getting through the process of ethics of research; putting the plan into action and collecting data; analysing available data to ascertain what worked and what did not work so that the cycle can be started again. Carr and Kemmis (1986) define action research as “a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their practices, their understanding of these practices, and the situations in which the practices are carried out” (p. 162).

This process requires the researcher to record then interpret what they have gathered as well as try to discover what the intervention means to the participants. The first cycle of the process involved the planning of the study unit, selecting suitable texts to use, designing lesson plans and then reflecting on the objectives of the lesson plans and ensuring that they catered for sampled students’ abilities. The whole cycle was based on the implementation of the study unit. This implementation was conducted over a series of 13 lessons of 40 minutes, and planned using a thematic approach. Activities and tasks within the cycle were continuously monitored through observations, formative assessments, lesson evaluations and students’ questionnaires. Information collected from observations and evaluations contributed to the further planning of the lessons. The final analysis of data collected during the period of the study would form a set of recommendations for the adoption (or not) of critical literacy as a teaching pedagogy in Tongan schools and raise new questions for further enquiry.

4.1.2. Qualitative versus quantitative research

The researcher tried to explore the participants’ points of view, thoughts and feelings and their reasons for these. This required a qualitative methodology. One of the purposes of qualitative research in education, according to Erickson (1986),

is to “discover the specific ways in which local and non-local forms of social organization and culture relate to the activities of specific persons in making choices and conducting social actions together” (p. 129). Qualitative research gives voice to the participants. Therefore, the researcher tried to explore both the teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the teaching of literature in the senior secondary school, using critical literacy and additive bilingual strategies.

Quantitative research means the “application of a numerical approach to the nature of the issue under scrutiny as well as to the gathering and analysis of data” (Bullock, Little & Millham, 1992, p. 85). When combined with qualitative methods of data collection, quantitative methods help to provide a more general picture of the situation by allowing for a greater sample of the target population to be covered (Bryman, 1992). It allows for more participants to have input in the study. Combining qualitative and quantitative procedures is called a mixed method approach. Mixed method research is the combination of at least one qualitative and at least one quantitative component in a single research project (Bergman, 2008).

Hittleman and Simon (2006) support the idea of mixed approaches. They assert that a research project “can incorporate the strengths of both these types of research (qualitative and quantitative)” (p. 70). They also state that the benefit of using both methods is that:

Qualitative methods, especially observation or unstructured interview, allow the researcher to develop an overall “picture” of the subject under investigation. This picture may guide the initial phases of the research. And quantitative analysis may be more appropriate to assess behavioural or descriptive components topic.
(p. 70)

Aligned with this notion, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) suggest that the “goal of mixed methods research is not to replace either of these approaches but rather to draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both in single research studies and across studies” (p. 15).

Carlson (2008) believes that “ultimately, blending and borrowing from each research tradition (quantitative and qualitative) can and does embellish that which each might contribute to overall understanding” (p. 662). The present study collected qualitative data such as students’ interviews, students’ work samples and

teachers' interviews. On the other hand, quantitative data included observations, questionnaires, formative assessments, and pre- and post-intervention tests. Analysing these had the aim of providing valid and reliable explanations in order to recommend changes regarding the teaching pedagogies for the teaching of English as a subject in Tongan classrooms.

4.2. Methods and procedures

Section 4.1 of this chapter outlined the place of this study within an action research paradigm using mixed method qualitative and quantitative procedures. Section 4.2 will describe the methods of data collection and other procedures that were followed. This section is made up of seven parts:

- The steps that were taken to gain access to the study site;
- A brief overview of the sampled school and the participants' background as well as the researcher's role;
- The sampling process;
- Methods of the data collection;
- The process of data analysis;
- The importance of validity and reliability to the research and how they were addressed;
- Ethical considerations related to the study design.

4.2.1. Negotiating access

Early in December 2009, I communicated my interest in conducting my research at a Tongan secondary school to the deputy principal for administration and the English teachers of the English department. A false name, "New Home High School", was given to the school in order to preserve anonymity. I had had a professional relationship with this school while I was teaching in Tonga, which helped with the distant communication. An informal approval was given and I then proceeded to seek the University of Waikato's ethical approval for the research and also to obtain formal approval from the New Home High School's director. Upon receipt of approval, I travelled in the last week of January, 2010 to Tonga, where I met individually with the target group of participants, the school director,

principal, deputy principals, the head of English department and the sampled students. After queries were clarified, letters of invitation (Appendix 4) to take part in the study along with informed consent forms were given to each English teacher and parents of sample students for signature (Appendix 6). Once all letters were signed and returned, I proceeded to commence work with students participating in the study.

4.2.2. Research site

This section provides an overview of the school context, students' backgrounds and the English department. To preserve anonymity, a very general overview of the school is given here; the school name is given a pseudonym, "New Home High School". A brief description of the researcher's role will be given at the end of this section.

The research site, "New Home High School", is located in Nuku'alofa, the capital of Tonga on the main island, Tongatapu. The school is operated and managed by one of the churches in Tonga. The school has been established for more than a century now. It is a co-ed school. However, after the signing of informed consent and being assigning the sampled class, I discovered that English classes were assigned according to gender. One of the reasons given by the administration was that boys are normally outperformed by girls in English classes and they felt left out. Consequently, boys did not perform well in English. Putting boys in one class for English seemed to work, according to the administration. I was given an all-girls class. If I had been given the choice, I would have chosen an all-boys class. I thought it would have been interesting to put the administration's reasoning (boys are performing poorly in English) to the test. However, school administrators decided, based on the fact that the all-boys class's English teacher was on leave for two months, that an all-girls class was more appropriate for my research since their teacher was there. This was a better arrangement for me, also, since I needed a critical friend and observer.

The school population is over a thousand and the majority are female. A small population of students come from the outer islands: the two Niuas, Vava'u, 'Eua

and the Ha'apai group. The majority of the students are from the main island, Tongatapu. There are seven levels, Forms 1 to 7. English and religious subjects are compulsory for all students through Forms 1 to 7. English is then an optional subject in Form 7. Forms 1 to 4 students must take eight subjects; Form 5 students are required to take six and Form 6 students must take at least 5 subjects. Form 7 students must take four courses.

Teaching is organized within several departments according to the classification of the subjects offered. One of the departments is English. 12 teachers made up the English department, two male teachers and ten female teachers. As discussed later in this thesis, English teachers believed that English should be the medium of communication and instruction at schools, and that teachers should only speak in the Tongan language if necessary, such as for clarification purposes.

New Home High School is a “communion, called by the Father in Christ to welcome His Kingdom into our hearts, through which we strive both individually and in solidarity with one another to ever become beautiful in the growth of the physical, emotional, social, intellectual and spiritual aspects of our lives, under the care and glory of God and the salvation of His people” (New Home High School, 2010).

For the purpose of this study, I took on the dual role of teacher-researcher. This happened for two main reasons. Firstly, owing to time limitations, it was not possible to train a teacher to implement my study unit. Secondly, I believed that if I placed my own teaching practices under additional scrutiny, I would myself have a better understanding of the demands of the study unit, its weaknesses and strong points, instead of relying on a third party to tell me. I taught for almost two and a half months and had the assistance of my associate teacher (critical friend) as a participant observer in four, 40-minute sessions.

4.2.3. Sampling

The quality of a piece of research stands or falls not only by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling

strategy that has been adopted (Morrison, 1993, p. 112). However, owing to factors such as “expense, time and accessibility” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 100), I opted to focus on one sample class, one Form Six class of 34 students from one high school in Tonga.

During the teaching process of the study unit, a simple random sampling strategy was used. The method involved selecting at random from a list of the population (sample class) the required number of subjects for the sample (Cohen et al., 2007). I wrote the participants’ names on pieces of paper then put them in a box whence I drew my sample. To avoid repeating the same sample, and to minimise the bias and marginalising the view points of the majority of participants, I excluded the first sample from the next draw. In other words, different samples were used throughout the study unit. For instance, the sample that was observed was different from the sample interviewed. However, all students were involved in responding to the questionnaires, formative assessments, pre- and post-intervention tests and the daily tasks evaluations. This allowed for the insider knowledge of the learning undergone to be accessed. It also inclusively allowed the research to be tailored to the needs of the students, and produced dialogue of an informative and insightful nature between teacher-researcher and students.

4.2.4. Data collection process

Section 4.1.1 established the suitability of the action research paradigm for the present study. Because the present study sought to examine teaching strategies for English as a subject in Tongan classrooms, which is a social situation, with a view to improving the quality of action within it (Elliot, 1991), I opted to employ a variety of data collection methods in order to obtain mutually corroborative data that would be convincing and valid in respect of the research questions.

The first method used was a diagnostic pre-unit test (Appendices 8 and 9). The purpose of diagnostic assessment is to “ascertain, prior to instruction, each student’s strength, weaknesses, knowledge and skills” (Swearingen, 2002, p. 2). Having established these, the teacher-researcher can adjust the study unit to meet each student’s unique needs. Two different tests were given in Tongan language

and English language. The intention of these tests was to get some idea of students' existing ability in both Tongan and English language before the actual implementation of the unit. The results of the two tests determined the medium of instruction to use, whether English or Tongan only or code-switching between the two languages. Because sampled students were new to Form 6 and it was only the beginning of the year, both tests were at Form 5 level. Before the implementation of the study unit, both tests were given to Tongan subject and English subject teachers respectively to check for suitability. The two tests were piloted with two Form 5 students from my neighbourhood in Tonga.

The second method was questionnaire (Appendix 7), which was administered to all participants (students) before the intervention. The aims were to find out students' views of reading and what motivates students in English classes. The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for "collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyse" (Wilson & MacLean 1994, p. 317).

It can also be argued that a questionnaire is an "intrusion into the life of the respondents, be it in terms of time taken to complete the instrument, the level of threat or sensitivity of the question, or the possible invasion of privacy" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 318). Because of this, respondents cannot be coerced into completing a questionnaire. However, the present study first sought the participants' approval and informed consent before the process was implemented. Every effort was given to guarantee participants that their anonymity would be assured.

To eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording, the questionnaire was piloted with one Form 6 student from my neighbourhood in Tonga. Also, every question was checked by the teacher-researcher with the students from the front of the classroom for clarity before they filled in the questionnaire form.

The third method was the researcher's reflective journal. Providing that accounts are authentic, it is argued, there is no reason why journals should not be used as scientific tools in explaining people's actions (Cohen et al., 2007). Ortlipp (2008) points out that "a reflective approach to the research is now widely accepted in much qualitative research" (p. 695). The journal constituted the personal record of

events and thought processes by two sets of participant (students and the teacher-researcher). Keeping and using a reflective journal enabled the researcher to record personal experiences, opinions, thoughts and feelings. Also, the reflective journal helped to point out what needed to be refined or revisited in the cycle of the action research. Keeping and using a reflective research journal can make the messiness of the research process visible to the researcher, who can then make it visible for those who read the research and thus avoid producing, reproducing, and circulating the discourse of research as a neat and linear process (Otlipp, 2008).

The researcher wanted to ensure that his personal account was not biased. And for validity purpose, the themes emerging from the reflective journal were fed into discussions with the English teachers at one occasion after their departmental meeting on a Friday afternoon. Students' lack of motivation, students' English grammar problems, students' home literacy as affecting their learning of English as a subject, and the external examination-oriented attitude were amongst the topics that emerged from the researcher's journal and were fed into discussions. All of the English teachers, particularly the senior teachers, confirmed that that they had encountered the same issues.

A fourth method was the participant observation schedule (Appendix 10). According to Cohen et al. (2007), observation can "focus on events as they happen in a classroom, for example the amount of teacher-student talk, the amount of off-task conversation and the amount of group collaborative work" (p. 396). Further, it can focus on behaviours or qualities, such as the friendliness of the teacher, the degree of aggressive behaviour or the extent of unsociable behaviour among students, aspects that are sometimes overlooked by researchers during the process of researching. Therefore, one of the Tongan English teachers (whose class was involved in this study) participated as a critical friend, observing the intervention process. Robson, (2002) stresses the importance of observation stating that what "people do may differ from what they say they do, and observation provides a reality check; observation also enables a researcher to look afresh at every day behaviour that otherwise might be taken for granted, expected or go unnoticed" (p. 310).

The process of observation provides information that enables collaboration in an action research process. Collaborative research overcomes some of the danger of self-deceit in the act of self-reflection (Habermas, 1974). Bruce-Ferguson (2003) warns that there is a strong tendency to reflect without critical insight into one's own logical shortcomings or personality quirks.

The observer was briefed on the meaning of critical literacy and bilingual education and the notes on these two topics were given to her. She was also asked to note down any additional behaviours such as the atmosphere of the classroom, the weather or any other issues that might have disrupted the students' attention or may have contributed to the success of the unit. The observer was also requested to note down any issues that might have been encountered by the teacher-researcher while teaching the unit. The teacher-researcher had established a long professional relationship with the observer; therefore, trust was bestowed upon her that she would have no issue with being critical of the researcher's teaching.

The observation was scheduled for a six blocks of 40 minutes observation but, owing to the observer's other professional obligations, the observation was cut down to four blocks of 40 minutes only.

A fifth method was students' formative assessment tasks. Three different formative assessment (Appendix 11, 12 and 13) tasks were given in the form of tests during the process of the teaching of the study unit. Formative assessment tasks within classroom practices "provides the information needed to adjust teaching and learning while they are happening" (Carrison & Ehringhaus, 2007, p. 1). Formative assessment should occur regularly and it does not have to be in test form only (Swearingen, 2002). Students' daily tasks and homework were regarded as formative assessment, too. However, for management purposes, only three formative assessments were included for data analysis in this study. These tasks were conducted after the teaching of each text studied. They were generally aimed at identifying aspects of each text that were not clear to students. They were also used as a mirror to improve or change the teaching pedagogies used by the teacher-researcher.

The sixth method was the summative post-intervention test (Appendix 16). Summative assessment is a "test, usually given at the end of a term, chapter

semester or year and the purpose is evaluative” (Swearingen, 2002, p. 3). Carrison and Ehringhaus (2007) state that summative assessment determines what students know and do not know and when used in the classroom level it is an accountability measure. The post-test assessment was aimed at assessing what had been taught so far in the unit and to help establish the effectiveness of using an additive bilingual approach when teaching critical literacy. The test was conducted in English language only. The results obtained were used to evaluate the students’ performance during the study unit in relation to the teaching approaches used.

A seventh method was to interview a sample of six participants (students) (Appendix 15). This was scheduled to take place towards the end of the intervention, to enable participants to comment reflectively on their experience with critical literacy as a teaching approach to teach English literature. It was anticipated that this option would be a better one once I had created a positive and open relationship with the participants, both students and teachers. During the process, the researcher can then prompt and steer questions in certain directions as the interview unfolds (McDonagh, 2000).

The interview was semi-structured and conducted as a focus group (Cohen et al., 2007). The group interview can generate a wider range of responses than individual interviews. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) add that “group interviews can be useful for gaining an insight into what might be pursued in subsequent individual interviews” (p. 100). It is also quicker than individual interviews and hence time-saving. Cohen and colleagues (2007) state that group interviewing can be useful with children, as it “encourages interaction among the group rather than simply a response to an adult’s questions” (p. 347). They continue to say that group interviews with children might also be “less intimidating for them than individual interviews” (p. 374).

Initially, two focus groups of students were planned, but this was hampered by time. The two groups would have been more representative of the 34 students and also two groups would have allowed comparisons to be made. This would be a recommendation for a future study.

The students’ group interview was done in both English and Tongan languages. Students were encouraged to use the language they were comfortable with. The

interview was transcribed and translated by the teacher-researcher. The translation was cross-checked by my associate teacher (my critical friend who conducted the observation). Because students were not available to validate the transcribed interview owing to time, it was also given to my associate teacher to check. The audio-tape was played while the associate teacher checked that I had transcribed the exact responses given by the participants. This was seen as a validity measure.

The last method was a group interview (Appendix 14) with all teachers in the English Department to gain their valuable views on critical literacy and an additive bilingual strategy as teaching approaches in Tongan classrooms. This was done at the end of the teaching intervention after giving teachers sufficient time to familiarise themselves with this pedagogy, and even trial it with their own class if they wished. An information-giving workshop was delivered right at the beginning of the intervention to introduce them to this pedagogy and the study unit. Like the students' interview, the teachers' interview was conducted in both Tongan and English languages. Teachers were given the option to use the language they were comfortable with. The translation was cross-checked by my associate teacher. The transcribed interview was given back to the teachers for validation. Both focus group interviews were audio-taped with the consent of the participants.

4.2.5. Data analysis methods

Qualitative data analysis involves “organizing, accounting for and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities” (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 461). At a theoretical level, a “major feature of qualitative research is that analysis often begins early on in the data collection process so that theory generation can be undertaken” (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p. 238). Cohen et al, (2007) add, that “qualitative research rapidly amasses huge amounts of data, and early analysis reduces the problem of data overload” (p. 461).

The advice given here influenced the analysis of the data that was collected. There were eight different methods of collecting data for this study. The data were therefore expected to be massive. Therefore, analysis started straight away. For

instance, once the pre-intervention questionnaires were collected, analysis was begun by classifying them under different themes in relation to the study and assigning codes. Teachers' interviews were transcribed and were given back to teachers to validate before putting them under themes and giving them codes. Owing to limited time, students were not available to validate their interview responses. Therefore, students' interview, their work samples and their post-intervention test were validated and check-marked by my critical friend. The same process was done to the observations and the reflective journal.

During the data analysis, I closely followed a qualitative data analysis process advocated by Siedel (1988). According to Seidel (1988), "analysing qualitative data is essentially a simple process. It consists of three parts: Noticing, Collecting, and Thinking about interesting things" (p. 1). Siedel notes that these parts are interlinked and cyclical. For example, while thinking about things you notice further things and collect them. Seidel (1988) likens the process to "solving a jigsaw puzzle. Noticing interesting things in the data and assigning 'codes' to them, based on topic or theme, potentially breaks the data into fragments. Codes which have been applied to the data then act as sorting and collection devices" (p. 2).

4.2.6. Validity and reliability

Procedures for evaluating the rigour of action research evolve around "well-formulated processes for testing reliability and establishing validity" (Stringer, 2008, p. 47). Validity is concerned with whether the research is really doing what it claims to be doing and whether the results are credible (McNiff, 1988). Hamersley (1992) suggests that validity in qualitative research replaces certainty with confidence in one's accounts becoming representations of a certain reality rather than reproductions of it. Lomax (1986) suggests that action researchers do not claim to possess a final answer to a question, but rather profess to improve and change educational practice through practitioners' professional development. As a result, the validity that action research claims is the degree to which claims are relevant in guiding practice for teachers involved and have the ability to inform and speed debate about improving practice in the wider teaching community.

Keerlinger (1973), cited in Lincoln and Guba (1985), states that reliability is “synonymous with dependability, stability, consistency, predictability and accuracy” (p. 292). Therefore, it is estimated by measures of the extent to which similar results may be expected from similar samples within the population studied, across different contexts at different times (Stringer, 2008). Lincoln and Guba (1985) further state that “reliability is not prized for its own sake but as a precondition for validity; an unreliable measure cannot be valid” (p. 292).

However, Stringer (2008) notes that, because there can be no “objective measures of validity, the underlying issue is to identify ways of establishing trustworthiness, the extent to which we can trust the truthfulness or adequacy of a research project” (p. 48). Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose that means for establishing trustworthiness involve procedures for attaining: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. The present study tried to achieve validity and reliability by following the four procedures suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

Credibility

Qualitative research is easily open to sloppy, biased processes that merely harness the biases and perspectives of those in control of the research process (Stringer, 2008). However, to minimize the extent to which researcher’s own view points intrude, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest a careful adherence to the following processes. That is, spend enough time to study the research context and use multiple and different instruments. The researcher planned to collect the data in a period of three months. This time period allowed ample time for the researcher to study and get to know the research site. The teaching of the study unit did not start until after three weeks. Within these three weeks, the researcher familiarized himself with the research site and the participants, seeking to establish a natural and non-threatening relationship. Credibility was also achieved once the relationship between researcher and the participants became natural and non-threatening (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Stringer, 2008).

The present study employed eight different data collection methods (as set out in section 4.2.3). The aim was to collect rich data and to triangulate them so that all

participants' views were taken into account from different angles using different methods.

Transferability

Transferability, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), refers to when researchers seek to provide the possibility that results can be transferred to other settings to enable people to take advantage of the knowledge acquired in the course of study. Stringer (2008) states “such application is possible if the other setting is sufficiently similar to allow results to be applicable” (p. 50). The present study sought to achieve transferability by including a detailed description of the study in the introductory chapter. In Chapter 3, the context of the study was discussed in detail in terms of relevant aspects pertaining to the subject of the study. The present study also reviewed relevant literature that is directly related to the topic. A detailed description of the study methodology is also given here. The presentation of findings will be followed by a discussion of these findings. Such detail should allow other readers to make a self-judgement on the suitability of conducting a similar study in a different setting.

Dependability.

Trustworthiness also depends on the extent to which observers are able to ascertain whether research procedures are adequate for the purposes of the study (Stinger, 2008). One of the ways to achieve dependability in research, as proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), is to have an inquiry audit. The task of this group or this person is to check that the details of the research process, including processes for defining the research problem, collecting and analysing data are sufficient. The present study sought to maintain dependability by adhering strictly to the University of Waikato's Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations (2008)¹. The early stage of the present study was also closely monitored by my supervisor. The ethics application was approved before the researcher travelled to the research site.

¹ <http://calender.waikato.ac.nz/assessment/ethicalConduct.html>

Confirmability

Confirmability is achieved when information gathered from the research is reviewed (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, Stringer, 2008). The information enables the participants or other observers to confirm that the research accurately and adequately represents the perspectives presented in the study. By this means, the trustworthiness of the study is enhanced (Stinger, 2008).

The present study used the associate teacher as a critical friend. The critical friend conducted the observations, check-marked the formative assessment tests, pre-test and the post-intervention test. The interview students were not available to validate their responses after the interview transcription; it was given to my critical friend to double-check by listening to the recorded interviews. Teacher interviews were transcribed, and then given back to them for validation. The translation of the interviews (students and teachers) was double-checked by my critical friend.

4.2.7. Ethics

The Tonga Ministry of Education insists that all researchers ask permission from the head office in Nukualofa. The researcher, therefore, formally requested permission from the Chief Executive Officer of the Ministry of Education for access to New Home High School. The letter clearly explained the aim of the research and the benefits that the findings should bring to the Ministry in terms of information that may support any future curriculum decision-making regarding the usage of critical literacy as a teaching pedagogy to teach English literature in Tongan classrooms. Subsequently, the Ministry sent a circular to the school to inform them of the project. However, I personally engaged in correspondence with the principal, the head of the English Department at New Home High School in order to negotiate friendly and supportive access to the school.

My colleagues and participants, whom I encouraged into my research project, did not need their workloads increased by my wish to be innovative, but the

effectiveness and validation of my research depends to a large extent on them. A number of measures were taken to ensure respect and privacy of persons.

Informed consent was sought from all the participants and their guardians before the project began, along with consent to use students' work in the research. This was done by sending letters of information detailing the purpose of the study to all the students' parents/guardians. The letter highlighted assurances of participants' anonymity, confidentiality and the right to withdraw their participation in the data collection process at any time. Forms of consent for the participants' involvement in the study as well as for the use of their work accompanied the letters. The teachers in the English Department were given consent forms to sign, as they would be involved in the data collection process. The head teacher's permission was solicited for students' work samples done during school time to be collected for analysis. The school, teachers' and students' permission were sought, should the research or any part of it be used for publication later.

Action research is a collaborative type of research that depends on openness between the researcher and the participants in order to collect reliable data. The interviewees were, thus, guaranteed that whatever they would say would not be used against them in class. A positive and trusting relationship was needed so that the participants would feel free to voice their opinions with no fear of retribution. Of major importance was the need to ensure that all participants in the class understood precisely what the research was trying to establish. I informed the pupils that our discussions would help me to see how useful these new ideas could be to them and to other children. This should have facilitated their desire to participate openly and actively in the process. The interviewees were also given the opportunity to verify their statements after the transcription of data. As Bell (2001) states, this is important to ensure that the data collected is reliable. Pseudonyms will be used when reporting, to guarantee participants' anonymity. The school will receive an electronic copy of the final report.

In summary, this chapter has discussed the paradigm of action research and how it was employed by this study. Mixed method procedures, qualitative and quantitative, were used to collect and to analyse data. The methods and procedures: negotiating access, a general description of the research site, sampling procedures,

data collection methods, data analysis methods and the ethics procedure have been described. The present study tried to achieve validity and reliability by following the four procedures suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985), credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Chapter 5 will present the findings collected from the processes presented and discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS

The study investigated the impact of Critical literacy as a teaching strategy if implemented in a bilingual classroom in Tonga. This chapter is divided into six sections, that is, students' pre-intervention tests, motivation, students' achievement, students' perceptions of critical literacy as a teaching strategy, Tongan English teachers' views of critical literacy, and finally, the efficacy of bilingual strategies in supporting a critical literacy approach in Tongan classrooms. Different methods of data collection were used to obtain participants' responses to critical literacy as a teaching strategy. This chapter presents the findings based on the different methods of collecting data that were employed during the study.

5.1. Pre-intervention tests

The pre-intervention tests (Appendix 8 & 9) were to establish students' existing ability in both languages: Tongan and English. Each test consisted of a comprehension passage and language items. The test items used were different in the two tests. The specific aims of both pre-intervention tests were to find out students':

- Level of ability in English language
- Level of ability in Tongan language
- Ability to read Tongan passage critically
- Ability to read an English passage critically
- Ability to use both Tongan and English languages correctly.

Aims were discussed with the students on the day before the actual execution of the tests. Both tests consisted of two sections. Section one was a Comprehension passage and section two was on Language. Both tests were designed to take into account the students' level of schooling. Since it was only the beginning of the year and they were new to Form Six, the tests' level of difficulty was at Form Five level. The tests were both piloted with two firth-form students from my neighbourhood in Tonga. The tests were conducted on two different days, and were of 40 minutes duration.

Results from the first Pre-intervention test: Tongan subject

Table 5.1. Results according to test sections

Marks	Comprehension 10	Language 10
9	2 (5.9 %)	0
8	3 (8.8%)	0
7	5 (14.7%)	0
6	2 (5.9 %)	1 (2.9 %)
5.5	4 (11.8 %)	1 (2.9%)
5	8 (23.5 %)	4 (11.8 %)
4.5	3 (8.8%)	5 (14.7%)
4	2 (5.9 %)	3 (8.8%)
3.5	0	4 (11.8 %)
3	0	3 (8.8%)
2.5	1 (2.9%)	3 (8.8 %)
2	1 (2.9%)	5 (14.7 %)
1.5	2 (5.9 %)	5 (14.7 %)
1	0	0
0	1 (2.9 %)	
Mean	5.3	3.3
Median	5	3.5

Table 5.2. Results in total

Marks 20	Number 34	%
14	1	2.9
13	1	2.9
12.5	1	2.9
12	2	5.9
11.5	1	2.9
11	2	5.9
10.5	2	5.9
10	2	5.9
9.5	2	5.9
9	3	8.8
8.5	1	2.9
8	2	5.9
7.5	3	8.8
7	3	8.8
6.5	1	2.9
6	2	5.9
5.5	1	2.9
5	1	2.9
3	3	8.8
Mean		8.5
Median		8.8

Data in Table 5.1 shows the participants' marks that they achieved from the first pre-intervention test, Tongan subject (Appendix 8). The test was out of 20.

Table 5.1 shows the results according to the two sections of the test, comprehension and language. Each section was out of 10 marks. The comprehension section consisted of a passage with short-answer questions. The short-answer questions were designed to test students' understanding and knowledge of a passage. Also, some questions were aimed at testing students' critical thinking about the passage. For instance, question 7, '*Do you think the writer supports King Tupou 1 or King Tupou 5? Explain your answer using details from the passage?*' The highest mark obtained from this section was 9 and the lowest mark was 1. A total of 24 students passed this section and 10 students failed. The mean for this section was 5.3 and the median was 5.

The language section consisted of short-answer question items only, on Tongan language grammar. The highest mark obtained was 6 and the lowest mark was 1.5. The highest percentage of number of students (14.7%) obtained a 4.5 mark. Only 6 students passed this section and 28 students failed in this section. The mean was 5 and the median was 3.5.

The test results in total (Table 5.2), shows the highest mark was 14 obtained by one student and the lowest mark was 3 which was obtained by 3 students. 12 students scored a passing mark (10) or higher and 22 students failed the test. The mean was 8.5 and the median was 8.8.

From the test results, students appear to do better in the comprehension section than the language section. This indicates that the sampled students had good skills in comprehending passages and answering short answer questions from a passage. This data also suggests that students are quite weak in the grammar aspect of the Tongan language. The median (8.8) was lower than the passing mark (10). 16 students failing the test out of 34 is quite high. The median also indicated that the majority of the students' marks clustered below the passing mark (10). Therefore, the overall performance of the students based on the overall results, indicated a low student performance.

Results for the Pre-test 2: English language.

Table 5.3 Results according test sections

Marks	Comprehension 10	Language 10
8	1 (2.9%)	0
7	4 (11.8 %)	0
6	1 (2.9 %)	1 (2.9%)
5.5	2 (5.9%)	0
5	6 (17.6 %)	1 (2.9 %)
4	7 (20.6%)	6 (17.6%)
3.5	2 (5.9 %)	0
3	1 (2.9%)	5 (14.7%).
2	7 (20.6 %)	15 (44.1%).
1	2 (5.9%)	3 (8.8 %).
0	1 (2.9 %)	3 (8.8 %).
Mean	4.0	2.4
Median	4	2

Table 5.4 Results in total

Marks 20	Number 34	%
12	1	2.9
11	1	2.9
10	3	8.8
9.5	2	5.9
9	4	11.8
8	1	2.9
7.5	1	2.9
7	5	14.7
6.5	1	2.9
6	1	2.9
5	4	11.8
4	5	14.7
3	2	5.9
2	2	5.9
1	1	2.9
Mean		6.5
Median		7

From the pre-test in English (Appendix 9), Table 5.3 shows the students' results according to the two sections of the test, comprehension and language; each section was out of 10 marks. The comprehension section consisted of a passage with multiple-choice questions and short-answer question items. The multiple-choice items were designed to test students' understanding and knowledge of the passage. The short-answer items were designed to test students' knowledge of how the writer positioned the readers (Appendix 9). 14 students passed in this section and 20 students failed to score the passing mark of 5 or higher. The highest mark obtained from this section was 8 and the lowest mark was 1. The mean mark for this section was 4 and the median was 4.

The language section of the test consisted of proof-reading items only. It aimed to test students' ability in English language usage. Only 2 students passed in this section and 32 students failed. The highest mark was 6, scored by 1 student and the

lowest mark was a zero, scored by 3 students. The mean mark for this section was 2.4 and the median was 2.

The data in Table 5.4 show the results in total marks. Only 5 students passed this test and 29 students failed. The highest mark was 12, scored by one student and the lowest mark was 1, also scored by one student. The mean mark was 6.5, and the median was 7.

Based on the test's overall results, Tongan students in the study class performed better in English comprehension than in English language. 14 students passed the comprehension section but only 2 students passed the language section. The overall results in total show that only 5 students passed this test. This is a very low result. The median was 7 which indicated that students' mark was clustered around 7 which is below the passing mark (10). Therefore, the overall test results showed that the sampled students' ability in English language was quite low.

In summary, judging from the students' overall performances in the two pre-intervention tests, a higher number of students passed the Tongan subject test than the English test. This indicates that most students in the sampled class have a higher level of ability in Tongan than in English. In addition, the sampled students appeared to perform better in both Tongan language comprehension and English language comprehension than in the language aspect of the two languages. However, the overall test' results show that a high number of students from the sampled class failed in both the English and the Tongan pre-intervention tests. Therefore, this shows that these students' ability in both languages was quite low. It was found from the test's raw marks that those students who passed the Tongan subject were mostly the ones that passed the English test. This data analysis gave me, the researcher, the idea that some of the students in the study class had high ability in both languages but the majority of the students in this class had low ability in both English and Tongan languages. Because most of the students were below average in both languages, it suggested to me that I should use both languages interchangeably during the teaching of the study unit.

5.2. Motivation

In order to ascertain students' motivation in relation to the strategy, different methods of data collection were used. These included a questionnaire, observation and the researcher's reflective journal.

5.2.1. Questionnaire

A questionnaire (Appendix 7) was administered before the actual teaching of the unit. One of the aims was to find out what motivated students in their English class. The questionnaire was divided into four different categories. The last part was designed to gauge the interest of the students in their English class which was coded as "Motivation in their English classes". This relates to the topic for this section.

Before the researcher administered the questionnaire, the questions were discussed with the students to clear up possible misunderstandings. Forty minutes were given to students to tick the appropriate boxes. Questions 12 to 20, the last part of the questionnaire, used the rating scales: very often, often, rarely and never, and were aimed at determining students' motivation. To determine the factors that motivated students in their English class, this part was further divided into three different sub-headings: Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and participation habits in class. The data are illustrated in Tables 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7.

The questionnaires were numbered and scores were given for each response, with the most positive response getting the highest score of 4, then 3, 2, 1 and 0 for no responses. The overall score was obtained using the following formula: for a particular row the number of instances in a column is multiplied by the relevant rating score, with the four results totalled and then divided by 34 (the total number of students).

Table 5.5. Intrinsic motivation in English class (n=34)

Areas of focus	Very Often	Often	Rarely	Never	Overall score
Q. 12. In class I volunteer to read	5	6	11	8	2.27
Q. 17. In class I ask question when I am not sure	10	10	11	3	2.79
Q. 18. In class I complete my own work	5	24	3	2	2.94

Table 5.5 shows the factors that motivated students intrinsically in their English class. Out of 4, the highest score was “in class I complete my own work” with a score of 2.94. “In class I volunteer to read” had the lowest score of 2.27. Then “in class I ask question when I am not sure” scored 2.79. The data appear to show that students were not particularly self-motivated to read aloud in their English class. However, students seem to ask questions in class when uncertain and complete their own works. The scores for these two factors were not too low compared with the first factor.

Table 5.6. Extrinsic motivation in English class (n=34)

Areas of focus	Very Often	Often	Rarely	Never	Overall score
Q.13. In class I read when I am told to	17	10	2	5	3.15
Q.16. In class I participate when I am told to	13	6	7	8	2.71
Q. 19. In class I am active when work with peers	15	14	3	1	3.29

To determine students’ extrinsic motivation, factors such as “in class I read when I am told”, “in class I participate when I am told to” and “in class I am active when work with others” were used. Data on table 5.6 show the highest score was 3.29 for “in class I am active when work with peers” out of 4. “In class I read when I am told to” scored 3.15. The lowest score was “in class I participate when I am told to”, 2.71.

Table 5.6 reveals that students were mostly motivated extrinsically in English class. The data suggest that students were active in their English class when they were told by their teacher or when put to work with their peers.

Table 5.7. Participation habits in English class (n=34).

Areas of focus	Very Often	Often	Rarely	Never	Overall score
Q.14. In class I share my ideas and opinions	5	17	11	1	2.76
Q. 15. In class I volunteer to participate	17	11	3	3	3.23
Q. 20. In class I am active when work on my own	13	16	3	3	3.18

Students' participation habits in class were also included as a factor to determine students' motivation in their English class. It was decided for the purpose of this study only that factors such as "in class I share my ideas and opinions", "in class I volunteer to participate" and "in class I am active when work on my own", were used to determine students' participation habits in English class. The data obtained (Table 5.7) for this section shows the highest score to be 3.23, suggesting that students seem to be more active if left to participate voluntarily. The next highest score was 3.18, that is, when students are left to work on their own. When it comes to sharing ideas and opinions, the score was 2.76. This is not too low considering the total score is 4, but was somewhat lower than the other habitual behaviours.

In summary, the data obtained for this section from the questionnaire appear to show that students were chiefly motivated extrinsically in their English class. Students were either motivated by their teacher or when they worked with friends in class. Reading aloud in the English class appeared to be unappealing to students. After a closer look at this data, students' poor attitude towards reading can be connected to the idea that reading in English language is not a very interesting prospect for Tongan students. This view was confirmed for the researcher later in conversations with students and also reiterated in students' interviews. However, the data also show that students appear to participate actively when they volunteer or are left to work on their own but hesitate to share their ideas and opinions. This was also observed during the unit taught; students were only willing to share their opinions and ideas if allowed to use Tongan language. When questioned in English language, they opted to remain silent.

5.2.2. Observation

A total of 160 minutes of observation (Appendix 10) was carried out by the associate teacher in blocks of 40 minutes. This started in the second week of the unit taught. One 40-minute observation was done during the teaching of three texts studied. Then one 40-minute observation was conducted after the teaching of the three texts studied. Initially, two observation blocks of 40 minutes were planned for each text, then another two during the combination of the three texts, a total of eight blocks of 40 minutes each. But the observer had other administrative obligations, so the observation was cut down to four blocks of 40 minutes each. This might have influenced the data collected owing to the limited time of observation; it would have been more reliable to observe twice for each text to allow for comparisons to be made.

The aim of the observation was to record students' responses to the intervention unit, in particular to the use of critical literacy strategies and code-switching to teach English literature in relations to students' motivation and achievement. The observation schedule was in three parts. The first part involved the observer recording the five sampled participant behaviours. The second part was related to students' critical literacy-oriented behaviour and the last part was related to students' responses to the use of code-switching during the teaching of English literature. The observer was also required to record additional comments as necessary, which would help to provide a rich description of events and the classroom atmosphere.

Observation is not a "natural gift but a highly skilled activity for which an extensive background and understanding is required" (Bell, 2001, p. 156). Judging from this description, the observer encountered challenges. Obviously, the observer was not so familiar with the unit taught, so adequate time should have been given to her to get herself familiarised with the unit taught. Ideally, the teacher-researcher should have conducted the observation and someone else implement the teaching. This was impossible because it would have required a lot of time for the observer to study the unit to be taught. These are regarded as limitations encountered by the researcher during the process of observation.

For this section, the first part, behaviour, was further divided into two sub-categories: utterances and non-utterances. Utterances consisted of all behaviours that involved students in saying something or vocalising their reactions or responses towards what was taught. These included “initiates discussion”, “volunteers to read”, “volunteers to answer questions”, “participates in group discussions”, “shares opinions freely”, “participates in class discussions”, and “asks questions in class discussions.” The behaviours were then numerically coded and presented in seven different tables that follow. The analysis was based on the frequency of each type of behaviour which is included in the following tables.

Table 5.8. Frequency of behavioural utterances (the seven behaviours used).

1. Initiates discussion

Parti cipants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	0	1	1	0	2
S	7	4	4	2	17
J	0	1	0	0	1
E	0	1	0	0	1
M	0	1	2	1	4
TOTAL	7	8	7	3	25

2. Volunteers to read

Part cipants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	5	0	0	1	6
S	9	8	5	3	25
J	1	6	0	1	8
E	0	0	0	1	1
M	9	6	5	4	24
TOTAL	24	20	10	10	64

3. Volunteers to answer questions

Parti cipants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	0	0	0	0	0
S	8	13	9	4	34
J	4	0	0	0	4
E	0	0	0	0	0
M	5	8	9	4	26
TOTAL	17	21	18	8	64

4. Participates in group discussions

Parti cipants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	2	0	0	2	6
S	13	10	6	1	30
J	2	3	1	0	6
E	0	4	1	0	5
M	2	4	4	1	11
TOTAL	19	21	12	4	58

5. Shares opinions freely

Parti cipants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	5	4	0	0	9
S	11	13	5	1	30
J	6	0	0	0	6
E	2	0	0	2	2
M	4	4	0	0	8
TOTAL	28	21	5	3	55

6. Participates in class discussions

Parti cipants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	5	3	0	0	8
S	8	10	6	1	25
J	5	3	0	0	8
E	2	3	0	0	5
M	6	3	0	1	10
TOTAL	26	22	6	2	56

7. Asks questions in class discussions.

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	0	3	2	0	5
S	11	5	4	0	20
J	3	4	2	0	9
E	5	3	2	0	10
M	3	3	3	3	12
TOTAL	22	18	13	3	56

Table 5.8 displays the data from the section of the observation schedule, titled 'Frequency of behavioural utterances'. It is divided into seven different tables to illustrate the participants' behavioural utterances throughout the four blocks of observation. Each table shows the five participants and their individual responses according to the seven types of behaviours used. The total of each participant's responses is shown and so is the total of the five participants' responses to each type of behaviour.

The data appear to show a decline in the participants' individual responses throughout the four observation blocks. This is best illustrated by Observation 4. It has the lowest frequency of occurrences ranging from 8, 4, 3, 2, 3, 10, 3 respectively over time, when combining the five participants' responses. This observation was conducted after the teaching of the three texts used in the unit study.

The data also show clear differences between the students observed. Throughout the observation blocks, participants S and M had the highest frequency of responses in comparison to participants A, J and E. For instance, in relation to the first behaviour type, "initiate discussion", S and M had frequencies of 34 and 26 respectively, while the other three participants had zero frequency of occurrences. This seems to be the trend throughout the four observation blocks from this section of the observation schedule, except for behaviour type 3 (volunteers to answer question), where participant A outnumbered M by 1.

The data also reveal that certain types of behaviour are more dominant than others. In other words, participants exhibited certain behaviours more frequently than other behaviours throughout the four observation blocks. For instance, "initiates discussion" and "participates in class" had a total frequency of occurrence of 64, which was the highest frequency. "Shares opinions freely" had the lowest of 25. The other behaviour types 2, 3, 4, and 7 were 58, 55, 56, and 56 respectively.

In summary, the decline in certain behaviour types over time seems to suggest that students' motivation towards the unit taught fluctuated. At the beginning of the unit, as indicated by this section of the observation, students' motivations were relatively high. This could be accounted for by the fact that the first text taught, '*Beginning of the tournament*', a short story by Witi Ihimaera, was familiar to the

students. The first observation block was conducted during the teaching of this short story. This short story had been taught previously. As the teaching of the unit progressed, student motivation seemed to decline. A possible reason for this decline could be the delay in the teaching of the unit owing to timetabling issues which was also noted in the researcher's reflective diary.

In addition, there is an obvious difference between the responses of the sampled participants. Some students were obviously more responsive and active than others. As the observer noted in her extra notes, she opted to observe two students from the top stream, one average student and two students from the bottom stream. Participants S and M were definitely from the top stream. They frequently gained a high score of occurrences throughout the four observation blocks.

Lastly, certain behaviours were more frequently exhibited than others. Particularly, "initiates discussions" and "participates in class discussion." This shows that students were motivated to initiate discussion and to participate in class discussion during the teaching of the unit, probably because they were allowed to use Tongan language. Also, students were assigned to discuss ideas with peers before reporting back during whole class discussions. Through this procedure, students were confident with their ideas to be reported. "Shares opinions freely" as a behaviour scored the lowest. This is a typical behaviour that would be exhibited by Tongan students in the classroom. Shyness is quite instrumental in their lives. Students are afraid to share wrong opinions or ideas because they would be laughed at by other students. This was reiterated in the student interview. It is a prevailing cultural norm.

Table 5.9. Frequency of non-utterances observable behaviour.

Participants	8	9	10	11	12	13	Total (Q 8-Q13)
A	4	4	16	3	4	8	39
S	4	4	22	16	4	5	55
J	4	4	17	3	4	8	40
E	3	4	17	3	4	8	39
M	4	4	23	13	4	8	56
TOTAL	19	20	95	38	20	37	

Key:

8= Arriving in class on time

9= Ready for lesson without being told by the teacher

10= On task record (record every 5 minutes)

11= Completes tasks on time

12= Well-equipped with school materials (pens, note book, ruler etc)

13= Well-behaved in class, doesn't disturb others

The non-utterance observable behaviours (Table 5.9) were also analysed for signs of interest in the lesson. It was decided that such behaviours numbered 8 to 13 could be used as signs of eagerness and looking forward to participating in class.

Participant M had the highest total of frequency throughout this part of the schedule questionnaire, a total of 56. Participant S was next with a total frequency of 55. Participants A and E had the lowest frequency score which was 39. J had a total frequency of 40.

The lowest in frequency of behavioural occurrences was behaviour 8. It showed students' punctuality to class. Only four classes were observed, and the participants were always prompt to class except for participant E who was late for one class. Further to that, with behaviours such as "well-equipped with school materials (pens, note book, ruler etc)", and also "ready for lesson without being told", which were recorded once in every observation block, students were observed to behave and did so accordingly.

The observer also recorded the sampled participants' on-task behaviour every five minutes. It was assumed that in one observation block of 40 minutes, each student would be given five eight minutes of observation. Observations of participants' on-task behaviour took into account the fact that the teacher might be either lecturing or giving instructions. Therefore, the on-task behaviour was not restricted

to participation in given tasks, but included other factors such as listening attentively while the teacher was lecturing or giving instructions.

It was expected that each student's total score of frequency would be out of 32 for the four blocks, with a total of 160 for the five participants at the end of the four observation blocks. From the data in Table 5.9, the highest frequency was 23 scored by M, then S with 22 while J and E had 17 each, while A had 16. The five participants total was 95 out of 160. It was still a high score of frequency showing that students were relatively engaged with the unit taught.

In summary, this section of the observation schedule appears to show, based on sampled students' observable non-utterances behaviours, that students were eager to participate in the unit study. Students' motivation could be accounted for by the fact that the study unit was new and also the teacher was new to them, too. The observer noted in her extra notes that students were quite enthusiastic. She also noted that students were willing to know and to learn about the "new unit to be taught". "It was good to see them concentrating and participated actively."

5.2.3. Reflective Journal

A reflective journal was kept throughout the research process. I interacted with my reflective journal on a daily basis after every class. As I reviewed my journal, I divided it into two different sections: students' motivation and student achievement. Among the topics my journals sought to reflect on was students' motivation with regard to the unit taught and in particular critical literacy as a teaching strategy.

I decided to divide this part of section 5.2.3 into students' level of motivation at the beginning of the unit and in the course of the unit.

Students' motivation level at the beginning of the unit

After almost a month being at the research site, I finally got to meet my student participants, a Form 6 class. The very first day I was introduced to them by the associate teacher, they gave me a warm welcome which was shown by the friendly smiles on their faces. I introduced myself and the reasons for being there. I also mentioned that I would be with them for the rest of the first term, taking three English classes in a week out of a total of six classes. I then briefed them on my research study including the unit to be taught. They gave me a big round of applause afterward. The warm welcome provided was taken by me to mean that they were curious about the unit to be taught. This was regarded as motivation. It was noted that being a new teacher motivated the students to be attentive. The associate teacher has been teaching there for many years and she had taught almost all of this class in previous years. Owing to the prospect that I was new in the school, students were motivated to participate.

The actual unit was introduced using debate. When they were told the debate was to be conducted in the Tongan language, the room was filled with noises of approval. After the proposition was written on the board, the students were already chatting about it. The different verbal signs displayed were viewed by me as eagerness and willingness to join. The class was divided into two groups. Each group was to pick five members to make up their debate team. A coin was tossed to pick the affirmative team and the opposition. They were briefed on basic debate conventions, yet it was also stressed that the most important thing was their point of argument. The discussion began. It was noted that students were having fun discussing in their mother tongue. I circulated around the two groups to check on their progress. I was motivated by the fact that students participated actively. The debate presentation showed different ideas and views on sports and sports participation (Table 5.10). Students' responses were given in both Tongan and English, then translated into English by the researcher. Because students were using their own language, it was felt that responses given were quite genuine.

Table 5.10. Students’ existing views on sports and sports participation

AFFIRMATIVE TEAM	NEGATIVE TEAM
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students could travel overseas, and could bring back money to their own school. • Sport makes students healthy; their body will be active when at schools. • Students could get sports scholarship to overseas countries. • Students will have the chance to develop their talents. • Making schools popular. • Sports are a career path to students with average academic ability even low ability. • It will help to solve unemployment problems • Students will have the chance to learn about new sports and games. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affects students’ school works, so much time for training. • Getting hurt or injured when participating in sports. • From poor academic produces less chance of getting good jobs. • Too expensive to by sports facilities. • It encourages fighting between schools. For example, Toloa College and Tonga College.

The first text in the unit of work was a short story, “Beginning of the tournament” by Witi Ihimaera. Once the title was written on the board, students yelled out they had done the story last year. The first few activities were done at a fast speed.

In all, at the beginning of the unit, students were quite motivated by the fact that the teacher researcher was new. They were willing to hear more and to find out more about the unit taught. When the Tongan language was used as the medium of communication for the debate activity, undoubtedly, students were highly motivated to participate. Students also appeared to be motivated by being engaged with a familiar text. At the beginning of the unit, students’ motivation levels were high.

Students’ motivation level in the last half of the unit

In the midst of the unit, activities were tougher. For instance, despite the fact that the short story “Beginning of the tournament” had been taught the previous year, when it came to questions such as “How does the author develop or create this

kind of tournament?” “Who is the possible target audience for this story and why do you think this?”, students looked with blank faces. Also, when the newspaper article was taught, students found it difficult to analyse the language used by the writer. There were signs of withdrawal shown by students during these aspects of the unit.

Added to that, distractions from Mother Nature played its part. Cyclone Renee hit Tonga and there was no school for two days. The teaching of the unit was delayed. The next week, the timetable changed; my allocated time with the class was given to the associate teacher. The unit was on hold for almost two weeks. This inconsistency of the teaching spoiled the momentum which was built up at the beginning of the unit. Consequently, students’ levels of motivation declined tremendously.

Students realized also that the activities and tests carried out were not part of their assessment towards external exams. Despite the constant reminder that skills taught in the unit were essential to their preparation for external exams, general interest in the unit continued to decline. This was evident when work books were collected to mark; on two occasions, twelve students did not hand in their work books.

So, I resorted to using reinforcement such as prizes as a reward for keeping up with activities given, for example, handing in work books. There were also prizes awarded to the group with best effort when the class did group activities.

To revive the momentum, I repeated what we left off with. Extra activities were given on the first part after the almost two weeks of no teaching. The part which saw the withdrawal of students was re-taught and Tongan language was mostly used. Group work as a teaching strategy was employed more often. Students were encouraged to discuss ideas in Tongan and ask questions in Tongan. If ever they were asked questions in English, responses in Tongan were acceptable.

To be more consistent with the teaching of the unit, I asked for extra classes. Two extra classes were given from the religion teacher. His generosity was greatly appreciated. I then noted that students’ motivation began to escalate slowly and was higher towards the end of the unit taught.

5.3. Student Achievement

A critical literacy unit was taught using a bilingual approach. To keep a record of students' achievement in the unit taught, three different methods of data collection were used: observation, students' formative tasks and the researcher's reflective journal.

5.3.1. Students' formative tasks

Throughout the teaching process of the unit, students were given formative assessments. Formative assessment was executed after the teaching of each text in the unit study. A total of three formative assessments were given. The formative assessments were given in test form, ranging from writing to short answer questions. Each assessment had specific aims. Before the execution of each assessment, their aims were discussed the previous day together with marking criteria, particularly for the writing items. This section will be divided into three sub-sections according to the three formative assessment tests implemented

For this section, the analysis is based on the total marks achieved by participants. A detailed analysis of participants' achievements in terms of test questions will be presented in later sections where appropriate.

Test One: Writing (Total marks = 15 %)

The aims of this test (Appendix 11) were to:

- Assess students' ability to read Ihimaera's story critically;
- Test students' understanding of the story;
- Test students' ability to assess the way Ihimaera positions the readers in the story.

Students were required to write a series of paragraph on the given topic: “*How is Ihimaera encouraging his readers to think about sport? (E.g. non-competitive, about whanau etc).*”

The marking criteria used were designed according to the aims of the test. Since the emphasis was on students’ critical knowledge of the story, the marking criteria turned a blind eye to the language aspect. This was mentioned in the discussion of the marking criteria (Table 5.11), stressing to the students that it was just for the purpose of this task, but that a critical literacy approach *does* acknowledge language usage. (This was considered as a weakness of the marking criteria used). The marking criteria were discussed on the previous day before the actual execution of the test.

Table 5.11. Marking criteria for writing assessment on “Beginning of the tournament” by Witi Ihimaera

Criteria	Marks
• Ability to read Ihimaera’s story critically	5
• Understanding of the story	5
• Ability to assess the way Ihimaera positions the readers in the story.	5
TOTAL	15

Table 5.12. The test result for the writing formative assessment on Ihimaera’s story (15%).

MARKS	NUMBER	%
13	2	5.9
11	4	11.8
10	1	2.9
9	8	23.5
8	8	23.5
7	9	26.5
6	2	5.9
Mean	8.9	
Median	8	

According to the data displayed in Table 5.12, the highest mark for the test was 13 out of 15, scored by two students. 23 students scored a mark of 7.5 or higher and 11 students scored marks below 7.5. The mean was 8.9 and the median was 8.

In terms of the total number of students who sat the test, the highest percentage of number of students, 26.5 % scored a 7 and 23.5 % of the total students scored an 8 or 9 mark. A high percentage of number of students had a mark between 7 and 9.

The overall result of this test indicated a high of passing rate. The mean is quite high, 8.9; still a relatively high number of students (15) scored the mean of 8.9 or higher. The median also indicated that students' mark was clustered around 8 which is above the passing mark, 7.5. Therefore, the students' achievement from this test was satisfactory.

Assessment task two: Newspaper test (total mark =12%)

The second formative assessment task (Appendix 12) was implemented after the newspaper article was taught. This assessment task consisted of short answer question only. This assessment task's aims were as follow:

- Assess students' own evaluation of boxing as a sport;
- Find out the cultural implications of boxing as a sport;
- Find out how students assess the viewpoints given in the text.

Table 5.13. Results for the assessment two: Newspaper article test (12%)

MARKS	NUMBER	%
12	7	20.6
11	7	20.6
10.5	2	5.9
10	4	11.8
9.5	3	8.8
9	1	2.9
8	3	8.8
7.5	1	2.9
6	2	5.9
5.5	1	2.9
5	2	5.9
3	1	2.9
Mean	9.5	
Median	10	

This section focuses only on the overall achievement of the participants. Table 5.13 shows the results that participants achieved for the second assessment, based on the newspaper article taught. The total possible mark for this test was 12 and a total of 34 students sat the test. Remarkably, 8 participants achieved 100 percent from this test (a full mark of 12). A total of 30 students managed to obtain 6 mark or higher. Only 4 students scored a mark below 6. The mean was 9.5 and the median was 10.

The overall student achievement from this test result was quite high, as indicated by the mean of 9.5. A large number of students managed to score above the mean, a total of 23 students. Also, the median (10) was high too. This success could be attributed to the fact that the test items consisted of short answer items only. Also, the test was based on an article that was taught in class during the unit study.

Assessment task three: Writing test (10%)

This test (Appendix 13) was conducted after the teaching of the last text which was a poem. It was implemented in the form of a writing task under test conditions.

The aims for this task were to:

- Identify different issues or concerns with sports in their community;
- Suggest ways to solve these issues or concerns;
- Build their own views or arguments on sports in Tonga;
- Relate what they have learnt from the three texts to their own community.

The marking criteria were tailored to the aims of the test, as is illustrated in Table 5.14. As with the earlier tests, the marking criteria and the test's aims were discussed on the day before the test was executed. Marking criteria for this writing task were designed according to what its aims set out to achieve. Since the language component was left out of the marking criteria for the first writing task, 2 marks were assigned to language usage. Also, this task was more general than the previous writing task. Again, students were reminded that a critical literacy approach incorporates language usage. Prior to the test, it was assumed that students would have gained appropriate knowledge of sports and sports participation from the three texts taught in the unit, and added to their existing views, students should be able to create broader views on sports and sports participation. Through this sense, students were expected to identify issues concerning sports and sports participation in Tonga.

Table 5.14. Marking criteria for assessment task three: Writing test

CRITERIA	MARK
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discuss issues and concerns • Suggest solutions. 	4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Built own views on sports • Relate what learned from texts to reality 	4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language usage 	2
TOTAL MARK	10

The test (Appendix 13) consisted of three different topic choices under three different genres.

1. Creative Writing: Personal reflection or imaginative letter
 - Write a personal reflection or a personal letter on an unforgettable sport event.
2. Letter to the editor.
 - Write a letter to the editor to be published in one of the local newspapers. You are to address any current issues concerning sports (based in Tonga). You must include constructive suggestions on how to improve that issue.
3. Argument essay/expository essay.
 - Write an essay which builds an argument around ‘Sports is life to Tongans’.

Topic one and three were the most popular choice; 14 students and 20 students attempted them respectively. Topic 2 was the least popular one; none opted to attempt this question. Based on students’ choice, creative writing and the expository essay were preferred rather than the letter to the editor. Based on personal observation, these two genres of essay writing were the most used in class.

Table 5.15. Results for assessment three: Writing task (10%)

MARKS	NUMBER	%
9	3	8.8
8	4	11.8
7	7	20.6
6	10	29.4
5	7	20.6
4	3	8.8
Mean	6.3	
Median	6	

The data in Table 5.15 show the results from the third formative assessment task. The possible total mark was 10. Three students scored 9 marks. The lowest mark was 4, scored by three students. A total of 30 students passed this test and only three students failed. The mean was 6.3 and the median was 6.

Students achieved highly in this test. This is not only shown by the high number of students passing (30 students) but also, the highest percentage of number of students (29.4 %) scored 6 marks which is above the passing mark, 5. The median was 6.

In summary, students' achievements from the three formative assessment tests were quite high. The overall performance was quite satisfactory. The first assessment task was based on the short story, "Beginning of the tournament" by Witi Ihimaera, where 23 students out of 34 passed. The second assessment was based on a newspaper article, which 30 students passed. Then 31 students passed in the third assessment test.

Students' overall achievement from the first test indicated that students had gained a deeper understanding of the story, "*Beginning of the tournament*". Because students seem to have gained a deeper understanding of the story, it is taken here to mean that they were then able to interpret the story critically. Extract 5.1 is an exemplar of a student who earned a top mark which shows that he/she was able to look at the story critically, in this sense, being able to identify different points of view from the story. Such students appeared to be able to assess how the author positions readers. The fact that the marking criteria turned a blind eye to the language aspect coupled with the familiarity of the story probably accounted for the high marks achieved by students.

Extract 5.1. Sample essay from the first test (the first part only of the original essay)

Ihimaera is encouraging his readers to think about sports by using two different points of views from two different kind of people.

Firstly, Ihimaera is using the British or English point of view, which prefers to the pakeha or Jerry Simon's kind. Their point of view about sport is struggling to be the best. Which includes teamwork, hard work and competing to the best with other nations as well. They play accordingly to the rules what so ever. If not they are told to be gone from the game. Furthermore, pakeha think of sports as a way of showing pride for their country fame also which drives them to be very serious about sports at all times. Inside and field and outside as well. Jerry Simons as told in the story like all pakehas was organized, obey rules and a hardworking player, but shocked when he saw the methods and gears used by the Maori people.

Secondly, Ihimaera used the Maoris point of view about sports. Ihimaera form this sport in the story as part of a Maori tradition. Whereby families of this tribe would gather and have fun. They just play the game for the fun of it. No using rules and not all gears were ready, as long as they enjoy one another. They don't play for rewards as the pakehas. The accept anyone to their community, Maori or not. This shows the care-free environment of the Maoris and how kind they are. They play together with whoever is free old or young.....

Reflecting on the second test, which consisted of short answer item only, students had very high achievements. Twelve students had outstanding achievements, by scoring a full mark, 12. It is assumed here that the length of the text (a short newspaper article) made it easier to teach, in particular to students with English as a second language. Judging from the high number of students (7) who scored 100 percent, short answer items appeared to be easier for these students than writing essays. In fact, it was found from student interviews that they normally dreaded essay writing owing to language issues. Extract 5.2 is an exemplar of student work in the top mark category.

Extract 5.2. Sample answers from test two (the first three questions only)

1. What do you think of boxing?

Ans: I think boxing is a sport that you risk your lives for and it is a great sort from men (courageous men).

2. What are the cultural implications of such sport?

Ans: It is a sport for men, courageous men and brave men. It is a risky sport.

3. In overseas countries, Boxing is done by male and female. Do you think Tongan women should be allowed to join this kind of sport? Why?

Ans: Yes, because that will make boxing more famous, not only for the women who joins the boxing but it will also make our country famous.

The final assessment test also appears to indicate high student achievement. This is shown by the high number of students (31) who passed the test. This test was generally trying to get students to show their views of sports and sports participation after studying about sports and sports participations from the three texts in the unit study. Extract 5.3 is an example of how one student explained his/her views of sports after learning about sports from the three texts taught. The satisfactory performance shown by this test could be accounted for by the fact that students were exposed to different views of sport from the three texts taught. Students appeared to show that they could now relate those views to their own reality. This was also shown in their responses to other activities done in class. For instance, comparing their views on sports and sports participation after teaching of the three texts (Table 5.10 and Table 5.16) to their existing views established in the debate, there were great changes.

Extract 5.3. A sample essay from test three (the first part of the essay only)

Topic 3: Argument Essay/Expository Essay: “Sports is life to Tongans”

The topic ‘Sports is life to Tongans, I strongly do not agree with it. Sports isn’t a life to Tongans because, there are issues and concerns about it considering to the community.

Sports in Tonga not really that popular because the Tongans are not trained well for any kind of sports so people of their community become tired of it and their interest starts to fade away so a lot don’t care about sports anymore.

Sports in Tonga also expensive, for example that the fairs from going to places the equipments needed for the sports and it make people to don’t want sports especially when the economy is low nowadays. Besides sports is not life to Tongans because Tongan sports never come first or number which just make people don’t care.

Secondly, Tongan people should try and solve this problem or issues, by encouraging people to join sports, feels the passion of it mo matter losing for example, ‘Beginning of the tournament’, it doesn’t matter how the game is played or the other team is better than the other, what matters is that being together and have fun which brings out the main meaning of sports.

Tongan should also solve this problem by bringing the good and the right equipment for sports and train them as hard as they could. So that they can be brave enough to play, just like Walter Pupu’a at Boxing, he was trained really well and brave that he will bring back the best to Tonga.

5.3.2. Reflective Journal

The researcher's reflective journal was also used to record students' achievement. In particular, students' daily achievement and critical skills achieved were noted. Therefore, this sub-section will be divided into those two sub-categories: students' daily achievement and the critical skills they achieved from the unit taught.

Students' daily achievement

After each class, the researcher reflected on students' achievements then made notes in his diary. Through this process, new ideas surfaced to improve the teaching of the unit. Students' daily achievements were observed in terms of achieving lesson objectives and through the marking of students' work books. Certain tasks were marked in class through whole class discussions and other tasks were self-marked by the researcher when collecting students' work books.

Each daily lesson had different objectives. Lesson objectives were always written on the board, and then discussed before the actual teaching of that particular lesson. Objectives were kept as simple as possible to test comprehension and personal responses. After each lesson, basic comprehension objectives were easily achieved. These included objectives such as:

- Identify and discuss advantages of participating in sports;
- Make predictions based on title;
- List main incident of a story;
- Decide on how they would like sport in their own community;
- Draw examples from the text to support the different viewpoints presented about Walter;
- Identify the background of the poet;
- Relate viewpoints about athletes presented in the poem to what is normally found in their own society;
- Choose a sport that they like best from the three different sports presented by the three texts.

Different activities were implemented in order to detect skills and knowledge required by the above objectives. Despite the fact that certain activities were assumed to be quite simple in the sense of recall knowledge of the texts taught,

certain students dreaded these activities. This was obvious during the whole class discussion or oral discussion. When basic recalling questions were asked for clarification, most students did not respond.

It was then realized that the majority of the students rather preferred small group discussions. Approaches were then changed. For instance, instead of whole-class discussion, I put students into smaller groups of four or five. I then circulated around these smaller groups. Students were eager to discuss ideas and speak up in smaller groups. Some of the basic comprehension objectives were then achieved.

The students' workbooks were collected twice during the teaching of each of the three texts. One check was also done during the combination of the three texts. Certain activities were particularly left to be marked by the research teacher. In this way, it was ensured that students did individual tasks in class and also their assigned homework. It was also a means of finding out if what was taught was grasped. In fact, this was a way of checking if objectives created for that particular lesson were achieved.

The first two collections of the workbooks were quite disappointing. A few students did not hand in their workbook. Some students handed in their workbook but did not complete the given tasks. This disappointment forced the researcher to reflect more on the unit taught and how it was being implemented. The third collection was even worse; 12 students did not hand in their workbooks. Deeper reflection on the unit's implementation was done. It was then decided, instead of working individually, peer-work would be used. Students were paired up with their close friend in class or whoever they were comfortable working with. Every time they were given tasks to be marked by the research teacher, they discussed then wrote their own answers using their own words into their own individual workbook. Later on, the paired work was developed into small groups of three or four; they were still reminded to write their own answers into their work book. Such an approach proved effective; in the next collection of workbooks, much improvement was shown.

In all, the politics of teaching was illustrated to a great extent. At times, I, as a teacher, took things for granted. Little things such as designing basic comprehension objectives often put me into the lazy zone. Thinking basic

comprehension objectives did not take much to achieve; such was a real myth! It was observed that the means of communicating the objectives to the students was essential. Importantly, teaching approaches needed to be effective coupled with considering the different abilities that made up a class. At later stages, both streams in the class were actively involved, shown by workbook turn over. Objectives were shown to be achieved.

Critical skills achieved.

In contrast, objectives testing personal responses and critical skills took an extra effort to achieve. These are examples of such objectives:

- Realize that they are free to disagree with an author’s portrayal or representations of something;
- Discuss how the author (Ihimaera) wants his readers to think of participating in sport and what sport is all about;
- Identifies main messages in an article and shows an awareness of how a writer wants his audience to think;
- Explain the poet’s attitude towards the athlete in the poem and provide evidence for your view;
- Find a way of graphically representing a simile or metaphor in the poem then draw it on paper.

The above examples of objectives from across the units were shown to be difficult to achieve. They were achieved, but students together with the teacher spent extra time and extra effort in doing extra reinforcing activities in order to achieve these intended learning outcomes. For instance, under the objective of “find a way of graphically representing a simile or metaphor in the poem”, students instead drew incidents that happened in the poem. Under the objective, “realize that they are free to disagree with an author’s portrayal or representation of something”, students followed the author’s manipulation and were reluctant to dispute the authors’ portrayal. This was not only shown by students’ daily tasks but also in certain assessments.

In summary, it was quite difficult to train students to examine texts critically. It was even more difficult to convince them that authors at times manipulate readers to view issues through texts from certain angles. It would appear that students

were previously taught to decode texts rather than critically examine them. This was reiterated in the students' interviews and similarly in the teachers' interviews. That teaching of text normally consisted of decoding instead of critically analysing the texts. At the end of the unit, students highly recommended critical literacy as critical lens to view texts. They eventually gained critical skills to views sports and sports participation differently from what they originally thought. Students were seen to add on new ideas and views (Table 5.16) to their existing views on sports and sports participations as given previously, which were gathered from students' activities given after the teaching of the three texts. This is presented in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16. Students' views of sports and sports participation after studying about the three texts (the study unit).

View of sports in general	Views of participating in sports
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socialisation • Family reunion • Honour family • Bring pride to family and country • Glorious in victory • Patriotic, makes sport people proud of their country, and make country famous. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Playing to no standard rules • Players must have dedication • Players must be committed to their games in order to win. • Train hard • A person is valued only if became a hero. • Once dead, no longer honoured.

5.4. Students' reactions and perceptions of Critical Literacy as a teaching strategy

The unit prepared was taught using a critical literacy teaching strategy. To determine and to obtain students' perceptions of critical literacy as a teaching approach to implement in a Tongan bilingual classroom, various methods of data collection were used. These included observation, interviews with students, reflective journal and students' formative assessment tasks.

5.4.1. Observation

The third part of the observation schedule was aiming at recording students' reactions towards critical literacy and it was labelled as critical literacy-oriented behaviour in the observation schedule. The observer was briefed that whenever students showed any pertinent reactions, either verbal or non-verbal, she was to write down their initials on the space provided according to the observation schedule. This section was further divided into two categories. Questions 14- 16 were grouped together as frequency of achieved understanding of texts. This will be displayed in Table 5.17. Questions 17 and 18 (Table 5.18) were grouped together to determine frequency of students' achieved critical skills when a critical literacy approach was used. The two different sections are illustrated by the tables that follow:

Table 5.17. Frequency of occurrences showing understanding of texts

14. Gives reasons why authors write texts

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	1	0	1	2	4
S	1	3	8	6	18
J	1	0	1	2	4
E	1	1	1	2	5
M	1	3	4	4	12
Total	5	7	15	16	43

15. Shows understanding that texts offer a partial view of reality

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	0	0	2	3	5
S	0	3	9	3	15
J	0	0	4	3	7
E	0	1	2	3	6
M	0	3	4	3	10
Total	0	7	21	15	43

16. Is willing to disagree with an author's position of something

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	0	0	0	1	1
S	1	3	6	1	11
J	0	0	0	1	1
E	0	1	0	1	2
M	0	3	4	2	9
Total	1	7	10	6	24

Data in table 5.17 reveals the frequency of occurrences showing students understanding of texts taught as recorded by the observer. The data were divided into three different tables according to the types of behaviours chosen to use for this section. The totals of each behaviour type were 43, 43 and 24 respectively. Also the total of all the participants' frequency of occurrences are given under each observation block.

The data in Table 5.17 appear to show a progress in the students' behavioural occurrences over time during the four blocks of observation. For instance, participant A, under the behaviour type of "gives reasons why authors write texts", progressed towards the end from 1, 0, 1 then 2 in the last block of observation. Also, participant E, under the behaviour type, "shows understanding that texts offer a partial view or reality", progressed from 0 to 1, 2 then 3 in the last observation block. Then participant J, under the behaviour type, "is willing to disagree with an author's position on something", progressed from 0 in the first

three observation blocks to 1 in the final observation block. This shows that sampled participants, though slowly, still managed to exhibit reactions and responses to the critical skills section of the unit.

Additionally, the data also show the first two types of behaviour (14 and 15) to be more dominant than the last behaviour type (16). “Give reasons why authors write texts” and “shows understanding that texts offer a partial view of reality”, score a total of 43 occurrences respectively. “Is willing to disagree with an author’s position of something” scored the lowest of 24.

Lastly, as in the previous observation data, two participants dominated and scored more over time than the others, that is participants S and J. S scored a total of 18 from the observation numbered 14, then 15 and 11 from the observation numbered 15 and 16. M scored 12, 10 then 9 from these three observations (numbered 14, 15 and 16). The other three participants (A, J and E) scored a total of 9 and less respectively over these observations (numbered 14, 15 and 16). Obviously, participants S and M were more active and responsive than the other three participants.

Table 5.18. Frequency of occurrences showing the use of critical skills.

17. Shows evidence of willingness to form their own views of a topic

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	0	1	0	1	2
S	1	5	3	2	11
J	0	1	0	1	2
E	0	1	1	1	3
M	1	1	3	3	8
Total	2	9	7	8	26

18. Shows ability to critique society's view of sports and sports participation

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	0	0	0	0	0
S	1	6	3	3	13
J	0	0	0	0	0
E	0	0	1	0	1
M	1	0	3	3	7
Total	2	6	7	6	21

Table 5.18 presents two tables of data related to the participants' reactions to use of critical skills during the teaching of the study unit. It displays the frequency of occurrences showing the use of critical skills based on the two different types of behaviours numbered 17 and 18.

The first type of behaviour, "shows evidence of willingness to form their own view of a topic", indicates that the participants were reacting in a slow progress throughout the four blocks of observation. In contrast, the second type of behaviour, "shows ability to critique society's view of sports and sports participation", reveals a lack of responses at all from sampled participants, especially participants A, J and E.

The five participants' total frequency of occurrences from each observation block was quite low, ranging from a total of 2 to 9. However, there appears to be more responses from participants from observation blocks 2 to 4 compared to only 2 frequencies of occurrence at the beginning (observation block 1). The total of the four observation blocks under each type of behaviour, 26 and 21 are low also. As with the previous observation tables, participants S and J continue to respond more than the other three participants, A, J and E.

In summary, the observation data used for the first part of this section (data in Tables 5.17 & 5.18) generally showed a progress in the participants' reactions to the unit taught when a critical literacy approach was used. This indicated that students had picked up different reasons why authors wrote texts as they engaged with more texts in the study unit. For instance, reasons such as "to inform readers about different cultural values of sports", "to expose readers to different sport-related terms" and "how sport heroes are honoured in different countries" were given in some of the students' responses to related questions given in class. It was also noted from this data that students were observed to slowly pick up the fact that texts offer a partial view of reality. From the first observation block, this knowledge was totally foreign to students. The total of zero responses confirmed this from the first block of observation.

However, students appeared to realize that texts offer a partial view of reality, through intertextuality, as noted during the fourth observation block (shown by the behaviour type 15). Students mentioned during the focus group interview that an

intertextual approach exposed them to a variety of view-points and to the realization that texts offer a partial view of reality. But, the behaviour type numbered 16, showed a relatively low total score of frequency of 24. It appears to show that students were not so keen to disagree with the way authors position something in the text. The low responses (a total frequency of occurrence of 6 for the five participants) at the end of the fourth observation block showed this. This behaviour was observed by the researcher throughout the teaching of the unit. It is suspected that this is related to the fact that Tongan students are brought up in a culture in which they are taught to listen to their elders. Disputing them is a cultural shame. English teachers made mention of this behaviour during the focus group interview with them.

From the second part of the observation (data in Table 5.18) for this section, observing of critical skills picked up by students when a critical literacy approach was used to teach the unit, the frequency of occurrences was quite low. Both types of behaviour scored a total of 26 and 21 respectively. Even the total of the five participants' responses from each observation block was low, ranging from a 2 to 9. However, it must be noted that the observation was conducted once during and once after the teaching of each text. The researcher is confident that if time had permitted the observation to be conducted twice each time, there would be changes to this trend. Some of the assessment tests indicated that students had picked up critical skills as did notes in the researcher's reflective diary which are discussed in other sections of this chapter.

5.4.2. Students' interview

A sample of six students was interviewed in a focus-group session. The sample was selected randomly. It was initially planned to select two different groups to interview, but time hampered this plan. So this is acknowledged as a weakness in this data collection method. Two different groups would have been a better representation of the whole 34 students in the sample class. Not only that, but two different groups enable a comparison of views to take place. This would be a recommendation for future research.

The interview (Appendix 14) was conducted in English. However, students were encouraged to use Tongan language if needed. The Tongan responses were translated into English by the researcher then double-checked by my associate teacher. After the interview transcription, students were on holidays; my associate teacher double-checked the translation and the transcription.

The actual interview was divided into three different parts: English as subject, critical literacy and code-switching. The first two parts are dealt with in this section. Several aims were formulated to direct the interview. The first two aims are appropriate to this section. Questions 1 to 9 addressed these two aims as follows:

- To find out if your views of sport has changed after a critical literacy unit;
- To record your opinions of critical literacy as teaching strategy.

The interview was scheduled to take place on the very next day after the whole unit was taught. Owing to uncontrollable circumstances, the interview was postponed for almost two weeks from the end date of the unit. Before the interview began, students were given a very brief overview of the unit taught, the meaning of critical literacy and texts taught. The interview was conducted as a focus.

After the interview transcription, this section of the interview was then coded according to emerging themes. It was divided into three different sub-categories: Most enjoyable aspect of English subject, teaching methods used by previous English teachers and Critical literacy effects in the unit taught. The interviewees are given pseudonyms for anonymity purposes.

Most enjoyable aspects of English as a subject

The first part of the interview was to establish students' attitudes towards English as a subject by trying to determine which aspect of English they enjoyed the most. It was assumed that students' general attitude towards English was essential when they were later asked for their views on critical literacy. Some of the students' direct responses are quoted here.

According to the six participants, English literature as opposed to language was the most enjoyable aspect or part of English as a subject.

Natalie: *“Literature is more fun because you discuss it, you discuss the parts, and its more understandable, also how you look at different types of English used , like English used in stories, also using of old language as used in the poem (from the unit), it’s very cool.”*
(All interviewees agree.)

Also, they enjoyed English literature very much since it was much easier to learn than the language aspect of English as a subject.

Veiz: *“Literature is simple, it’s about poems, like the unit taught, you learn about sports, you know more about it when learning literature, how the authors give you different ideas about sports, also it’s not a mind thinking, brainstorming thingy, the answers are already given in the story. It is easy to understand.”* (The others agree too.)

Kessa: *“When questions are asked, you could answer it easily, and even writing, you could do it coz they are all easy, when you know the story you could do all that.”* (All interviewees agree.)

They started liking this aspect of English from junior classes (Forms One to Three). They also mentioned that writing about or on English literature was much easier after studying a piece of literature. Students also mentioned that English literature appealed to them ever since junior classes (Forms 1-3).

Mary: *“At Form Three, Form Two and Form One, what to learn was given straight. Also Form One, the basic given in Form One, you will see and learn the same things in Form Two and upper levels except they are given better explanation or more details. Since Form One because it is much easier, you got to really discuss it, like if it’s a story, once you know the story well you know everything, when it comes to essay writing, it was easy.”* (All agree.)

According to the sampled students, the language aspect of English subject was confusing. Different teaching approaches used to teach English literature captured students’ high interest in this aspect of English as a subject.

In contrast, the language aspect of English as a subject was identified as a difficult aspect to learn. Students continued to state that English language was confusing. Interestingly enough, they even mentioned that in Tongan language as a subject,

the language aspect was equated with the English language aspect, with both difficult to learn.

Felis: *“Language is difficult; it’s asking what that is for, why that word is used for that. It’s confusing.” (All agree.)*

They identified that this aspect of English was students’ biggest weakness. They then specifically mentioned that “things like continuous, perfect tenses and the likes are confusing”. To students, as they progressed to upper classes, English language aspect seemed new in every level. “Even in Tongan subject, grammar is difficult, proverbs in Tongans are easier.”

In summary, students’ enjoyment of English literature began when they started high school at Forms 1 to 3. Students also mentioned that they enjoyed Tongan literature too, compared to Tongan language such as grammar. This is aligned with their interest in English as a subject. However, the reason for enjoying English literature more was that they were introduced to English literature since entrance to college using different texts such as a poems, short stories and so forth. Through the discussions of these texts, students were exposed to different ideas about life. High interest in English literature was maintained from that point. Added to that, English literature and English language were taught separately. It is suspected here that one may have been over emphasised at the expense of the other. Consequently, students had an unequal interest in these two aspects of English as a subject.

Teaching methods used by English teachers

Students noted that previous English teachers’ emphasis was on literature only. Their previous English teachers employed a variety of approaches ranging from discussions, brainstorming, and group work to dramatization. Tongan language was also used. This was mostly done at junior levels; as they advanced to senior classes, teaching approaches changed. Students commented that literature was more fun in junior levels than at senior levels.

Mary: *“I think that the aspect that they really taught and put their focus on is Literature, they really taught it, because when our previous English teachers taught literature, she used both English and Tongan language, makes it easier to understand, that was Form one, but in Form 2, it was a palangi (European) and it was harder to understand, it’s better to teach in both Tongan and English to make it easy to understand.”*

Natalie: *“Also, one of my previous English teachers used lots of different activities which make that part of literature easy to understand. Example, if it was short story, you dramatize it, or behind the scene activities, or dramatize the moral of the story which deepens our understanding of the story, makes you like the story better and it sticks to your mind, and you read and act a story you will never forget it, and when you dramatize it, it makes it more understandable just like you act out a movie, or that piece of literature.. Sometimes it’s better to act out the story than reading it, makes it, clearer and more understandable.”*

Kessa: *“At junior levels, we used to dramatize it and it was understandable and the teaching and instructing in Tongan was more understandable where as some teachers taught in English only so it’s not that clear, your mind is not there when taught in English only.”*

At the present time, students realized that approaches used by their former teachers were no longer used. They believed that teachers at senior levels think students are mature and they should try to learn on their own.

Lilly: *“As we are getting older, things are more advance, it means no more play stuff , no more fun activities, it’s all up to us, to read it then try to understand it, do it on our own.”*

Felis: *“I missed the old ways. With now, you may understand the story but you haven’t really done any things to make you understand it deeper.”*

Natalie: *“Because you are mature enough, maybe to make us not to rely on teachers anymore, teachers realize the more they teach us the old ways, students do not try hard enough, students tend to rely so much on teachers, students wait for teachers to give them every things . Dramatization now is a waste of time. It is time consuming. Maybe that is why teachers now do not use dramatization anymore.”*

In summary, all the interviewees noted that their previous English teachers put their emphasis on teaching of English literature. Also, different teaching approaches were used to teach English literature. This included dramatization, role play, small group discussion and so forth. But, the interviewees indicated that these teaching approaches are no longer used in senior levels. Those teaching approaches were mostly used in junior levels only (Forms 1-3). In senior levels,

teachers gave them everything (notes on texts, etc), or they were told to try to understand the text by themselves. They suggested that learning about literature was not fun anymore.

Critical literacy effects in the unit taught

The debate at the beginning of the unit was ranked as the most enjoyable part. The purpose of the debate was to establish students' existing views on sports and sports participation. They viewed the debate as a fun way of learning about the two sides of an issue. The other part was the poem. They enjoyed the discussions in Tongan and English. Group work as a teaching approach was also highly commended.

Natalie: *"I learned about the good and bad sides of sports, you learned new points about sports, and then you learned new ideas from the texts about sports, not only the short story but also new ideas from the debate. Yes I like when it was done in Tongan because I could understand a lot of things in Tongan then I just translated into English, it is much easier that way."* (All interviewees agree.)

Mary: *"I really liked how the poem was discussed, I really like discussions, this was done in languages, Tongans and also English, and the discussions of the terms, and we do not usually discuss the terms. We also love the group activities, we shared our thinking and ideas with others and likewise. When you find something difficult, there's always be someone on the side to ask. Learning in smaller groups is much easier than bigger groups."* (All interviewees agree.)

Learning the three texts through a critical literacy approach helped change students' existing views of sports and sports participation.

Kessa: *"We all thought sports is just about competition but it isn't, sports can be about having fun and getting together and stuff, and getting to know others, instead of thinking that sports is always a waste of time, but sports can be a career and sometimes we look down on sports people but sports people are more wealthy than bright students at school, its fast money. Sometimes you think that you are academically capable you think you can help with government development but those really good sports people; they advertise our country when they go overseas. So these are new views added after learning about sports."* (All interviewees agree.)

Critical literacy as a teaching approach to teach literature was seen as quite advantageous to students. The use of intertextuality was a bonus too.

Felis: *“Because it is two sides, you bound to be exposed to and know at the same time the good and bad sides of something, you don’t get to know only one side of the story, instead you get to know both sides.” (All interviewees agree.)*

Natalie: *“Intertextuality helps us to understand the different sides of teaching and usage of English, you are exposed to different texts genre, for instance, not just short story, but also poetry and newspaper article and what each genre likes. Also you are exposed to different views and their differences.”*

With regard to the disadvantage of critical literacy, students thought it might be confusing to some students. Based on the unit taught, they thought presenting different views from different texts might confuse some students. They thought some students might not be able to make up their minds on which view to take.

Kessa: *“More texts make students confusing, due different views you cannot tell which one is which or which one the best view, particularly low ability students, when more than one texts is taught, makes them confusing. It seems that won’t be able to make up your mind with different texts and ideas presented, whether you will take Ihimaera’s or the newspaper article. It would be hard to some people, to pick which one they support or like.” (Two other interviewees agree with Kessa.)*

Yet some students argued that it should not be confusing since texts presented contrasting views.

Natalie: *“I don’t think it is confusing. Students should be happy to have variety of views to choose from.” (The other two interviewees agree with Natalie.)*

Students eagerly stated that a critical literacy approach made them like English literature even more. This approach also helped change students’ attitude towards English as a subject. Students stated they now viewed reading differently.

Mary: *“Yeah we did like English but didn’t really understand a lot until we used different kind of texts, I am getting to like it more. I understand things better and am getting to like it more.” (All interviewees agree.)*

Normally, reading was dreaded. Critical literacy made it fun to read. Reading was now viewed as a vehicle for fun discoveries and learning new things. Critical literacy motivated the reading of different texts.

Veiz: *“Critical Literacy makes it more interesting, I didn’t really like reading before, but how it taught in the unit makes me like reading or makes me want to read more which will help to*

improve my reading in English, critical literacy motivates me to read on and to read to know more, and to read as much as I could, and to read to understand. I like Literature more when using critical literacy.” (All interviewees agree.)

Students continued to state that reading through a critical literacy lens, exposed them into new vocabulary and new ideas. Students were also exposed to a variety of viewpoints when they read and engaged with different texts. It was also a means of improving their English.

Felis: *“It makes my reading better, it makes me want to read more and makes me understand what I read better, I discover lot of new vocabularies, getting new ideas, especially with old English texts, the more I read the better I understand it. It motivates me to read more, to discover different points of views especially when using different texts, the more you read the more you read, it also helps to improve my English.”*

Lilly: *“You are exposed to different things, you learn different things also, at times we only use one text like a short story, but using three or more and different texts make you learn about different things. Like the using of the newspaper article is something new, we hardly learn about newspaper article and this time I learn something about the genre of newspaper article and how it is written.”*

In summary, students’ attitudes towards English as a subject have been shaped by the way they were taught since junior classes. Students maintained an enduring passion for English literature from junior classes. Teaching methods implemented by teachers played a major role in stimulating students’ interest in English as a subject. They were exposed to English literature through different teaching strategies which made this aspect of English appealing to them. That passion was still evident even now in senior classes. The introduction of a critical literacy approach made them like literature more. Critical literacy developed a new interest in English, in particular the aspect of reading. Reading was now viewed in a positive manner compared to previous negative views. Critical literacy had a positive effect on these students’ learning of English as a subject.

5.4.3. Students' formative assessment task

As mentioned earlier, students sat three different formative assessment tasks. In this section, one of those three tasks will be used to indicate students' perceptions of critical literacy. It was the writing task (Appendix 11) based on the short story "Beginning of the tournament" by Witi Ihimaera. This task was picked for this section because its aims were geared towards a critical examination of what they had learned from the story after experiencing it through a critical literacy approach. A general analysis of this was given earlier, but a detailed analysis based on participants' marks according to different aspect of the marking criteria will be presented here. The question is as follow:

How is Ihimaera encouraging his readers to think about sport? (Example: non-competition, about whanau etc).

Again, the test's aims are as follow:

- Assess students' ability to read Ihimaera's story critically;
- Test students' understanding of the story;
- To test students' ability to assess the way Ihimaera positions the readers in the story.

The same marking criteria were used as given in Table 5.11 earlier under section 5.3.1 Table 5.19 presents the results participants obtained from Assessment Test One. Each student's marks for each aspect of the marking criteria used are presented in this table. That is, students' critical ability, understanding of the story and their individual assessment or comment on how the author, Ihimaera positions the readers.

The first aspect of the marking criteria, "critical ability", aimed at assessing students' ability to respond critically to the given test question based on the story. In this sense, students were expected to discuss ways that Ihimaera used in the story to encourage his readers to think of sports and sports participation. Students were required to identify then discuss these features. These, among other things, included characters' behaviour, the appropriateness of the setting and the points of view used.

The second aspect of the marking criteria, “understanding of the story”, expected students to provide correct and appropriate details from the story as evidence to support their discussions. Details given from the story should be able to show good knowledge of events or the plot of the story. Students must be able to select relevant details and examples only, instead of re-telling the story. The third aspect, “comment on author”, expected students to be able to discuss how the author positions readers. Students should be able to discuss this, then make their own decision on which view to take. Students were also expected to be able to draw from their own reality to support their discussion in this part.

Table 5.19. Result of assessment task one according to marking criteria.

Marks	Critical Ability	Understanding of story	Comment on author
	Total: 5%	Total: 5%	Total: 5%
1	1 (2.9 %)	0 (0 %)	5 (14.7%).
2	9 (26.5%).	3 (8.8%).	16 (47.1%).
3	18 (53.9%).	13 (38.2%).	11 (32.4%).
4	6 (17.6%).	17 (50%).	2 (5.9%).
5	0 (0%).	2 (14.7%).	0 (0 %).

The overall percentage were as follow: 13 marks (2 students) = 5.9%, 11 marks (4 students) = 11.8 %, 10 marks (1 student) = 2.9 %, 9 marks (8 students) = 23.5%, 8 marks (8 students) = 23.5%, 7 marks (9 students) = 26.5 % and 6 marks (2 students) = 5.9%.

According to data in Table 5.19, the “critical ability” aspect of the marking criteria had the highest percentage of students (53.9 %) or 18 students, scoring 3 marks; 6 students (17.6%) scoring 4 marks and none scoring full mark. About 30%, a total of 10 students, scored 2 marks or below. In other words, 10 students failed to pass in this aspect of the marking criteria, and a total of 24 students scored a passing mark or higher.

The second aspect of the marking criteria had 17 students (50%) scoring 4 marks. It also shows that the lowest mark scored was 3, which is above the half mark, 2.5. In other words, all students scored a passing mark of 2.5 or higher. Two students scored full marks.

The last aspect of the marking criteria, “comment on author”, indicated that the majority of the students scored 2 marks, that is 16 students (47.1 %). 11 students (32.4 %) scored 3 marks and only 2 students (5.9 %) scored 4 marks, with none scoring full marks.

In summary, the data in Table 5.19 shows that students seemed to do well in the test according to its overall result. However, in relation to students’ performance according to the three aspects of the marking criteria, students appeared to perform far much better in one aspect (understanding of the story) than the other two. This shows that students were able to select appropriate and relevant details from the story to support the discussion of the question’s requirements. It also shows that students had acquired a good understanding of the storyline. This observation was noticed in the previous section. It is believed here that students were adequately exposed to the story through the different activities conducted, ranging from whole-class discussion, and small-group work to short answer questions. In addition to this, the story was taught in the previous year.

Students’ ability to respond critically to the question given based on the story was satisfactory according to the data in Table 5.19. This may be accounted for by the fact that students had acquired a very good understanding of the story. Students were able to select specific features used by Ihimarea which would encourage readers to think of sports or sports participations as a social event or cultural gathering. These included different viewpoints used in the story (as illustrated by the sample test script given in section 5.3.1, Extract 5.1), some students also discussed the appropriateness of the setting. This high number of students (24) passing this aspect of the marking criteria confirmed this suggestion.

But the last aspect of the marking criteria showed a low pass rate in comparison to the first two aspects. Only 13 students scored a pass mark or higher and 21 students failed. This suggests that the majority of the students in the class could not make a comment or judgment on how an author positions the reader in a story. It also suggests that students could not comprehend how authors position readers in the story. A possible reason for this is that this test was conducted at an early stage of the teaching of the unit, too early to detect such critical skills in students. This test was conducted right after the teaching of the first text of the unit study.

Had this kind of activity been done later on in the study unit, the researcher is confident that majority of the students would have picked up such a skill. The sections on post-intervention test, reflective journal and observation which are related to this aspect showed students to have gained this skill.

5.5. Tongan-English teachers views of critical literacy as a teaching approach

Obtaining Tongan-English teachers' views of critical literacy as a teaching approach was done through a focus group interview (Appendix 15). A total of 12 teachers made up the English Department at the study school. The interview was conducted in one group of one session only. Two smaller groups of focus-groups would have allowed comparison of data and had been initially planned for. Unfortunately, lack of time restricted this from happening. The focus group kept on being delayed owing to teachers' other professional obligations and engagements. This is acknowledged as a weakness of this data collection method. For future research, smaller groups of 5 to 6 would be recommended.

Before the actual interview, a workshop on critical literacy and bilingual education was conducted by the researcher. The purpose was to familiarize English teachers with the notion of critical literacy and bilingual education. The workshop was divided into the following parts:

Critical Literacy:

- What is critical literacy?
- Why use critical literacy?
- How can critical literacy be taught?
- Samples of critical literacy questions.

Bilingual education:

- What is bilingualism?
- Three dimensions (aspects or elements) of bilingual education.
- Two types of bilingual education: additive and subtractive bilingualism.

Code-switching:

- What is code-switching?
- Code switching in teaching.

The work-shop ended with the researcher showing teachers a very brief overview of the unit to be taught, as one example of how to plan a unit on critical literacy. Teachers were then given the workshop notes to re-read before the actual interview took place. On the actual interview day, 11 teachers attended and one was on sick leave. The interview was conducted in a focus-group but geared towards a '*talanoa*' method. This is culturally appropriate especially when interviewees make a large group. The '*talanoa*' method of interviewing requires all interviewees to contribute or dispute views towards the topic. The interviewer introduced the question or the topic, and then participants put forward their views. The '*talanoa*' method can cater for a group as small as two or three and for a whole extended family or as many as a 'kava' party can cater for.

Before the beginning of the interview, aims were written on the board for discussion and a very brief recap was given on the workshop conducted on critical literacy. Among the aims written for the teachers' interview, the following two were related to this section.

- To record your views on the benefits of using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in Tongan classrooms;
- To record your views on any problems when using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in Tongan classrooms.

The interview was then coded according to the following emerging themes. Although this section in particular was looking at teachers' views on critical literacy, themes such as reasons for opting to teach English and challenges in teaching English in Tongan classrooms were considered in the broader umbrella of critical literacy. Therefore, this section will be divided into the following sub-sections: reasons for opting to teach English as a subject; challenges of teaching English in Tongan classrooms; views on critical literacy as a teaching approach, its advantages and disadvantages. The interviewees are given pseudonyms for anonymity purposes.

5.5.1. Reasons for opting to teach English subject

Teachers were asked why they opted to teach English. A variety of reasons surfaced. These included: the passion to share; forced by circumstance; influences from previous English teachers; and English was their best subject at high school.

The passion to share and to help young Tongans motivated teachers to teach and to teach English as a subject. It was a rewarding feeling to be able to share what they had. When students verbally indicated that they had learnt an aspect of English as a subject, such as writing or being able to speak in English, it was particularly satisfactory. It prompted teachers to enjoy teaching, in particular the teaching of English as a subject.

A number of teachers ended up teaching English because of circumstances beyond their control. This included the shortage of English teachers.

Soane: *“I was asked to teach English instead of me choosing to teach English. There was no one else to teach English. I tried it then now I am enjoying it.”*

Paneti: *“I was frustrated when I was punished for speaking in Tongan in school. I also spoke broken English during assembly and quite humiliating because students were laughing at me. This motivated me to study harder and to give it my best effort in English, I obtained good external examination grades then I decided to pursue my career in teaching English subject.”*

Tupola: *“I was a top student in Maths, but the Ministry of Education wanted me to do English, so they gave me a scholarship to study abroad doing English. They told me I had no choice but to take it because we need qualified English teacher. At first I thought I could not do it, I tried hard then I did at university. After completing my degree, I taught English ever since then.”*

Factors such as clashes of options and choices offered at Teacher Training College forced students to teach English. Also, some teachers said they were bored with teaching the same subject daily, then decided to change to English.

Malia: *“The clash of options offered at Teachers Training College. I wanted to take Science and Geography but there was no teacher for these two disciplines so I ended up taking English.”*

Kasa: *“For a change, I was getting sick of teaching same subject every day. I decided to take the challenge and to teach English.”*

The previous English teachers’ influences were quite strong.

Sisi: *“I had such great English teachers at high schools. They used variety of activities such as dramatization. When they taught poetry, it was like I heard new and different voices. Since then I knew it was my call to teach English. I also realized that when English is taught well, no matter where you from even from isolated island, one can still manage to learn it and to do well in English if you have great teachers.”*

Seini: *“I had palangi (English) teachers. The way they speak and pronounce the words attracted me to it. Despite the fact that Maths was my best subject, I was really attracted to English by its sound. I was good in spelling, this aspect of English made me like it more. So I ended up pursuing a career in teaching English.”*

In summary, almost all of the teachers in the English Department taught English as a career due to uncontrollable circumstances, even to the extent of foregoing their personal best subjects such as Maths. The major reason was the shortage of English teachers. There were only about three who chose teaching English as a career based on a personal interest in English as a subject. Other reasons suggested were clashes of subjects offered at Teacher Training College. Also, teaching of English for a change and being bored with teaching the same subjects. But these teachers all concluded that so far they were enjoying the experience.

5.5.2. Challenges of teaching English in Tongan classrooms

The focus group interview also sought to discover the different challenges that jeopardized teachers’ willingness to teach English. Two kinds of challenges emerged: daily challenges and teaching challenges.

Different daily challenges were identified. These ranged from a lack of resources (human and teaching resources), to overly large class size and classroom size and the fact that buildings were not designed for bad weather.

In terms of lack of resources, reading material was seen as very limited. Books in the library were either outdated or not interesting enough to trigger reading for pleasure. Even teaching materials were limited in number. Students had to work in pairs or in threes to share one book. This at times restricted students from reading during class time. Teachers always ended up reading the passage or the story.

A shortage of teachers was really a major daily challenge. Because there were not enough teachers, existing teachers were given high teaching loads. Some teachers had to teach 25 hours a week out of 30. This was quite unhealthy and often discouraging and de-motivating for teachers.

The classrooms were quite small especially in the old wings. Class rolls were increasing from year to year, yet most classrooms were too small to accommodate students. However, this issue was hard to solve in the short term because of lack of money.

“Some of the class size is increased due to lack of classrooms and not enough school buildings.” (All interviewees agree.)

Constant and consistent distractions were provided by Mother Nature, especially during the rainy season which is normally from January to April. Segregated classroom buildings caused school delays when heavy rain fell which caused delays in syllabus developments, hence increased teacher frustration.

There were a number of teaching challenges, the greatest of these in respect of English being the teaching of writing and grammar.

Alisi: “I always dreaded teaching writing. Maybe because when I was at high school, I was not good in writing. The hardest part was when trying to get students to express their thoughts in English. This is particularly faced by students with low ability in English. There lots of work to be done but teaching high ability students is fine.”

Sisi: “I do not dread teaching grammar instead I am just lazy. When I teach English grammar I tried to switch to Tongan language. The differences between sentence structure and conventions between English and Tongan language makes me confuse. For example: “Na’e ‘alu ‘a e ta’ahine ki kolo”. In English we say, “The girl went to town”. “The word “Na’e” denotes the tense of the sentence, which goes with verb “’alu” to mean the past tense “went”. There is no past tense verb in Tongan language; there is tense sign such as “Na’e”

to show past tense. This is why I am lazy to teach grammar because when students asked me to translate in to Tongan language, I am sometimes confused.”

Interaction with students in English was difficult. Students were taught in English and when required to respond back in English, they remained quiet.

Alisi: *“From junior classes, I feel if students were exposed more to English they would be willing to actively interact in English in class. I resorted to Tongan language.” (Agreed by all 7 junior teachers.)*

The above scenario was also reported as occurring in senior classes.

Sis: *“In senior classes, it is quite frustrating when students are not responsive in classes, and not speaking back in English. I partly blame our upbringing as Tongans. We are taught to be passive at home and listen instead of talking and asking questions. Students bring that attitude with them to school.” (Agree by all 5 senior teachers.)*

Teachers suggested a number of strategies to solve daily and teaching challenges. In the long run, more funds should be made available. A variety of teaching resources should be bought, such as library books, text-books and teaching aids. The school buildings should be extended to make more classrooms. *“If new classrooms are made, the class size will be minimised”*. School buildings should also be connected by verandas so that students would be protected from rain. *“This will avoid schools from cancelling on rainy days”*. An increase in the number of teachers should be considered. *“If only we had more teachers, the load would be more bearable.”*

In terms of teaching challenges, some teachers were not confident to teach certain aspects of English. Therefore, professional development was recommended.

Soane: *“I used to dread teaching poetry until we had a professional development session with one of our confident teachers in teaching poetry. I then began to look at it from different side, I then appreciated. Most satisfying when I felt happy about teaching poetry and more rewarding when I noticed students enjoying it.”*

In addition, teaching strategies and approaches needed to vary. When students were passive learners in class, group work approaches helped to make them active learners.

Tupola: *“Group work and peer teaching or one on one will help a lot. In fact, I’ve tried it and proved to be effective especially with passive learners.” (All interviewees agree.)*

Switching into Tongan language was another strategy to solve the challenges of teaching English to Tongan students.

Alisi: *“When switching to Tongan and use Tongan leading questions students are responsive when asking them questions in Tongan.” “It is best to speak to them in Tongan first, to get their ideas, then work with them to translate their ideas into English.” (Agreed by all 5 junior teachers)*

Understanding students’ individual backgrounds would have helped with disciplining them in classrooms. Some students came from low-income family backgrounds; therefore, availability of English resources at home was limited. Exposure to English language was limited, too. Other students were well exposed to English language from experiences such as travelling overseas, watching English movies and so forth.

Alisi: *“The well exposed students to English are quite obvious in classrooms. They could speak confidently and could easily respond back in English when questioned them in English. It is mostly the low exposed students to English that have problems when asking them to respond back in English.”*

The transition from primary schools to high schools was another factor identified. New students in Form One have special needs. At primary school, teachers taught students in Tongan. Therefore, speaking in Tongan to these new comers was totally relevant. They only responded to you if they understood what you were telling them.

Paneti: *“My Form One students are only active when I speak to them in Tongan. If I spoke to them in English they won’t respond back to me. Once I explain things to them in Tongan they speak to me in class.” (All interviewees agree.)*

Working in groups was quite effective when trying to get students to respond in English. Teachers all agreed upon this method.

Sis: *“When I put students into small groups, they interact actively with their group members. I give them different responsibilities to do when working in groups. They found it easy to communicate and talk to their peers than to me. Tongans are used to communal life. They work in groups at home when farming in the bush or when women are weaving at home.*

So probably students picked up that learning style at home and they bring it to class.” (All interviewees agree.)

In summary, the dominant daily challenges identified by the teachers were lack of resources, both human resources (teachers) and teaching resources. The style of the school building was seen as a problem; it was not built for bad weather therefore, if there was heavy rain, school would be cancelled. Teachers suggested that these daily challenges could be solved if more funds were available. Regarding the teaching challenges encountered by teachers, interaction in English subject with students in English was a major challenge, particularly when students were required to respond in English. Teachers suggested that using code-switching and dividing students into small groups would help. Also, teachers should try to keep a personal profile of students to identify personal backgrounds for any personal weaknesses that may affect students’ studies.

5.5.3. Critical literacy a literature teaching strategy

When asked if speaking in English should be imposed on students at all times in school, these teachers believed that students should be forced to speak in English at all times. They believed it was for students’ own good. To get a good and decent job, students should speak in English at all times.

Tupola: “I did it and it works. I believe for them to compete in the world, since English is important for communication, students should in English at all times. From personal experience, I thought of them to get good job, and that is why and even now, they have to pass their English, whether I like it or not, I think of their future, in order to get a good job, they have to fluent in English.”

Soane: “I do believe it too, if we do care for them, though English won’t take them to heaven but it will give them a better future, hopefully and successfully after school. Like so many ex-students have expressed to us how we have made them to speak in English and to communicate, which built up their confidence in communication.”

But when asked if students should use English at home and with peers, two different views emerged. Some believed it helps if students spoke in English at home and with their peers.

Alisi: *“Those students are speaking in English at home, shows great different to those who are not speaking in English at home and within peers, it helps a lot when students are exposed more to English. When I went to Fiji for study, I was forced to speak in English and I could not speak in other language. The situation enforced me to speak in English at all times which really helped me to improve my English.”*

Contrasted with this view, was the opinion that students should be encouraged to speak in English only at certain times. Students should speak in Tongan at home and with their peers. To impress others and to compete with other schools whose students speak in English, then it's fine. Enforcing the speaking of English had worked in isolated islands only in the last twenty years or so. Exposure to English had been limited. In this era in which English exposure is easy, speaking the Tongan language should be given sufficient time.

Sisi: *“The benefit of acquiring fluency in Tongan language is observed and witnessed here at school. Tongan subject teachers reported that those students who are fluent and do well in Tongan subject are the ones that do well in English. Students should speak in English during English class only, when it comes to subject areas such as Tongan subject, students should be left to speak in Tonga. In such a big school like this, it is hard to ensure that students speak in English at all times. I rather have students to speak in English under an environment where they could be supervised so they can be corrected once when making mistakes in expressions and other aspects of English.”*

All of these teachers saw the teaching of English literature as exam-oriented. Spoon feeding of students was always resorted to in this situation.

Soane: *“Regarding teaching literature to senior students, other activities are only used or put in when there is time. But first and foremost is interpretation, giving the students the content of the story then getting students to understand the story. The content is later discussed, once students understand the meaning of the story, I move on the writing tasks. The only different thing is, at the beginning I get them to perform certain part of the story, sometimes only. But when exam is close and near, I go straight to the main essence of things, the features and its notes.” (All 5 senior teachers agree.)*

Tupola: *“I think that is a big problem with us teaching literature, because I believe students really need to understand English in order to appreciate text engagements or the ideas presented in the story, novel or poems so normally that is where we spoon feed students. And the simple reason then is because they do not understand English, or in other words their ability in English is quite low, as we are racing against time, otherwise students won't get to the depth of things, also their ability in English is quite low therefore, we tend*

to spoon feed students in order for them to understand what is being taught in literature. Their level of English is not enough. How would we solve that problem? With an exam class, I cannot escape from spoon feeding students, but if am with a lower level class, I think I will have time to teach them instead of spoon feeding them. I will have time to teach them a book in detail and give them critical literacy method.” (All 5 senior teachers agree.)

Alisi: “At junior levels, sometimes in teaching short story or just a story, I talked to students in Tongan, then carry out discussions of the story in Tongan, and sometimes if my Form One class is studying a short story I would pair them up then get one person read one sentence then the other pair to Tonganise the sentence. It’s something that is encouraging students to participate, just trying something that motivates students to learn, they really like that form and way of translation, this also helps me to see if students are struggling with reading, then they try to translate that sentence into Tongan, they really enjoy that activity.” (All 5 junior teachers agree.)

In respect of critical literacy, these teachers thought that as a teaching strategy it would be of great advantage to Tongan students. Critical literacy was viewed as an effective strategy to engage students when teaching literature. Through intertextuality, students would be exposed to a variety of text genres.

All teachers agreed: “Critical literacy is appropriate to use in Tongan classrooms to teach English literature. Students will learn about different types of texts at one unit. Students are exposed to different views and different kind of writings.”

Students’ reading habits and abilities would be improved, too. When text selection was appropriate and suitable to students’ interest and ability, students would be motivated to read.

All teachers agreed: “Through critical literacy students will take great interest in reading. The teachers must be mindful of text selections making sure texts are relevant to students’ reading background and ability.”

Teachers should be able to incorporate the teaching of other aspects of English such as grammar and language while teaching literature in a critical literacy approach.

In summary, the majority of the teachers believed students should not be forced to speak in English at all times at school. Even with their peers or at home, students should speak in Tongan. Also, teachers thought critical literacy to be an effective

strategy for teaching English in Tongan classrooms. However, teachers were not qualified to teach, and professional development was needed. This would be beneficial, too, particularly for teachers who were mostly forced by circumstances to teach English as a subject at school. It was suggested that critical literacy might lead to a more student-centred environment. However, time was seen as the determining factor. This pushed teachers to exam-oriented teaching and spoon-feeding of students. Resources would need to be improved and upgraded in order for a critical literacy approach to operate effectively. Funding was also a major factor to be considered when using a critical literacy approach, to buy teaching materials and to implement professional staff development.

5.6. How effective are bilingual strategies in supporting critical literacy approach in Tongan classrooms?

The study also sought to find out how effective bilingual strategies are in supporting a critical literacy approach in a Tongan classroom. This section is divided into the following: teachers' interview, students' interview, observation and the post-intervention test.

5.6.1. Teachers' interview

Part of the teachers' interview schedule (Appendix 15) was to obtain their views on whether bilingual strategies supported a critical literacy approach in Tongan classrooms. Interviewees are given pseudonyms. The specific aims were

- To find out if code-switching supports critical literature as a teaching strategy;
- To find out if code-switching is suitable to use in teaching English literature in Tongan classrooms.

This section focuses on the topic of the appropriateness of code-switching as a teaching strategy. All teachers believed code-switching was appropriate to use during an English class. They also mentioned that code-switching should support

critical literacy well. Switching from English to Tongan while teaching using a critical literacy approach would make the difficult parts of stories and questions easier for students to understand.

Soane: *“It’s better to code-switch especially when teaching of literature, certain terms used are quite difficult, and so it’s important to translate them into Tongan. Also, when we teach in English then ask them in English, only a few could comprehend and respond back but most could not understand but once we switch to Tongan and either translates or speak to them in Tongan they understand clearly and they could respond to your questions.”*
(All interviewees agree.)

It was also stated that at junior levels, code-switching is extremely appropriate. Students need to experience a smooth transition from primary school, when Tongan language is mostly used, to secondary school, when English is mostly used. Tongan language must be used to scaffold the learning of English language in this transitional period.

Penati: *“The junior levels when they come fresh from primary schools, subjects are mostly taught in Tongan, and teachers speak to them mostly in Tongan and the transition from primary to secondary schools, students are still in the Tongan-teaching mode. It’s good to use English but when you feel that students could not understand what you are teaching, then its best to switch into Tongan.”* (All interviewees agree.)

Teachers then stressed the importance of assigning a specific time to code-switch. They believed code-switching should be used at an appropriate time and for a certain amount of time only. If used continuously, then problems would surface such as students increasing their dependency on Tongan. Students would wait for teachers to feed them the meaning of English words rather than make the extra effort to find out on their own. Added to that, sometimes accuracy of translation might be a problem. If in code-switching into Tongan, inaccurate or inappropriate translations were given, then confusion might occur.

Tupola: *“Yes, at times...For instance, if I tried to explain something or ask questions, then I realize it’s not clear or students do not understand then I switch into Tongan, or I even simply for them, but I do switch into Tongan. But if I simplified it to them then found out they can understand things, then I don’t have to switch into Tongan language.”*

Tupola: *“I don’t switch all the time because my purpose is to first of all get them to listen to me because I am taking and talking in English and speaking in English, this is the only time for them to listen to me in English. Second of all, for them to understand, if I found out they understand, then I don’t need to switch, but it’s their fault for not understanding, remember its English that I am taking and not mathematics.”*

Soana: *“It’s good and bad at times and not 50% and to abide by 50% prescribed by the Ministry of Education’s new language syllabus, but maybe 20/80 or 30/70, only translate at certain times, and be mindful of how external exams is set in English, and certain terms are required to used consistently in English and its English context so students are used to it or grasped its meaning in English usage.”*

Sis: *“Also, as said earlier on, when we use code-switching too much in the classrooms, students won’t think in English, students will become lazy; they will wait for when we switch in translation. Yet there are certain times when you must switch into Tongan, such as when discussing literature and you want to get into depth of things, such as the discussion of the issue of love, its best to do it in Tongan so students will have an in-depth understanding of it.”*

Malia: *“It really depends on the needs of students, like if students are high ability in English then its fine to use English only no need to switch. Sometimes it’s hard to translate English into Tongans and worse if you try to go 50%...like when asked to translate “literacy.” (All interviewees agree.)*

In summary, the prevailing thought emerging from this section of teachers’ interviews was that code-switching is appropriate to use while teaching English. But teachers suggested that code-switching should be used at certain times only. For instance, if difficult terms were used, then teachers should switch code. But if simple terms were used, then code-switching was unnecessary. Teachers stressed that if code-switching was to be continuous or 50 % of time in an English class in line with what the new Bilingual program in Tonga suggests, then students would tend to be lazy and just rely on teachers for meaning and translation of all English words given in class. Therefore, they suggested code switching be used either 20%: 80% or 30 %: 70% instead of 50%: 50% Tongan and English.

5.6.2. Students' interviews

The last part of the students' interview (Appendix 16) was aimed at getting students' views on code-switching; whether they thought code-switching supported critical literacy. The aims were as follows:

- To find out if code-switching had helped with your understanding of the unit taught;
- To find out if code-switching should be used by teachers teaching English class in Tongan classrooms.

Data were coded under two main themes: medium of communication in school and the appropriateness of code-switching during the unit taught.

Students presented two contrasting views on whether English or Tongan should be the compulsory medium of communication at school. Some believed that students should use both Tongan and English language at school. Those who supported the idea of using both English and Tongan language further suggested that maybe schools should assign a specific time to use English only such as an English week. They also suggested that it may depend on circumstances such as, if school had Tongan students only, then Tongan language should be used more often than English Language.

Kasa: "Tongan language should be used also, because majority of the students are Tongan. Also, students are more comfortable with Tongan Language."

Mary: "Students should be allowed to speak in both Tongan and in English because some students do not really understand English."

Natalie: "If it is English only, we as students won't understand things well then there are no use of us coming to school learning in English only because students do not really know and understand things when speaking in English only, students won't be able to grasp what is taught."

Felis: "Maybe school should put up certain times for students to speak in English only, such as having an English week where by students should be strictly monitored to speak in English only, which more like motivating them to get used and exposed more to English language, develop their skills in English and to understand English better and more."

Veiz: *“It depends if majority of students in that school is Tongan then students can use both English and Tongan language except for English class or subject then students can use English only, because it is important for us to use our first language to maintain it before it loses or erodes.”*

In contrast to the view supporting the idea of using both English and Tongan language in school, some students believed it best to use English only. English is the mean of communication internationally. In order to obtain a good job in the future, students need to speak in English at all times at school.

Louisa: *“I think it best to speak in English only, we are used to speaking in Tongan at home, it’s good to speak in English, the purpose of coming to school is to learn something new, we speak in Tongan at home so in order to learn new thing or a new language at school, we should speak in English at all times, reason for coming to school is learn new and important things, nowadays business requires us to speak in English, Tongan is hardly used by many businesses, though it’s difficult to speak in English, we will learn when we try, so we should give it a try, despite speaking broken English, the more we speak it the more learn and getting better in English, practice makes perfect.”*

Students also argued that teachers should teach in both Tongan and English language. The further suggestion given was that, if what was taught was not understood, then teachers should switch to Tongan language. However, if simple English was used and well understood, then translation would be unnecessary.

Mary: *“Teachers should also be taught in both Tongan and English language. It should be in English only or most of the times, but when things are not understood then teachers can switch to Tongan to clear up things by translating things into Tongan.”*

Students also stated that teachers must consider the concept of Ma (shy), which is quite instrumental in Tongan students’ lives. Tongan students with low ability in English are very shy to speak in English. They fear being labelled by peers. On the other hand, fluent students in English are also shy to speak up and to lead discussions in English. They fear being labelled as “show offs” and “wanna be smart” by other peers. This situation is quite complicated and it normally stops students from being active in class.

As students confessed (Maria, Natalie and everyone): *“In our class hardly anyone asked questions. Because they are so shy to ask questions because others will think you*

do not know how to speak in English, fear of labelling as do not know, because certain students in class are really good in English and could speak the language better than others, and some students laugh at those with broken English. And at times, those students who are good in English, they tend to shy when speaking up because they will be looked at and laughed and being labelled as show off and smart, so it is both ways. But the best time for teachers to use Tongan is when giving instructions. Under such circumstance, students suggested that, "it is best if it is mixed, Tongan and English."

Students happily stated that code-switching was suitable for use during the unit taught. They understood more what was taught.

Natalie: *"Yes it understood for us all, we gain better understanding of things, we understand the lesson better. When using both Tongan and English language, I could understand things longer but when it is just English only, I tend to forget things easily. The short story, when you taught it to us in English, we could not really understand it, but when you switched to Tongan the we understood things a lot better, so teaching in Tongan was better-understood."* (All interviewees agree.)

Students continued to identify certain parts of the unit that they absorbed quite well when code-switching was used. They further mentioned that they preferred to use both Tongan and English language.

Mary: *"Also, some exercises you taught us, like talking about the impacts and the views points presented by the texts, we could not really understand it when you taught us in English only, but when you translated it into Tongan language, we understood it better, then we could change our Tongan thoughts into English and write them down so we cannot confuse things or meaning of questions anymore."*

Natalie: *"The poem, first time I read it I could not understand it, due to using of old English words...but when it was translated into Tongan language and the usage of simple English language, I could understand it a lot better, I then understood the subject of the poem and its meaning, then I could then translate my Tongan thoughts into English. When translated into Tongan, my second read was much easier and more understanding, know the deeper meaning of the poem, and now know things that I didn't understand in the first read, like the part that talks about the sport field, the first read was not clear at all, but when it was discussed in groups and in Tongan, things were better understood"*

Kasa: *"With that better understanding, you could hear the voice in the poem, feel the mood etc and could talk about and retell the poem."*

Felis: *“Like in the poems, certain things are common in Tongan and English, so when you read it, when first read the poem I could not really comprehend it, but when you used Tongan to explain the poetic devices used by the poet such as personification and metaphor used, I could use skills learned in Tongan class to apply to this English poem, when you used Tongan in English, those things are related to each other and much easier to understand.”*

Students also emphasized that when they were taught in Tongan, what was taught lasted in their minds.

Kasa: *“When you learn in Tongan you could remember things even when it comes to exams but you learn in English only, when it comes to exams you tend to forget things. You tend to remember things longer when it is done in Tongan language.”*

Lilly: *“If you give us an essay to write in English but you explain it in Tongan, it would be much easier for us to write even if it’s written in English. But if you explain it in English to us Tongans and to write it in English, it’s kind of hard for us.”*

In summary, despite the two contrasted views emerged on code-switching in the teaching of English, the dominant view was to use code-switching while teaching English as a subject. Students suggested that students should be allowed to speak in both Tongan and English language in schools, so teachers should code-switch while teaching English. All the sampled interview students agreed that it is always understandable when instructions are given in Tongan language. They used the unit taught as an example. They commented that they understood texts taught well when both English and Tongan languages were used, particularly the discussions of the poem, where each stanza was discussed in Tongan which made them understand the poem well so they enjoyed studying it.

5.6.3. Observation data

The last part of the observation (Appendix 10) schedule was aiming at recording students’ reactions to code-switching using both Tongan and English language when the unit was taught. Three observation items were used to determine this. That is, students “respond faster to questions when Tongan language was used”, “appreciate text engagement through use of Tongan and English language”, and

“shows willingness to discuss when discussions were done in Tongan language.”
 The frequency of students’ reactions and responses are illustrated in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20. Frequency of students’ reaction to code-switching (English-Tongan)

19. Responds faster to questions when Tongan language is used

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	2	3	3	6	14
S	4	6	6	8	24
J	3	4	4	6	17
E	3	4	5	5	18
M	4	5	7	7	23
Total	16	22	25	32	96

20. Appreciate texts engagement through use of Tongan and English language

Participants	Obs. 1	Obs. 2	Obs. 3	Obs. 4	Total
A	2	3	3	5	13
S	4	6	7	8	25
J	2	2	4	5	13
E	2	4	6	6	18
M	4	5	7	8	24
Total	14	20	27	32	93

21. Shows willingness to discuss questions when discussions are done in Tongan language.

Participants	Obs.1	Obs.2	Obs.3	Obs.4	Total
A	4	5	7	7	23
S	5	6	8	8	27
J	3	4	5	5	17
E	3	4	5	6	18
M	4	6	6	7	23
Total	19	25	31	33	108

Table 5.20 shows the frequency of students’ responses to code-switching (English-Tongan) during the teaching of the study unit. It is divided into three different tables according to the behaviour types noted. The total of students’ frequency of responses from each observation block is given, as are the individual totals of the five participants.

The data from Table 5.20 appears to show an increase in the participants’ frequency of responses around code-switching throughout the four observation blocks. The five participants’ individual frequency totals seem to progress over the observation blocks also. For instance, participant A, under the first behaviour (19), progressed from 2, 3, 3 to 6, in the second behaviour, 2, 3, 3, 5, then in the last

one, 4, 5, 7, 7. The other four participants seem to progress in the same manner, too. The highest total of frequency of responses was scored by behaviour type 21, “shows willingness to discuss questions when discussions are done in Tongan,” with a total of 108. The first one (19) had a total of 96 and the second one (20) had a total of 93. This indicates that behaviour type 21 appears to dominate, however; it is not hugely different from the total of the other two behaviour types. The participants’ individual frequently totals for this behaviour type is also higher than the other two.

In summary, the increase in the participants’ responses as shown by the data in Table 5.20 shows that students were quite attentive and responsive in class during the teaching of the study unit when both languages (English and Tongan) were used. The data also shows that students were willing to join discussions and engaged with texts when done in Tongan language. Reviewing all the observation data, it is noteworthy that this part of the observation schedule had the highest total frequency of participants’ responses. Also, from the previous observation data, two particular participants (J and S) were scoring an outstanding frequency of responses compared to the other three. Although they still maintained the highest total, even in this part of the observation block, the other three were not very far from them compared to observation data in other categories. This shows an almost equal proportion of participation among sampled participants when their own language was used in the classroom.

5.6.4. Post-intervention test

A post-intervention test (Appendix 16) was implemented upon the completion of the unit. The test was aimed at the following:

- Assess students’ critical literacy skills;
- Evaluate if an additive bilingual approach helps to support critical literacy.

The aims were discussed with the students before the test was executed. The test consisted of two sections: section one was poetry and the last section was newspaper article writing. The total mark was 23 and time allowed was 40 minutes. The poetry section was given in comprehension form, that is, a poem with short

answer questions. A plot summary of the poem was given in Tongan language, outlining the subject of the poem. The purpose for doing this was to test if a bilingual approach assisted bilingual students' critical skills. Short answer questions were given to test students' understanding of the poem and also to test students' knowledge of how the poet positions readers.

The writing section required students to select a sport they feel strongly about, then write a newspaper report in such a way that they communicated to the readers their attitudes towards their individual selected sport. The writing item was aimed at testing students' views of a chosen sport. The marking criteria were discussed with the students on the day before the test was executed and it is given in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21. Marking criteria for the writing section: Post-intervention test.

CRITERIA	MARKS
• Thought	4
• Expression	4
• Structure	2
TOTAL	10

Post-intervention test: English = 23%

Table 5.22. Test results according to test sections

Marks 23 %	Poetry 13 %	Writing 10%
12	1 (2.9%)	
11.5	1 (2.9%)	
11	2 (5.9%)	
10	1(2.9%)	1 (2.9%)
9	5 (14.7%)	
8.5	2 (5.9%)	
8	2 (5.9 %).	1 (2.9%)
7.5	2 (5.9%)	
7	3(8.8%)	4 (11.8%)
6.5	3 (8.8 %)	
6	4 (11.8%)	15 (44.1 %)
5	3 (8.8 %)	8 (23.5%)
4.5	1 (2.9)	
4	2 (5.9%)	2 (5.9)
3	1 (2.9%)	
2.5	1 (2.9%)	
0		3 (8.8%)
Mean	7.2	5.4
Median	7	6

Table 5.23 . Test results in total

Marks 23%	Number 34	%
21.5	1	2.9
19	1	2.9
18	1	1.9
17	1	2.9
15.5	2	5.9
15	6	17.6
13.5	2	5.9
13	4	11.8
12.5	2	5.9
12	4	11.8
11	2	5.9
10	1	2.9
9	3	8.8
8.5	1	2.9
7	1	2.9
5	1	2.9
2.5	1	2.9
Mean		12.7
Median		13

Tables 5.22 and 5.23 show the results obtained from the post-intervention test. Table 5.22 shows the participants' test results according to the two sections of the test. The poetry section was out of 13. The highest mark achieved from this section was 12, scored by one student and the lowest mark was 1, achieved by one student. 16 students scored a passing mark (7.5) or higher, and 18 students failed to pass. In terms of the percentages of students, the highest percentage (14.7%, or 5 students) obtained a mark of 9. The mean for this section was 7.2 and the median was 7.

In the writing section (Table 5.23), the highest mark was 10 (full marks), scored by one student and the lowest mark was a zero, scored by 3 students. These three students did not attempt the writing question. A total of 29 students scored a

passing mark (5) or higher and 5 students failed to pass. 44.7 % of students scored a mark of 6. The mean for this section was 5.4 and the median was 6.

Table 5.23 shows the test results as total marks. The test was out of 23. The highest mark was 21.5, scored by one student and the lowest mark was 5, scored by one student. The mean mark was 12.7. 18 students scored the mean mark or higher and 16 students scored a mark below the mean mark. The median was 13.

In summary, based on the students' overall results from the two sections of the test, the students' performance was satisfactory. The poetry section shows a fairly high number of students passing. From experience and personal observation, Tongan students usually perform poorly in poetry comprehension. The relatively high number of students passing in this section could be accounted for by the fact that the poem's plot summary was given in Tongan language. Students had a fair idea of what the poem's subject was about, and therefore, were able to answer general knowledge questions from the poem. It was also noted that students performed well in questions on how the poet positions readers. Extract 5.4, an exemplar of a student's test answer, is given as an illustration of this.

Extract 5.4. Sample answer from post-test section one: Poetry (two questions only)

1. What is the poet trying to communicate (say) to the readers about the sport and the people in this poem?

Ans: that the sport was played really well and when there was a score, the people went crazy.

2. How is the writer trying to make you believe or agree with his own idea about main incident in the poem? Explain your answer.

Ans: He wants us to believe that the people (spectators) were going crazy like animals when there was a goal, by making their cheers like the way animals cry and talk.

3. This poem was written in 1981. Do you think what is happening in this poem is still happening nowadays? Explain your answer in detail and give examples from your own experiences.

Ans: Yes I think it is; because we still support the sports game and we cheer them on. It's like when sports on at Teufaiva. All the schools' go crazy with cheering and supporting their schools.

However, students did not perform well in questions on poetic devices, particularly when asked to explain the effects of certain poetic devices used in the poem. The

researcher concluded that students need time to work on this aspect and it was noted in the report to their English teacher who was my associate.

With respect to the writing section, students appeared to perform generally well. There were only 5 students who failed in this section, and three of them did not attempt the writing question. Extract 5.5 gives an exemplar essay from this test. One of the possible reasons for this high number of passing students is the fact that students were given the freedom to choose their own sport. Another possible reason is the fact that students had been exposed to three different sports from the three texts taught during the study unit. Therefore, students had gained a vast knowledge of sports and sports participants and were thus enriched with variety of ideas to use in their writing.

Extract 5.5. A sample essay from the writing section of the post-intervention test

Rugby time is crazy time.

Rugby is a sport played everywhere in the world and is widely supported and cheered for. Many people think rugby is an excellent game which is great for gathering crowds and people. From personal experience, I have seen rugby become a gathering time, a plying time, a cheering time and most of all a crazy time. Rugby players tend to really concentrate on it and to forget about other things. With all their concentration just on rugby, their whole life becomes RUGBY and nothing else. So when rugby time ends, the rest of their time becomes crazy time where they have nothing to do.

Another crazy time is when the spectators of rugby games cheer and support their team. Sometimes it leads to the spectators fighting over which teams win or doesn't win. These fights are sometimes to the death or they end up in jail. Spectators could be respected people with good manners, but they can all lose their self-control and respect because of rugby. Rugby time becomes their crazy time.

Rugby is not the only thing in life. Losing a game is not the end of the world. Like they say "when you fall, just get back up." Don't fall and give up. There is more to life than just winning and losing. There is also LIVING your life.

The overall test results in total also indicated a highly satisfactory test result. There were 25 students who passed the test. The mean mark also indicated a fairly high number of students passing the test (18 students) and also the median. Based on this overall result, one might suggest that the sample students did well in the test because Tongan language was used. In this case, the students' mother tongue

enabled them to provide evidence of their critical skills. In addition, exposing students to multiple texts enhanced their perspectives on sports, hence giving them a variety of views on sports and sports participation.

In summary, this chapter has discussed the data collected from the research conducted. The first part of the findings presented the data obtained from the two pre-intervention tests. The results of the two tests indicated students' low ability in both the English and Tongan language. This indicated to the teacher-researcher that the medium of instruction to use in the study unit should be both the English and Tongan languages and code-switching. The rest of the findings were presented according to the research questions. That is, students' motivation, students' achievements, students' reactions and perceptions of critical literacy as a teaching approach, Tongan-English teachers views of critical literacy as a teaching approach and how effective bilingual strategies are in supporting critical literacy. Chapter 6 will present a discussion of the trends emerging from the findings presented in Chapter 5. It will also discuss the limitations of this research with recommendations for future research, followed by a final word for this study.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Chapter 5 presented the findings obtained from data collected through the administration of pre-intervention tests, questionnaires, observations, students' formative tests, the researcher's reflective journal, a post-intervention test, student interviews and teacher interviews. Chapter 6 will discuss the common trends emerging from the analysis of the findings (Chapter 5), in relation to the appropriateness of critical literacy as a teaching approach and if bilingual teaching supports critical literacy as a teaching approach in Tongan classrooms, based on the study unit that was implemented. Therefore, Chapter 6 will be divided into two sections. The first section will discuss the findings obtained. The second section will discuss methodological weaknesses and recommend ways of improvement in the future study. This will be followed by a conclusion.

6.1. Discussion of the common trends from the research findings

This section will offer a detailed discussion of the common trends emerging from the findings and it is divided into eight parts: teaching approaches can make Tongan students become intrinsically motivated in their English classes; students' home literacy discourse clash with the school's literacy discourse; teaching approaches influence students' learning interest and attitudes towards English as a subject; literature is the most enjoyable aspect of English as a subject; teaching resources need upgrading; bilingual teaching is a necessity in Tongan classrooms; critical literacy is an effective teaching approach and code-switching supports critical literacy as a teaching approach. This section will end with recommendations on how to implement a successful critical literacy approach in Tonga.

6.1.1. Teaching approaches can make Tongan students become intrinsically motivated in their English classes.

The present study sought to find out what motivated Tongan students in their English class. Motivation plays a key role in English language learning (Run-mei, 2007).

The analysis of the data obtained from the first part of the questionnaire, the first part of the observation and the first part of the researcher's reflective journal collectively indicated that Tongan students' were motivated extrinsically in their English class. Run-mei (2007) identified two reasons why English language learners in her study learn English as a subject. One is that English is a compulsory subject that every student has to study in order to pass examinations. The other reason is that English is becoming a secondary and indispensable skill to secure a well-paid job. Run-mei (2007) continues to state that because of these two reasons, English language learners are bound to be extrinsically motivated. Run-mei's findings are related to Tongan students. Tongan students study English as a subject for similar reasons identified by Run-mei (2007).

Extrinsic factors such as participants involved in a learning situation, in this case the English teacher and the students' peers, the prospect that the teacher-researcher was new to students and teaching students a familiar text motivated participants in the present study in their English class. Some of these extrinsic motivation factors were pointed out by Hick, 2006; Boekarts, 2002; Lumsden, 1997; Thanasoulas, 2002; and Huitt, 2001, who have conducted research on what motivated students to learn, in particular to learn a second language. The section titled "non-utterance behaviours" of the observation schedule confirmed also the fact that Tongan students were extrinsically motivated. The fact that the study unit was novel (coupled with a novel teacher) motivated students to be punctual to class and they came in well-prepared with school stationery.

The present study also sought to find out if a bilingually framed critical literacy approach motivated students during the implementation of the study unit. The findings from the questionnaire, observations and the researcher's reflective journal related to this generally showed that participants were motivated to

participate actively during the study unit because their mother tongue, Tongan language was used consistently throughout the teaching of the study unit.

The researcher's reflective journal indicated that at times participants were intrinsically motivated to lead discussions in class since Tongan language was allowed for use during their English class while the study unit was implemented. Students were seen to participate out of "willingness and eagerness to learn and happiness" (Hick, 2006, p. 1). Researchers on motivation, such as Boekarts (2002), Lumsden (1997), Thanasoulas (2002), and Huitt (2001), relate this to intrinsic motivation. These researchers note that intrinsic motivation is important and can be achieved in the classrooms with the assistance of the teacher. This is because "attitudes do not remain static; they can be changed through the learning process such as by using appropriate materials and teaching techniques. Attitudes also improve as a result of language learning as learners who learn well will acquire positive attitudes" (Ghazali, 2008, p. 2).

Importantly, the findings on motivation also emphasise the importance for teachers to have good knowledge of the students' learning styles and what motivates students to learn English as a second subject. Having an awareness of these factors should help with the planning of lessons that fit students' learning needs. For instance, while the participants in this study were mostly extrinsically motivated to learn English as a subject, when the teaching approaches, such as using Tongan language, fitted their learning needs, the participating students were observed to slowly move from extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation. Students were then observed during the teaching of the study unit to participate willingly and more actively in discussions. Students were also observed to lead discussions, particularly when discussions were conducted in the language in which they were comfortable with, that is, their mother-tongue.

6.1.2. Student's home literacy discourses clash with the school's literacy discourse

Participants' home literacy was witnessed to be quite influential in the classroom and was observed to have contributed to the shaping of students' learning styles

and attitudes in the classroom, in particular towards learning English as a subject. The common home literacy practice elicited from the findings of the present study was the concept of shame (*ma*). The findings from the observations, questionnaires, reflective journal, student interviews and teacher interviews showed commonality, confirming that shame (*ma*) was indeed exhibited by students in the classroom. Corson (2001) notes that the concept of shame (*ma*) is common in the Polynesian islands in the Pacific such as Hawaii, Samoa, Tuvalu and Tonga. Corson (2001) adds that shame (*ma*) is normally traced to home and it is considered to be a cultural norm in these Polynesian islands. Shame (*ma*) would probably be perceived by Foucault (1970), Rassool (1999), Gee (2001), MacLaren, (1988) to be a cultural literacy. It was found from the teachers' interviews that shame (*ma*) is a home literacy which is developed in the home and within a student's community and it is a culturally constructed behaviour. Participants were shy in class when failing to pronounce English words and to answer questions in English, behaviours which are normally interpreted by teachers as indicating a negative attitude towards English as a subject. Mays (2008) calls this a primary discourse and notes that it "varies greatly from those [discourses] that dominate curriculums and assessment tools in public school" (p. 2).

Consequently, as indicated by the findings reported in Chapter 5, Tongan students resorted to being unresponsive in classes, thus exhibiting a negative attitude towards English as a subject. Au (1988), Gee (2001), and Truscott and Watts-Taffe (2003), contend that students develop negative attitudes in classrooms because schools are implementing curriculums designed in accordance with a white, middle-class and mainstream model. To these researchers and writers, this is seen as a barrier to English language learners. English as a subject is regularly demanded by school curriculums to be taught and implemented in the English language only. Mays (2008) regards this demand as highlighting the difference between academic discourse and primary discourse. When these two discourses clash, "students cannot feel they belong at school when their home-based practices are ignored, denigrated and unused" (Mays, 2008, p. 2). Consequently, students are not able to feel like they "belong when the real game is acquiring academic Discourse" (Gee, 2001, p. 37).

Another form of cultural or home literacy which was observed to contribute to the shaping of students' learning styles and attitudes, that was also reflected the findings of this study, is the concept of respect (*faka'apa'apa*). The findings from the observations, students' assessment tasks, teacher's reflective diary, students' interviews and teachers' interviews suggested that participating students' were reluctant to critique or question authority in their classrooms. The possible explanations for such a situation may well relate to students' home literacy of respect (*faka'apa'apa*) and their upbringing or their cultural norm in which it is prescribed for them to listen and do accordingly. Disputing and questioning authority are considered disrespectful. Because of this cultural norm, students were observed to lack critical questioning skills and therefore remained reserved or silent when a critical literacy approach prompted them to dispute the text authors' stances as presented in the texts studied in the study unit.

The literacy exhibited in most Tongan classrooms reflects the traditional form of literacy defined as being able to read and write (Rassool, 1999). On the other hand, the cultural aspect of literacy (Rassool, 1999; Gee, 1996) is totally ignored. It is ignored because teachers do not acknowledge it; instead they view this cultural literacy negatively by holding it responsible for students' attitudes. I can confidently declare here, based on personal experience and anecdotal evidence, that this characterises an instrumental model of teaching and learning which has been practised in the Tongan classrooms for a good many years now.

However, in a Tongan society of increasing technological changes and vulnerable to newly introduced forms of popular culture, alternative ways of defining and doing literacy are essential for empowering students for academic, economic and personal success (Lankshear & Knobel, 2006; Luke & Freebody, 1999; Unsworth, 2001).

To address this new literacy landscape and provide more socially just student opportunities, which celebrate sociocultural diversity and recognise varying levels of ability in language acquisition, The New London Group (2000) designed a pedagogy of multiliteracies. Understanding that human knowledge is embedded in social, cultural and material contexts and developed collaboratively in a community of learners (Rasool, 1999; Gee, 1996), The New London Group argue

that a pedagogy of multiliteracies (Gee, 1996; Street, 1995; Langer, 1995; Janks, 2009) integrates four factors. Firstly, situated practice which includes learners' prior and present experiences in a community of learners (composed of experts and novices). Secondly, overt instruction involves the teacher's or expert's intervention to scaffold learning (Bruner, 1983) or support learning and increase the learner's consciousness about learning. Then, critical framing which refers to learners interpreting the historical, cultural, political and ideological contexts of learning. Lastly, transformed practice includes implementing new understandings through reflective practice in other contexts.

Unfortunately, teachers in this study lacked the pedagogy to tackle these challenges. As a result, current classroom practices appear to widen the gap between school and home literacy (Neuman & Roskos, 1994). It is a belief derived from this study that teachers should incorporate multiliteracies in their classrooms in order to recognize a student's home literacy and the differences that constitute the discourses between home and school.

6.1.3. Teaching approaches influence students learning interest and attitudes towards English as a subject

The findings obtained from the students' interviews and the teachers' interviews showed that teaching approaches employed by teachers have a direct influence on students' learning behaviour and attitude towards English as a subject. The students in this study agreed that the teaching of English as a subject was more interesting and innovative at junior levels. They recalled a variety of teaching approaches used by teachers to teach English literature which captured their interest and established a greater passion for English literature than the language aspect of English as a subject. Interestingly enough, the participating students held the same views of Tongan as a subject. They commented that the language aspect of Tongan as a subject was quite confusing to learn.

However, all the participating students noticed a change in teaching approaches as they progressed to higher levels such as Form Five and Form Six. They sadly expressed that learning English as a subject in Forms Five and Six was not fun

anymore. Teachers mostly gave them notes or otherwise they were told to read literary pieces and then interpret them on their own.

Findings from teachers' interviews aligned with what the students identified. Senior Teachers (teaching English in Forms Five and Six) agreed that teaching English as a subject was mostly exam-centred or oriented. This resonates with Freire's (1970) banking theory, in which teachers are just depositing knowledge, while students remain idle and receive information in the classrooms. In such a situation, the teaching of English as a subject is related to functional literacy (Gee, 1996; Rassool, 1999), in which the teaching of English as a subject is geared towards passing exams in order to accommodate work preparation and for vocational purposes. Cultural, political, social and cognitive aspects (Rasool, 1999; Gee, 1996; Luke, 1996; Fairclough, 1992; MacLaren, 1988; Street, 1995; Langer, 1995) of literacy are totally ignored, and unsurprisingly, students developed negative attitudes towards English as a subject (as mentioned in section 6.2).

The participating teachers confessed that the rationale for employing exam-oriented and teacher-centred practices or "spoon-feeding" the students was to accomplish the requirements of the demanding curriculum and to fulfil expectations from parents and the school system. Researchers on conceptions of teaching and the education of Second Language Teachers, such as Freeman and Richards (1993), would relate this method of teaching to the concept of "teaching based on values". Within this view, the "aim of this teaching practice is to promote a particular value" (Freeman & Richards, 1993, p. 203). The values upheld by the teachers in this study were to pass external examinations and to please parents and the school system.

In the U.S, arguments between proponents of critical theory and those of cultural literacy provide a clear example of the conflict between conceptions of teaching which are based on different, often opposing, sets of values. Critical theorists hold that curriculum must become more inclusive and multicultural to offset the biases of social class and heritage which they find intrinsic in current forms of schooling (e.g., Anyon, 1981; Giroux, 1983; Giroux & McLaren, 1996). In the opposing view, proponents of cultural literacy argue that the job of education is to deliver a common core of values, reflected in the canon of Anglo-European literature and

fine arts, to make students “culturally literate”. This they argue will ensure social cohesion (Bloom, 1987; Hirsch, 1987).

From personal experience, I observed that Tongan English teachers in Tonga are facing a continuing battle; the expectations from parents and the school can be exhausting. One is judged by the national exam result (in all national exams, a pass in English is compulsory). Because this is normally a criterion for promotion, classroom teaching becomes exam-oriented. One of Tonga’s leading scholars, Professor Konai Helu Thaman (University of the South Pacific) (2009), in her discussion of teaching pedagogies in the Pacific Island Nations, states that there is a need for a “paradigm shift” (p. 3). In this call, she is supported by Pen, Taufeulungaki and Benson, (2002), and Johannson-Fua, (2006). These Pacific Island scholars further advocate that the paradigm shift in teaching pedagogy should make teaching and learning more culturally inclusive. I argue that the paradigm shift should be inclusive of both a cultural literacy theory of teaching and a critical theory principle of teaching. Combining the principles advocated by these two theories, I believe, would incorporate multiple literacies into the teaching of English as a subject. Therefore, the paradigm shift in teaching pedagogy should then be expected to make literacy a “means of breaking the culture of silence of the poor and the dispossessed” (Freiere, 1972, p. 52).

6.1.4. Literature is the most enjoyable aspect of English as a subject

The findings from the students’ interviews and the teachers’ interviews showed that literature was the most enjoyable aspect of English as a subject. The language aspect of English as a subject was regarded by both students and teachers as the least enjoyable aspect.

The teachers admitted that literature was the most enjoyable aspect of English as a subject to teach. They all agreed that the language aspect (such as grammar) of English as a subject was always difficult to teach. They saw this difficulty as stemming from the differences in the two languages’ (English and Tongan) grammar structure. For instance, the sentence “*Na’e alu a Sione ki kolo*” in English is translated as “*Sione went to town*”. The structure of the sentence in

Tongan begins with a past tense sign, whereas in English it begins with the noun or Sione. Such variation makes the teaching of English grammar confusing according to teachers, and therefore, often made them uninterested in this aspect of English as a subject.

The teachers' views were reflected in the students' interviews and also some of the students' assessment tasks. The findings from the students' interviews showed that students also preferred English literature over English language. Students had developed a lasting passion for English literature from junior levels (Forms One to Forms Three). They commented that teachers taught English Literature using a variety of teaching approaches, ranging from dramatization to role play which fuelled their interest in English literature. Despite the fact that teaching approaches changed as they advanced to senior levels, students still maintained their long established interest in English literature. For the students, English language was quite confusing to learn. As teachers declared, teaching of English language is confusing; it comes as no surprise that students found English grammar confusing, too.

6.1.5. Teaching resources need upgrading

Teaching resources really need to be upgraded. This surfaced from the findings from the teachers' interviews. Teachers reported that both teaching aids and human resources should be upgraded and improved. In terms of human resources, there are not enough English teachers. This problem normally forced existing teachers to take on excessive workloads over a week. Teachers also noted that some colleagues were not trained English teachers, and therefore professional development was necessary.

In terms of teaching resources, study teachers suggested that the school building should be built with consideration of rainy weather so that school wouldn't be cancelled during heavy rain. They wanted classrooms' sizes to be extended to cater for the growing population of the school roll. Teachers also noted that in order for critical literacy to be successfully implemented in Tongan schools, reading materials needed to be upgraded. They maintained that reading materials in both

Tongan and English language were quite poor; therefore interesting and motivating reading books should be made available in both Tongan and English language.

6.1.6. Bilingual teaching is a necessity in the Tongan classrooms

The consensus response from teachers and students who participated in the present study suggested that bilingual teaching was a necessity in the Tongan classrooms when teaching English as a subject.

The findings from the pre-intervention test showed that Tongan students' levels of ability in both English and Tongan language were quite low. The participants were at Form Six level and they had been educated in Tonga since primary school under a bilingual program where students were taught in English language in high schools for maximum exposure. This was supposed to improve their English acquisition and fluency according to the assumptions underpinning the former English curriculum document. But these assumptions would have been viewed by Cummins (1980) and Baker (1988) as an example of subtractive bilingualism.

Cummins (1980), Baker (1988) and May and his colleagues (2004) would have related the Tongan students' low ability in both English and Tongan language to "time on task" theory and the subtractive bilingual model, which is premised on the notion that maximum exposure in the second language is required for successful language acquisition and learning to occur. In relation so such theories, it is believed that instruction in L1 (for minorities whose language is not English) lowers or impedes the levels of English proficiency that such students might acquire (Baker & Hornberger, 2001). This is related to the SUP model (see Chapter 2, section 2.3.3) which is regarded by Cummins, Baker and Hornberger (2001) and May and his colleagues (2004) as an unreliable model to explain the benefit of bilingualism, and is connected to a view of bilingual failure as advocated by bilingual researchers prior to 1960's. These later proponents of bilingual education would state that because Tongan students' cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) was not fully developed to a threshold level in Tongan language in order for them to scaffold the development of cognitive

academic language proficiency in English, they were bound to attain low level in both languages. CALP is normally fully developed under an additive bilingual program (Cummins, 1980, Baker, 1988 and May and his colleagues 2004) instead of a subtractive bilingual program, which was formerly adopted by the Tonga Ministry of Education. Unsurprisingly, after almost fifteen years of formal education, Tongan students still possess low levels of ability in both English and Tongan language.

The findings from the students' interviews also indicated that students wanted to be allowed to speak in their mother-tongue or Tongan language while at school, contrary to curriculum demands that they speak in English at all times while at school. The students' concerns would be well supported by Cummins (2000), Baker (2000) and Skutnabb-Kangas (2000). These proponents of bilingualism declare that mother tongue promotion in the school helps develop not only the mother tongue but also children's abilities in schools (in this case, English language).

These writers continue to argue for two distinctive advantages of using the mother tongue at school: "bilingualism confers linguistic advantages on children; abilities in the two languages are significantly related or interdependent" (Cummins, 2000). Bilingual children perform better in school when the school effectively teaches the mother-tongue and, where appropriate, develops literacy in that language. By contrast, when children are encouraged to reject their mother-tongue, consequently, its development stagnates, and their personal and conceptual foundation for learning is undermined (Baker, 2000; Cummins, 2000, Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). Students also agreed on the desirability of having teachers use code-switching between Tongan and English language, when teaching English as a subject.

Another possible explanation for participating students' low ability in both English and Tongan language is that the students did not perform up to their potential. The two pre-intervention tests were at Form Five level and there was an assumption and personal expectation that the results would not be that low. It was observed that students' attitudes might stem from the fact that assessments conducted during the study unit would not count towards their external examinations' internal assessment. If assessments conducted in this study were included in students'

internal assessments towards their external examinations, student attitudes towards these tests might have been different. It had been reiterated to the researcher in interviews with both students and teachers that classroom learning and teaching were always exam-oriented.

The findings from the teachers' interviews also supported bilingual teaching using code-switching, but teachers stressed that code-switching is only necessary in certain circumstances. For instance, if teachers felt that English words used were beyond students' understanding, then code-switching to Tongan language might be necessary. But when simple English terms are used, code-switching should be unnecessary.

The teachers' view of code-switching was restricted to translation purposes only (Cook, 2003; Guthrie & Guthrie, 1987), involving the translation of English language into Tongan under circumstances where Tongan students had limited English proficiency. However, I argue that code-switching is more than translation and has several other purposes also. Hughes and her colleagues (2006) emphasize that code-switching occurs not only for translation purpose, but also because an individual may want to establish him or herself as a member of a particular group. The speaker shifts to the second language in order to capture his or her thinking processes or to reflect the inadequate understanding of the other person (Cook, 2003). Also, code-switching can be used as a sociolinguistic tool. Whereas some speakers can convey a certain effect or attitude by changing the formality of their speech, bilingual speakers can code-switch (Skiba, 1997). Code-switching allows the speaker to alert the listener that the upcoming phrase is to be interpreted differently with a shift in emphasis (Chan, 2004). It is further argued in this thesis that, based on these other purposes of code-switching, code-switching may help with developing and stimulating students' intellectual skills when switching between two languages.

Since, Tongan students use their mother tongue (Tongan language) as their first language but are coerced by the school curriculum to learn in English language, Aguirrie (1988) and Hammink (2000) assert that code-switching is bound to occur. Therefore, the tension that arises from the "school world" and the "home world" of the native language produces a need to navigate and integrate both worlds into a

cohesive whole (Freeman & Freeman, 2001). It is argued in this study that code-switching has the potential to integrate and unite the school and the students' world.

Another interesting finding emerging from the teachers' interviews is that they did not fully support the time allocation recommended by the new bilingual education program that was recently adopted by the Ministry of Education in Tonga. Instead of using 50% Tongan and 50% English when teaching English as a subject, the teachers suggested an increase in time allocated to English usage to either 70% or 80%. Their reason behind this suggestion was that students will tend to rely on teachers for every English translation, even of simple words, instead of dedicating self-effort to look for the meanings of words used. Students would become dependent on teachers for even simple translation.

However, I argue against the participating teachers' proposal in this study. I strongly argue that code-switching should be more consistent in classrooms and that it is desirable to abide by the requirements of the time allocation prescribed by the new bilingual program adopted by the Tonga Ministry of Education. Lambert and Fillenbaum (1969) state that there is "a definite cognitive advantage for bilingual children in the domain of cognitive flexibility" (p. 69), because students who are able to understand subtle semantic differences between languages can select the phrase that captures the meaning that they wish to impart. Furthermore, according to Harris (2003), code-switching is an example of learned behaviour, rather than mere language use. Children who have learned the "social and context cues are quick to realize that different behaviours are appropriate" (Hughes et al., 2006, p. 19). Thus, children who can operate smoothly between two languages seem to be especially good on tests that require mental manipulation and the reorganization of visual patterns (Pattiolla, 1999).

In order to code-switch for multiple purposes, "students must possess a high level of understanding of the two cultures, as well as a deep understanding of the underlying structures and nuanced purposes of the two language system" (Hughes et al., 2006, pp. 18-19). It is concluded in relation to this study that, with the participating students' low level of ability in both languages, Tongan and English, as shown by the findings from the pre-intervention test, that the multiple purpose

effects of code-switching won't be effective. But there is a high hope Tonga's new adopted bilingual program will be able to fulfil the purposes of code-switching as advocated by its proponents.

Interestingly enough, the two participating groups in this study seem to have contradictory opinions on the time allocation for code-switching. Students believed, from the point of view of learners, that teachers should use 50% Tongan language and 50% English language in class. On the other hand, teachers believed that they should give Tongan language either 70% or 80% of time only. Having supported the students' beliefs and demands, I would say that teachers are only acknowledging a small proportion of the students' cultural and home literacy. In other words, teachers are simply saying that Tongan language is inferior to English language. Consequently, teachers are perpetuating the hegemony of English language.

The differences in participants' (teachers' and students') views of code-switching from the present study reflect the fact that they (particularly teachers) are not conscious of the importance of bilingual teaching and its cognitive, social and cultural advantages. (Recommended strategies to close this gap will be given in the next section). It is believed from the present study that this is an important issue to address because this mismatch is likely to be shared by other teachers from other schools in Tonga and a number of metropolitan parents who had informal interactions with the teacher-researcher. Therefore recommendations on this issue will be given in the next section.

6.1.7. Critical literacy: An effective teaching approach

The findings from the observations, students' interviews, students' formative assessment task and teachers' interviews collectively suggested that critical literacy had positively impacted on the participating students' learning of English as a subject. The findings from the observations and the students' formative assessment task corresponding to this topic showed that critical literacy as a teaching approach had awakened students to the realization that literary texts are

“partial, first, because they represent a version of reality, that version is necessarily incomplete; and second, because they promote that version, they take it’s part” (Morgan, 1994, p. 4).

The findings from the observations towards the end of the study unit coupled with the findings from some of the students’ assessment tasks, revealed that critical literacy as a teaching approach had assisted students to propose reasons for why authors wrote texts. The participating students then attempted to challenge “the “taken-for-granted” (Comber & O’Brien, 1993), realising that those authors’ beliefs and the “truths” beneath the surfaces of the words are based in the contexts and time in which the texts were written. Connected with this understanding is the perspective that texts-print and multimodal, paper-based and digital and their codes and discourses- are human technologies for representing and reshaping possible worlds (Luke & Dooley, 1996). As a consequence, the proponents of a critical literacy approach contend that texts should not be taken as part of a canonical curriculum tradition or received wisdom that is beyond criticism. “Rather texts should be conceived as malleable human designs and artefacts used in social fields” Luke & Dooley, 1996, p. 1). In this regard, critical literacy approaches begin by culturally and historically situating languages and discourses, texts, their authors and readers-bracketing and disrupting their ‘natural’, given or taken-for-granted authoritative status in institutional and everyday contexts (Luke & Dooley, 1993).

However, the same findings revealed that although the participating students managed to identify the different viewpoints presented by each text taught in the study unit, they were consistently reluctant throughout the whole unit to dispute the authors’ points of view. One possible explanation for this common exhibited behaviour by students is that literary texts were normally decoded when taught previously, that is, used for comprehension purposes only (Rassool, 1999). The other possible explanation for this is that students are culturally moulded not to dispute authority. Therefore, questioning the author in an academic discourse is culturally inappropriate, which is related to the differences in home and school literacy as discussed in section 6.2. This reiterates Brown (1999) and Wallace (1995), who suggest that some learners are limited in their ability to develop critical literacy due to their cultural backgrounds.

Intertextuality (Morgan, 1997) or multiple perspectives (Gregory & Cahill, 2009; McLaughlin, 2001; Coffey, 2008) are quite an effective formula for the implementation of critical literacy. Intertextuality was viewed by both teachers and students as a fruitful strategy for implementing critical literacy. The multiple texts used were quite authentic (Gregory & Cahill, 2009). In this case, the selected texts were relevant to students' abilities and interests or, in other words, had appropriate recognition. Both participants (students and teachers) highly commended the efficacy of using multiple texts to teach a theme. The students' assessment task and the researcher's reflective journal also showed a parallel finding.

Intertextuality also exposed students to a variety of ideas and points of view. The students' writing in their post-intervention test mirrored broad and extensive thoughts regarding the topic given. This was because students were exposed to sports and sports participation from different viewpoints through the three texts taught in the study unit.

Reflecting on the findings from students' assessment tasks, the teacher's reflective journal and the students' daily work, it can be seen that a critical literacy approach identified and exposed the participating students' weaknesses in the language aspect of English as a subject. Although the study unit was designed for the use of literary texts, which would be considered by the English curriculum document in Tonga as literature, a critical literacy approach directed the attention of the teacher-researcher to the language (grammar) ability of the students. Critical literacy calls for textual analyses that "denaturalise" ideologies in texts, showing how they are related to relations of power that systematically advantage some groups over others (Janks, 1999).

Pedagogically, the focus is on making the ideological work of language an object of conscious awareness; that is, using explicit instructional focus on teaching how texts work ideologically (Fairclough, 1990). This entails teaching students the analysis of a range of texts-functional, academic, literary-attending to their lexicogrammatical structure, their ideological content and discourses, and their conditions of production and use.

The framework of field, tenor and mode enables teachers and students to focus on what texts say, that is how words, grammar

and discourse choices shape a representation or “version” of the material, natural and socio-political worlds. It also enables a focus on what texts do, that is, how words and grammar attempt to establish relations of power and between authors and readers, speakers and addressees. (Luke & Dooley, 1996, p. 8)

This is viewed by the researcher as a holistic approach in which the major two aspects of English as a subject, literature and language, are integrally taught together instead of teaching them as separate components, which is the practice in Tongan classrooms. This integration, the researcher argues, may boost students’ interest in the language aspect of English as a subject.

6.1.8. Code-switching supports critical literacy as a teaching approach

The findings from the data obtained from the teachers’ interviews, students’ interviews, observations and the post-intervention test jointly confirmed that code-switching greatly contributed to the effectiveness of employing a critical literacy as a teaching approach to teach English as a subject in Tongan bilingual classrooms.

However, some interesting trends were also detected in these findings. While both participating students and teachers agreed on the effectiveness of a critical literacy approach when code-switching was employed, teachers believed that code-switching should be used to a limited extent while teaching English as a subject and to be restricted to translation purposes (as discussed in 6.6). On the contrary, students believed that code-switching should be used consistently when teaching English as a subject. The possible explanation for this difference is that teachers were entrenched in the perception that teaching English using Tongan language is a detriment. On the other hand, students seem to understand content taught better when their mother-tongue; Tongan language, is used; therefore, students were supporting code-switching. This difference points to the controversy of teaching in the Tongan bilingual classroom where teachers are at times perpetuating and then enforcing their own beliefs without considering the learning needs of the students. This was encountered by the researcher as a student. It was also observed by the researcher whilst working as a teacher. Teachers normally establish themselves as

the authority figure in the classroom, producing an intimidating atmosphere. This then causes students to become passive and reserved. Teachers in turn interpret this response as a negative attitude. We have a classroom in which teachers and students have a tense relationship and learning is often difficult to cultivate.

Another interesting finding derived from the observation schedule related to this topic is the participating students appeared to have a balance of responses to whole-class discussions and aspects included in the observation schedule (Appendix 10). From the other parts of the observation data displayed in Tables 5.8, 5.17 and 5.18, there were obvious differences in participating students' responses. Two particular students were dominant while one was average and the last two were always below average with their responses when observed. When the Tongan language (Table 5.20) was used, the below-average students managed to keep up with the dominant students in terms of responsiveness and involvement in class activities such as group or whole-class discussions. These students were even observed to have openly voiced their thoughts when their mother-tongue (Tongan language) was used. Code-switching in this case appears to challenge a classroom discourse, where capable students always seem to dominate and which constructs below-average students in terms of their ability in English language as academically inferior.

The result of the post-intervention test showed that code-switching enabled students to interpret even new texts. The Tongan translation of the poem's subject enabled students to develop their knowledge about the poem in general. From my personal observations while teaching the unit study, students tended to view poetry as difficult to study. But when Tongan language was used to discuss and explain the meanings of the poem, the students enjoyed it tremendously. Students admitted to this during their interview which was also reinforced by their performance in the poetry section of the post-intervention test.

On this note, code-switching was observed to be a vehicle for the bilingual Tongan students to fully discover understanding and critical skills in relation to a new text. This finding extends the findings of research conducted by Fasi (1999) and Manu (2005) on Tongan bilingual students and their ability in mathematics. These researchers both concluded that Tonga bilingual students were intellectually

capable in mathematics but their level of fluency and competency in English language impeded their capability. When Tongan language was used, Tongan students' mathematical ability was enhanced.

These findings also echo what Hughes and his colleagues (2006) concluded, that “second language allows speakers to more effectively communicate nuances of meaning that are restricted within one language” (p. 22). MacSwan (1977) affirms that code-switching significantly enhances the expressive capacity of an individual. Therefore, McLaughlin (1995), and McLaughlin, Blanchard, and Osanai (1995) encourage teachers and parents to recognize that code-switching is a strategy of “great semantic power”. If teachers were to recognize the expressive power of code-switching and understand the sophisticated linguistic knowledge required to effectively combine two languages for a social purpose, their prejudiced beliefs about the practice, the students, and students' possible need for gifted programming may improve (Hughes et al., 2006).

6.1.9. Recommendations for critical literacy as a teaching approach with bilingual education

There are two clear messages from the participants of this research. Firstly, that a critical literacy approach to teaching English as a subject should be employed by Tongan teachers teaching English in Tongan schools. The second message is that bilingual teaching is necessary in order for Tongan students to fully discover their critical skills. Therefore, to make these two messages a reality it is highly recommended here that teaching approaches that are currently used by teachers should be altered. Together with the paradigm shift proposed by Thaman and her counterparts to occur in the Pacific islands, to make teaching more cultural inclusive, it is recommended here, in order to incorporate the multiple facets of literacy, that a cultural literacy approach as advocated by the above Pacific Island scholars should be coupled with a critical literacy approach.

Teaching resources should be upgraded. The Tonga Ministry of Education should invest in more innovative and creative reading resources in order to facilitate critical literacy to its maximum capacity. These reading resources should be available in both Tongan and English languages. However, this can be regarded as

a long-term recommendation since funding is quite tight. At present, teachers should make use of existing resources. A critical literacy approach is flexible and it is not restricted to multiple texts only. The simplest form of critical literacy allows for the use of simple and single texts so long as they are relevant to the learning abilities and needs of the students.

A series of professional development workshops should be conducted to provide teachers with the skills and knowledge to implement a critical literacy approach when teaching English as a subject in Tongan schools. A critical literacy approach is acknowledged here as a new phenomenon for Tongan teachers in Tonga. A critical literacy approach is underpinned by critical literacy theory. Therefore teachers should be enriched on how such theory operates in order to be equipped with a full understanding of a critical literacy approach.

Having said all this and in the light of the findings from this research study, critical literacy and bilingual teaching will only be fully effective if the following two important recommendations are taken on board by the Tonga Ministry of Education. Firstly, since a critical literacy approach has been highly commended by both teachers and student participants in this study, it is recommended that a critical literacy approach be explicitly included in the new revised Language curriculum document that was recently produced by the Tonga Ministry of Education. The new revised Language curriculum document is underpinned by the notion of appropriateness (Hymes, 1972) and is specifically directed at communicative competence (as discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.4). However, to have a language curriculum that caters for the social, economic and political changes occurring in Tonga at present, critical literacy should be incorporated in the Language curriculum document. As Moumou (2004) argues, critical literacy is crucial to understanding contemporary social practices and interactions; hence, it is necessary for study, work and leisure. Because of this, a critical orientation to language study enhances students' ability to analyse and discriminate information. The revised Language curriculum shows gaps. These gaps suggest that a critical orientation towards the study of language might ensure that students develop the skills that will enable them to generate in-depth and informed opinions of texts read.

Additionally, the revised Tonga English Language syllabus (2008) stipulates a “student-centred” classroom atmosphere. How can a classroom become student-centred if students are restricted by cultural norms and values to remain quiet and never question authority (teachers)? The latter characterizes Freire’s “banking theory” (1970), as mentioned in Chapter 2, Section 2.2.1. Therefore, to ensure teaching is fully student-centred, critical literacy is highly recommended. Critical literacy can liberate Tongan students from the Tongan cultural value of *Respect*, where it promotes a situation where students become passive learners rather than active learners. I do not want to undervalue nor dispute this cultural value (*Faka’apa’apa*, Respect); this would mean abolishing cultural identity. Instead I suggest, through critical literacy, students are given the liberty to assess for themselves these cultural values and norms in a way that allows them to realize that constructive questioning of authority to elicit knowledge or to clear possible misunderstanding is acceptable.

If this were possible, Tongan students would be empowered to understand social conventions regarding genres and registers, as well as cultural perspectives. As Daniel and Lenski (2007) argue:

ELLs learn that they should use their personal lenses to examine and decide what is right and wrong. Engaging ELLs in provocative dialogues sets up a classroom society that is not centred on the majority culture’s viewpoint, nor is it centred on the interpretation of words from an author’s perspective or the teacher’s stance. Students learn that it is safe to question. (p. 33)

The second recommendation to make here regards bilingual education or teaching. The findings of this research indicate a mismatch between the teachers teaching English in Tongan classrooms and the theoretical framework proposed by the Ministry of education. This mismatch was not only indicated by the participating teachers but it was also observed by the researcher through informal interactions with Tongan English teachers from other schools and a few metropolitan parents. As this research indicates, bilingual teaching is of crucial importance in facilitating critical literacy. Therefore, the misconceptions shared by Tongan English teachers and some metropolitan parents should be addressed. The following two

pedagogical initiatives should help to overcome these misconceptions; parental and community involvement, and teacher training and professional learning.

Parental and community involvement is considered essential and plays a vital part in ensuring that a bilingual education program is effective and successful. Cloud, Genesse and Hamayan (2000) state that “parents play critical roles in both establishing and maintaining effective bilingual programs” (p. 10). Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995) note that active parental participation and support is a necessity. They argue that “parents should be well-informed at all times” (p. 237). Cloud et al. (2000) also state that, “it is important to include parents in programs from the very beginning so that they are fully aware of the structure and goals of the program” (p. 217).

In Tonga, this is a new type of bilingual program to be used in a community in which English is quite instrumental. And because some metropolitan parents and the young generation are more attracted to English, they should be well informed of the objectives and characteristics of the program. On top of that, possible benefits of the program should be made clear to parents so they are aware of the fact that bilingual education is not distorted at all which is the typical parents’ view in the community. Having enriched parents’ knowledge regarding the bilingual program, “they should then be prepared to make the long-term commitments of time and involvement that success bilingual program requires” (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995, p. 217).

When parents are prepared to make long-term commitments to the success of the program, students’ studies are expected to be more successful. Parental involvement gives confidence to their children that parents can assist them with simple school works, such as reading to them Tongan reading books, and can counter students’ reluctant and unenthusiastic attitude towards parental assistance with their school work at home. This is particularly important to children with low-academic-background parents. Baker (2001) suggests “having parents as partners will help with the writing and reading processes” (p. 37) especially in Tongan language. For example, parents may help compose books in their heritage language for use in the classrooms. Children, teachers and parents may collaborate together to produce reading material based on home literacy.

Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995) also suggest that parents should be encouraged to “participate in the bilingual school, bringing not only their language, but also their history, culture and values into the school” (p. 237). As a result of a close collaboration between parent and the school, home language and culture will be valorised (Benson, 2004). This is because, Benson argues, seeing the mother tongue in print in the official context of schooling elevates its status and usefulness in the eyes of both speakers and non-speakers. In addition, the L1 brings cultural values into the classroom, which parents highly appreciate (Benson, 2004). In this process, “parents develop a sense of efficacy that communicates itself to children, with positive academic consequences, especially in the case of minority children. In fact, most parents of minority students have high aspirations for their children, and want to be involved in promoting their academic success” (Lindholm-Leary, 2001, p. 74).

In addition, the successful operation of a bilingual program depends on teachers. In other words, bilingual teachers must be highly qualified. Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995) argue, that:

Teachers who are bilingual should never actively teach only through the medium of one language or teach only one language. When a bilingual person functions as a teacher of one language, the “one language-one person” relationship is clearly demarcated, establishing distinct language boundaries, both for the teacher and for the student. (p. 236)

For Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995), qualified bilingual teachers should not only effectively implement teaching in the classroom but should also be important identity, role models outside in the classroom. Simply, bilingual teachers should not teach in bilingual languages in the classroom then outside speak in English or the majority language only to students. In addition, Lindholm- Leary (2001) argues that bilingual teachers should have native or very high levels of linguistic competence in the language in which they teach or that they teach. In addition, bilingual teachers need to be knowledgeable of theories of mother tongue and second language acquisition and bilingual language development, the language, history and culture of the ethnolinguistic group whose language is used in instruction or is taught (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995).

Also, bilingual teachers, as in mainstream classrooms, must possess the typical knowledge of content, curriculum, instructional strategies and classroom management skills (Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Therefore, “teachers in language education programs must have appropriate teaching certificates or credentials, must have good content knowledge and classroom management skills, and training with respect to the language education model and appropriate instruction strategies” (Cloud et al., 2000, p. 217).

In relation to the two pedagogical issues discussed above, there are several issues that arise. To begin with, the Ministry of Education designed this bilingual program after consultation with ministerial officials without parental input, then put it on trial in some primary schools. Parents were not informed of the changes about to happen to their children’s schooling, probably owing to financial constraints. However, not informing parents about the meaning and characteristics of the program produces nothing but more misunderstandings of bilingual education. From the researcher’s point of view, parents continue to perceive bilingual education as mental retardation for their students. Consequently, the status of the Tongan language continues to be threatened by the pervasiveness of English, as pointed out by Pulu’s study (1988) and Taufe’ulungaki’s study (1986-1987), which had previously discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.1.

In addition, there are issues with teacher education. In Tonga, primary teachers have obtained a diploma of teaching from Tonga Teachers College, specifically in subject areas but not in bilingual education. Lindholm-Leary (2001) argues that:

To be an effective teacher requires training. Researchers in bilingual education have discussed the importance of specialized training in bilingual pedagogy and curriculum as well as material and resources. Without this training, teachers will have difficulty implementing the bilingual model correctly in their classrooms. (p. 64)

This difficulty is already felt by some primary school teachers I have spoken with, yet the program won’t start in their schools until next year.

At secondary schools, there are qualified English teachers, with overseas university credentials. These teachers can handle the teaching of English as a

subject and as a second language. On the other hand, Tongan subject teachers have no equivalent qualification. The highest qualification is the local diploma from Tonga Teachers College. Cloud et al., 2000 contend “that effective bilingual education as well as enriched education depends on teachers who are reflective about curriculum and instruction, hold higher qualification in order to be more competent and effective in both curriculum and instructions” (p. 17). According to anecdotal evidence, some Tongan subject teachers have expressed dismay over their lack of confidence to teach curriculum content in the senior classes. Sadly, students at this level are aware of the teachers’ problems. Consequently, students withdraw interest from the Tongan subject and continue to show a lack of interest in Tongan language. It is not surprising that not many Tongan students pursue a career in Tongan language.

It is therefore highly recommended here that parental and community involvement and education for bilingual teachers should be seriously considered by the Ministry of Education in order to have an effective and successful bilingual education program in Tonga. Parental and community involvement plays an important part in ensuring an effective bilingual program (Skutnabb- Kangas & Garcia, 1995; Cloud et al., 2000; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Baker, 2006). Schools should educate parents that bilingual education is beneficial instead of retarding to students. Parents could then help to alleviate the negativity towards Tongan language which is currently happening not only in overseas countries but also in Tonga (Pulu, 1988) by using and encouraging the use of Tongan language at home. Parents can also help by bringing to schools native cultural variations and rituals in order to revitalize the Tongan language.

Last but not least, teachers should be well qualified (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995; Cloud et al., 2000; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Baker, 2006). As Cloud et al., (2000) suggest, “highly qualified teachers will have a repertoire of assessment techniques they use to obtain feedback about the effectiveness of their teaching and about student learning” (p. 18). Also, when well-trained teachers are working with students who are learning through the medium of a second language, they are able to “devise assessments that distinguish between academic and language development so that the academic achievement of students in the early stages of second language acquisition can be assessed accurately” (p. 18). Furthermore,

Lindholm-Leary (2001) would suggest that Tongan teachers need involvement in pre-service and in-service training in the “dual language education model, second language development, instructional strategies in second language development, multicultural and educational equity training and also cooperative learning” (p. 65). If teachers are well-trained, competent and efficient in curriculum content and instruction, then there is a high expectation that Tongan students’ academic attainment will improve.

In summary, the new bilingual program adopted by the Tonga Ministry of Education, maintenance bilingual education, gives hope to the Ministry of Education and the government that it will revive the value of the Tongan language and improve minority students’ academic attainment. Tongan language is given more time and space in schools. But in order to successfully achieve these ministerial ambitions, parental and community involvement and well trained teachers are two pedagogical issues that must be considered by the Ministry of Education. This bilingual education program was recently introduced for implementation. I believe there is still time to address these pedagogical issues. The benefits are expected to be tremendous not only to students, but teachers and parents: the three important parties involved in this bilingual education program.

6.2. Limitations and recommendations and conclusion

This section will be divided into three parts. The first part will outline the limitations that this research study encountered. The second part will give recommendations for future research. This section will end with the conclusion or a final word on this research study.

6.2.1. Limitations of the research

The time available was a limitation of the research. Data collection spanned three months only. A longer time would have allowed for a greater variety of activities to be completed. For instance, during the teaching of the study unit, it was noted that the participating students were having issues with the language aspect of

English as a subject, in particular their grammar and expression. Instead of providing for this issue, it was only noted down to report to their own English teachers to follow up later.

The observer was a willing but inexperienced participant in terms of critical literacy and the broader sense of bilingual teaching. A longer study would have allowed for more preparation time, which would have allowed the observer more experiences, and hence increased the reliability of the data collected. Also, the observer had administrative obligations, so the observation schedule was cut short from the initial plan.

The study involved one class only that was streamed according to gender. An all-female class was allocated as the sample for my study. It would have been interesting to do the same study on an all-male class, then a mixed-gender class. The teaching colleagues in the English Department had little direct involvement in the trialling of the programme itself. A longer study would have allowed time for other teachers to become more involved in the teaching experience. This could be done by negotiating release time for teachers to participate in teaching and observation of the target group. Teachers could also be involved in lesson preparation.

The three texts used in the study unit, though authentically related to the participating students' ability and interest, were not recommended texts to use for Pacific Senior Secondary Examinations or texts from the sampled class's scheme of work. At times, students showed a lack of interest in the study because tasks conducted were not considered as contributing towards external exams. The teaching in Tongan classrooms is heavily exam-oriented and this attitude is also shown in students' attitudes towards materials taught in class. When it was indicated to them that literary texts taught or assessments done in class would go towards external exams, they put in extra efforts. It would be interesting to test that extra effort in a research study by using texts that are prescribed by their scheme of work and examined in the external exams.

6.2.2. Recommendations for future research

This research is an initial stepping stone, which raises the possibility of a critical literacy approach as a teaching strategy to teach English as a subject in Tongan bilingual classrooms. It has been characterized by a number of time and personnel constraints and should be seen only as a microview of Tongan English teachers' and students' views of how a critical literacy might be appropriate to use in teaching English as a subject in secondary schools in Tonga and how it might be incorporated in the secondary language curriculum in Tonga.

This study involved one class of female students only at a school which is located in the urban area and the main island of Tonga, Tongatapu. A future study could explore the experience of a larger sample of participants in several schools, and high schools in outer islands should be included too.

This study involved the researcher as the only teacher. A future study might directly involve more English teachers in a number of schools in the teaching of the study unit. Future study should allow for the thorough preparation of teacher-researchers and observers before data collection commences.

This study has come up with a number of recommendations for amending the Tonga Language curriculum. A future study might enter a second action research cycle to trial the amended programme.

This study was conducted under a subtractive bilingual system. A similar cycle of action research should be conducted in a few years time to see if students learning in the context of the new bilingual approach (additive bilingual program) have acquired language competence in both English and Tongan language CALP.

This study employed participant observation and post-lesson evaluation tasks and students' assessment tasks as main sources of collecting descriptive and quantitative data. Future studies might seek to use audio-visual equipment for the generation of thicker descriptive data.

An innovative alternative teaching approach to English as a subject has been planted in the minds of the participants in this research. A critical literacy approach has tremendous potential in producing empowered individuals with the

capacity to participate fully in the social and economic development of a country and to be a citizen of the world. Despite the reality of teaching frustrations, from a demanding curriculum and the high expectations of parents and Ministry of Education officials, it remains our job as educators to provide students with as broad an educational experience as possible. However, for the success of a new Language curriculum with an explicit critical literacy approach, there needs to be an understanding of its purpose, and a commitment on the part of management and decision-makers to provide educators with the support that they require to achieve success. Continuous professional development of teachers and a review of resources are aspects of the ongoing support that are needed for the success of any new curriculum. Add on to that, ministerial officials should endure to provide some forms of measurement in order to ensure that the teachers in classrooms are carrying out the new bilingual program accordingly. Lack of enforcement will result in teachers falling back on previous bilingual program. Students will definitely pay the price.

6.2.3. Conclusion: A final word

As I conclude this report, the end of this phase of an action research cycle, I suppose I should say it is a full stop for the present study but a beginning for further research. This experience has been quite enriching and as eye-opener for me as a researcher and an English teacher who has been teaching English as a subject and English as a second language to young lives who are growing up in a society in which the English language is regarded as an inevitability.

Along the process of this research, I have immensely and constantly reflected on my own personal experiences in the past seven years as a high-school English teacher. Vividly, so many teaching pedagogical pitfalls have surfaced and the findings from this research have given me the will power to be more courageous in the high clouds and rough sea of teaching in a developing island nation like Tonga.

The research that has been previously conducted on critical literacy as a teaching approach, together with the findings from this study, have given me an innovative

teaching alternative to make the teaching of English as a subject more creative, interesting and most important of all, a truly student-centred pedagogy. I can confidently say that this approach will make my teaching in the future more interesting and I would not dread a single day to enter my classroom. Through this approach, I will be eager each new day to hear how young students would challenge the different discourses and ideologies that are instrumental in contemporary Tongan society.

Along the process and at the end of this research, I had the chance to re-evaluate then to re-assess my old-fashioned belief that maximum exposure to English language by teaching 100% in English language to bilingual students was the most effective way to teach English as a subject to English language learners. I can now picture the blank look in my previous high-school students' eyes and their reasons for doing so, the reasons for not completing their home-work, the reasons for dodging my English class, the reasons for failing exams and the reasons for displaying a negative attitude towards English as a subject. This research had given me the realization that all the reasons for these behaviours were created by my method of teaching, owing to the belief that maximum exposure to English language in the classroom is the way. Crucially, this research has abolished that belief and reminded me that it is all a classic myth.

Undoubtedly, I have gained a deeper understanding of critical literacy and bilingual teaching. I have eye-witnessed in this research that Tongan bilingual students can think critically when the language barrier is demolished and there is no harm at all in teaching English language using their mother-tongue. After all, they have the right to maintain their traditional and cultural heritage, their identity, their Tongan language.

Finally, in order to educate the young generation of Tonga to become critically literate in a developing Tongan nation which is undergoing social, economic and political changes, and a Tongan nation which is susceptible to the tsunami-sized wave of changes and its catastrophic effects, a critical literacy approach should be incorporated in the Tongan language curriculum document. Bilingual teaching is the vehicle for achieving greater heights in critical literacy.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Waikato University's ethical approval.

Dean's Office
School of Education
Te Kura Toi Tangata
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton, New Zealand

Phone +64 7 838 4466
Ext 8283
www.waikato.ac.nz
ggiles@waikato.ac.nz



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

MEMORANDUM

To: **Peseti Tupou Vea**
cc: Professor Terry Locke; Dr Margaret Franken

From: **Dr Rosemary De Luca**
School of Education Research Ethics Committee

Date: 20 January 2010

Subject: Research Ethics Application

Thank you for submitting the amendments to your research proposal:

Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom

I am pleased to advise that your application has received ethical approval.

Please note that researchers are asked to consult with the School's Research Ethics Committee in the first instance if any changes to the approved research design are proposed.

The Committee wishes you all the best with your research.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Rosemary De Luca'.

Dr Rosemary De Luca
Chairperson
School of Education Research Ethics Committee

Appendix 2: The study unit.

Introduction to unit

After stating the theme, *Sports*, and introducing the approach to use which is Critical Literacy I will proceed on with a Pre-Unit activity. I decided to conduct this activity in Tongan. This is to lay students' foundation of knowledge on the broader context of the theme- 'Sports'. I need them to uncover for themselves in their own language their different views and understanding of the theme before the actual engagement with the three texts.

Pre- unit activity 1: 'Fakakikihi Lea' (Debate)

Proposition: 'Oku totonu ke kau e Sipoti i he Silapa ae ngaahi ako o Tonga"
(*That sports should be included in Tongan school curriculum*)

This task will be monitored by the teacher. Students will be briefed on conventions of debating however, it will also stress that the emphasis will be more on their point of arguments instead on proper procedures of debate. This activity should give students with low ability in English the chance to actively involve.

NOTE: This unit is designed with consideration of Tongan classrooms setting. Teaching of this unit will then be in both English and Tongan vernacular. In doing so, students will be fully engaged with the three texts particularly those less able students in English as a subject and as a second language.

Pre- Activity 2: Whole Class Oral Discussions:

1. Name a sport that you like?
2. Each student will then explain why he/she likes that particular sport?
3. Which is the most popular sport in Tonga nowadays?
4. Why is that the most popular sport in Tonga?
5. List some advantages of sports.
6. List some disadvantages of sports.

DISCUSSION AND ACTIVITY FOCUS

TEXT ONE: *BEGINNING OF THE TOURNAMENT* By Witi Ihimaera

1. Lead in Activities

Title Discussion: Whole Class Oral Discussion.

1. What is the meaning of the title to you?
2. List down words that you associated with Tournament?
3. Does the title give you any hints of what might happen in the story?

Small Group Discussions (Two to three members).

What are our experiences of a Tournament? Have you read about it in another story? Have you seen a Tournament in a movie? Does your local community have any sort of tournament? What is its purpose? Do you sometime involve in a community tournament or any tournament?

2. Focussing Questions.

General Purpose of the text.

1. What is the kind of Tournament presented in the text? How does the author develop this kind of tournament? Who is participating in this tournament? Who are the possible target audience for this story and why?

Different meanings of the text.

- 1). List all the main incidents in the story? Which one is the most important incident in the story and why? Do you think what happened in the story would happen in your own community too? Explain your reasons. Do think what happened in the story still happens in that community (of the story)? Explain your reasons.

Structures and features of the text.

- 1). Identify interesting word or phrases used by the author. Why do you think the author used this language? How does these language features help

bring out the author’s ideas clearer? Who is narrating the story? Imagine you are the narrator; would you change anything about you?

Community Construction: Adjectives Inventions

Revisit the story again. After, fill in the box below to construct communities ‘value of tournament. That is, Waituhi, Wellington and your own community. According to the story how do Waituhi , Wellington people do or organise their tournament (doesn’t have to be hockey- any kind of sport). What about your own community? Then state the purpose of Tournament to each community. Students will be asked to use adjectives- one word or phrase (or their own related to context) as used by the story for Waituhi and Wellington. They could invent their own to describe their own community’s tournament.

Sport Tournament	Waituhi	Wellington	Your own community
Sport field			
Sport Gear			
Team members			
Sport rules			
Purpose			

3. Follow up Activities.

Follow up activity: Short Paragraph.

Students will then use their chart to write up short paragraphs or series of paragraphs. The topic will be: “I prefer to live.....”. They will have to use adjectives used in the box above in their paragraphs. The idea is that students will judge for themselves which community they prefer in term of how they organize sport tournament. Language literacy is incorporated in this unit- focusing on

adjectives or descriptive words or phrases. Teacher will go around monitoring and facilitating the process. The end piece will be presented to the rest of the class.

Group Activity: Advertisement

In group of three: Design an advertisement to advertise a sport tournament to be held in your local community. (Features of advertisement had been taught in class). They are going to present their advertisement in a cover of a brochure. Inside the brochure will be detail programs of the Tournament (A sample of a brochure will be displayed for clarity).

Buddy- Activity (In two pair- maybe with best friend or own choice of pair):

Newspaper Article: Cartoon Strip.

Theme: Sports: a Cultural Conservation method.

Students will be asked to construct a cartoon strip to display the given theme. Their cartoon will be published in one of the local newspaper on column for youths. They must bear in then; the target audience is specifically for youth. The cartoon should fit half of a A4 size paper.

DISCUSSION AND ACTIVITIES FOCUS

TEXT TWO: Newspaper article: “*Tonga’s Walter Pupu’a new light Heavyweight Champ*” (Matangi Tonga newspaper: online)

1.Lead in Activity:

1). Cut and Paste

(Variety of local newspaper provided. Students are asked to read a newspaper then cut an article to paste on their exercise book. It has to be an article on sports. The aim of this article is for students to gain a fair idea of how this genre is constructed. Students will report to the class the main idea or subject of their each article).

2). Whole Class Oral Discussion:

In which sport do you associate the words *light heavyweight* with? What is the content of the article then about? (The teacher writes the responses on the word then proceed on to read the article aloud. Since it is a short article, the teacher can read it to the whole class). While the teacher reads the article, students are expected to listen attentively then check their responses.

2. Focussing Questions and Activities.

Purposes of the text.

1. Who wrote this text? Who is the narrator? Is it possible for the writer to be the narrator in such text?
2. Who are the likely readers (target audience). Explain your answer?
3. What is the genre of this text?
4. Where would you find such text?

Language Analysis

1. Why is the word WALTER in big bolded letter?
2. Why is it written in run-on or uncontrolled sentence structures?
3. It is written in a conversational form. Why?
4. What is the purpose of paragraph structure used by the writer?
5. What do the word choices suggest?
6. Do you detect any bias descriptions of Walter in the text? List these descriptions then explain why they considered bias.

Point of views

1. What is the writer's view of sport in this text? Does it affect your perspectives of sports? Why do you personally think of this kind of sports (Boxing)? What are the cultural implications and context of such sports? What are the different viewpoints presented in this text? How do these viewpoints contribute to the promotion of Tonga? Would you be willing to represent Tonga in any sport if, say you had migrated overseas then become popular there? Explain your answers?
2. Do you think the writer of this article presents a different perspective of sports to that presented in '*Beginning of the Tournament*'?

Activity 1

1. Read the text then identify the viewpoints presented in the content by the following people towards Walter. Then provide examples from the story to justify your answers.

* Writer:

Example:

* Danny Taumoepaeau:

Example:

* Walter:

Example:

2. Which one from the above list presented the most reliable view towards Walter and why?

Activity 2

Composing Poems: Individual task.

Read the text again. Create your own topic based on the text. Write two stanzas of four verses poem about your topic.

(**Note:** Topic must be related to anything from the text. For example- on language used, people in which the text is about, maybe on the theme of the text such as championship or South Pacific Games). Anything at least it is derived from the text). The final product will be checked by the teacher then students will read their poem to the rest of the class. The best poems will be published in the school year book at the end of the year.

TEXT THREE: A poem by English Poet, A. E. Housman: ‘*To an Athlete Dying Young*’.

Discussions and Activity Focus.

A brief revision of Poetic Devices will be done before giving students the copy of the poem. Also, brief notes on poet will be given too. It is important for students to learn a little bit of background about the poet. The poet’s culture and

community might have some influences on the way he or she composes poem.
Such as:

The English poet and classical scholar Alfred Edward Housman (1859-1936) is known for the simplicity of his form and language, the narrow range of his subject matter, and the attitude of traditional stoicism which his poems present.

New words discussion: Find new words (from the poem) then discuss their meaning

Identify new words from the poem that you (students) do not understand their meaning. Discuss their meaning with the person sitting next to you. Use a dictionary if necessary but remember not to change the meaning of words in context.

Then followed by a general discussion of the form of the poem (type).

1. Lead in Activity:

General purpose of the text.

- 1). What is the meaning of the title? Does it foreshadow the events to come later in the text?
- 1). What is the general subject of the poem?
- 2). Housman wrote this poem in the 17th century in England. How might English people view sports hero when they die according to the poem? Do you think this view is changing in this century in England? What about your own community- What is their attitude towards sport hero or championship?

Different meaning of the text.

1. Who is the persona or the speaker of this text? Who is 'you' in first stanza refers to? What happened to 'you' according to the poem?

2. What is the tone evoked in this poem? Explain what happened in the poem that leads to the poet's intended tone.
4. What happened at the beginning and ending of the poem? Does the atmosphere change? Why?

Structure and technical features of the text.

- 1). The poet used Past Tense, Present Tense and future tense in the poem. Identify examples of these tenses from the poem. Why did the poem choose to use these tenses in just one poem? What is the effect of such technique in the overall poem (or in term of the subject of the poem)?
- 2). Which stanza in the poem signalled a shift of mood and the meaning of the poem?
- 3). Identify examples of words or phrases from the poem that particularly attract your attention. Explain in detail your answer supported with examples from the poem.
- 4). What do you think of the language employed by the poet? Is it difficult or easy to understand? Do you think the poet chose either to use simple or difficult language on purpose? What might be those underlying purposes?
- 5). Identify examples of Sound Devices and Imagery from the poem. Discuss their effects. Would this poem achieve its intended effects if without these devices? Would you add on other devices to make the poem more effective? What might be those devices and why?
- 6). Discuss the speaker' or poet's attitude towards the persona or the subject of the poem? Explain why the speaker or the poet invented such attitude? What are the underlying social contexts of the poem? Provide examples from the poem.

Activities:

- 1). Mini Diary Entry: Write a one day entry beginning with one of the following. You must make reference to the poem as you go along writing your entry. (One page entry).

I feel sorry for.....

I like the poem because.....

If I was the poet I would.....

My hero

If only I could change time.

My favourite stanza.

2). Oral Class Discussion.

Does the view presented in the poem change your perspectives towards an athlete? What could be your possible reasons for your answer?

3). Group Work and Discussion.

1) How does your society view people who die early but have significance achievement in life? In different fields- sports, school, church or anything else.

2). How does it different or similar to attitudes presented in the poem?

Role Play: In Group of four or five.

Choose an event from the poem or maybe a stanza to role play. Dramatize the event as it happens in the poem. Each group could extend the meaning of the idea they extracted from the poem. Some groups may wish to base the message of their role play on a phrase or significant words from the poem. Whatever the title of their role plays it must be directly related to the poem in general.

Imagery Drawing: In pairs

Select imagery from the poem. It could be a Sound Device or Figure of Speech. Transform your imagery into a drawing on a A4 size foolscap. Give your drawing a title. You might need a short caption on the side to help bringing the meaning of your drawing clearer.

COMPARING AND CONTRASTING THE THREE TEXTS.

ACTIVITY ONE: General Discussion.

- 1).What are the three kind of sports given in these three texts?
- 2). Which one is your favourite sport? If none of these, do you like any of them after learning about them from these three articles?

3). Have your views of these sports change after reading these texts? Why?

ACTIVITY TWO: Filling in the boxes: To be done in small group of four.

Quickly read all the texts now. Fill in the table below using the different constructed perspectives of sports given by each text or could be predicted from each text.

Texts	Cultural and social views of sports	Economical views of sports	Political views of sports
1). <i>Beginning of the Tournament</i>			
2). <i>Tonga's Walter Pupu'a new Light Heavyweight Champ</i>			
3). <i>To an Athlete dying young</i>			

ACTIVITY THREE: SELF EVALUATION SHEET: SMALL GROUP

ACTIVITY.

Students will be asked to recall their debate done in Tongan at the very beginning of the unit. Then look at the chart they just filled above. Then fill in this chart.

Evaluation of your (students) general perspectives on sports.

Views of sports prior to doing this unit	Views sports during the process of the unit	Views of sports after doing this unit
Views	Views:	Views:
Reasons	Reasons:	Reasons:
Supporting examples:	Supporting examples:	Supporting Examples:

Note: Students are allowed to bring in examples from their own experiences. Also, they could bring in examples from the texts.

WRITING EXTENSION ACTIVITIES.

Suggested writing activities to be followed after this unit.

TASK ONE: CREATIVE WRITING: PERSONAL REFLECTION OR IMMIGINATIVE LETTER.

Students will be asked to write a personal reflection or imaginative letter on an unforgettable sports event.

TASK TWO: LETTER TO THE EDITOR.

Students will be asked to write a letter to editor to be published in one of the local newspapers. They are to address any current issues concerning sports (based in Tonga). They must include constructive suggestions on how to improve that issue.

TASK THREE: ARGUMENT ESSAY.

Students write an essay which builds an argument around “*Sports is life to Tongans*”.

TASK FOUR: Newspaper article

You are the news reporter for Tonga Chronicle or Taimi o Tonga Newspaper. Think of the constructed discourses and ideologies presented by the three texts. Think also of verbal discourses of sports in your society then write a newspaper article that reflects your position or your own beliefs.

(This task was used as the third formative assessment task)

Appendix 3: Invitation letter for students and consent form

Invitation letter for students

Dear Parents or Guardians,

Name: _____

Your son/daughter's name: _____

I wish to inform you that I, Peseti Vea, a Master student at Waikato University, am intending to undertake a research study, as one of the requirements for the completion of my Masters in Education at your child's school. With your permission I would like to involve your son/daughter in this research project.

The topic for my study is ***“Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom”***. I will implement a unit in your son/daughter's class. Also, for your own information, I will interview them regarding the unit taught. A copy of the interview transcription, and any sample of students' works conducted during the intervention unit will be made available should you wish to view it.

Since participation in this research study is voluntary, you have the right to decline your son/daughter's participation. However, every effort will be made to protect the identity of the participants (son/daughter) to remain anonymous by the use of pseudonyms. I also need to make it clear that any participant has the right to withdraw from this study up to a particular date.

For any queries you can contact me at tpv1@waikato.ac.nz or 0210510252, or my supervisor: Professor Terry Locke at t.locke@waikato.ac.nz Or: phone (64) 7 838 4500 Ext 7780.

If you are prepared to allow your son/daughter to participate, please refer to the attached consent form and sign for their voluntary participation.

Yours truly.

Pesti Vea

(Master of Education Research student).

Consent form for students

I _____ have read and understand the nature of research study on “*Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom*” and my role as a participant.

I also understand that my participation is completely voluntary and that I am free to decline answering any particular questions during interview or to withdraw from the study up to the point at the beginning of the analysis stage on the 19th of April, 2010.

I also understand that identity of my school will be kept strictly confidential and that I will remain anonymous when quoted. The information (data) obtained by the researcher will be used only for the purpose of fulfilling the thesis requirements for Master of Education at the University of Waikato. And I also agree to for my interview to be tape-recorded.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 4: Invitation letter for teachers and consent form

Invitation letter for teachers

Dear: _____

Subject: AN INVITATION FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

I wish to invite you to participate in a research project that I am currently undertaking as part of my thesis in Master of Education at the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.

The research project is titled: **“Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom”**. The research aims to investigate the appropriateness and possible benefits of using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in bilingual classroom in Tonga. It is hoped that this research will bring answers to why some Tongan students fail English as a subject and at the same time to revive the status of the Tongan language.

I have further elaborated about this research project on the attached *participant information sheet*, including what your roles and rights are if you wish to participate.

If you wish to participate, please refer to the attached informed consent form and indicate your voluntary participation by signing the form by January 29, 2010.

Yours faithfully

Peseti Vea

(Master of Education Research Student).

Consent form for teachers

I _____ have read and understand the nature of research study on “*Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom*” and my role as a participant.

I also understand that my participation is completely voluntary and that I am free to decline answering any particular questions during interview or to withdraw from the study up to the point at the beginning of the analysis stage on the 19th of April, 2010.

I also understand that identity of my school will be kept strictly confidential and that I will remain anonymous when quoted. The information (data) obtained by the researcher will be used only for the purpose of fulfilling the thesis requirements for Master of Education at the University of Waikato. And I also agree to for my interview to be tape-recorded.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 5: Invitation letter to Director of schools and consent form

Invitation letter to Director of schools

Dear Sir/Madam:

**RE: SEEKING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON
“IMPLEMENTING CRITICAL LITERACY IN A TONGAN
BILINGUAL CLASSROOM”.**

I am currently enrolled in a Master of Education at the University of Waikato in Hamilton, New Zealand. As part of the program I am required to undertake home-based research to complete my Masters thesis on a chosen topic and therefore, I am seeking permission to conduct my research in one of your high schools.

My research topic is *“Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom”*. As an English teacher for past seven years, I have come across issues such as students’ lack of interest in English as a subject. It is therefore anticipated that this research will bring some answers to why students have a lack of interest in English and also ways to improve students’ academic attainment. Not only that, but it is hoped this study will bring effective teaching strategies to teachers of the English subject in Tongan bilingual classrooms.

The research will implement a unit on critical literacy within an additive bilingual approach (*using Tongan language in a way that supports the learning of English*). On completion, I intend to interview students and Tongan English teachers at your school. The research will adhere strictly to the University of Waikato’s Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations (2008) located at <http://calendar.waikato.ac.nz/assessment/ethicalConduct.html>

All information will be strictly confidential, and every effort will be made by use of pseudonyms for the institution and participants to remain anonymous. The information obtained will only be used for the purpose of fulfilling the requirements of a Master of Education. The author and supervisor may also use the information in publishing journal articles and conference presentation. However, if other people would want to use any information used or written in this thesis, they

must seek the author's consent first. The complete thesis will be lodged on the Australian Digital Database.

I anticipate conducting my research at the end of January, 2010 should I be given access to your institution and prospective participants upon their consents. This study is hoped to fit in with school time and without disruption to the school program.

This research project is under the supervision of Professor Terry Locke at the University of Waikato and for any queries, his contact details are: Telephone: (64) 7 – 838 4500, Facsimile: (64) 7 – 8384555 and Email: t.locke@waikato.ac.nz . If you wish to contact me, my contact details are: faleloa@gmail.com and mobile (64) 7 – 0210510252.

To show your approval, please sign the attached consent form.

Yours faithfully

Peseti Vea

(Master of Education Research Student).

Consent form for the Director

I _____ have read and understand the nature of the research study on “*Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom*” and that your school will be used as the research site for this research study.

I also understand that the participating teachers' and students' participation are completely voluntary and that they are free to decline answering any particular questions during the interview or the intervention unit or to withdraw from the study up to the point at the beginning of the analysis stage on the 19th of April, 2010.

I also understand that identity of my school will be kept strictly confidential and that all participants from my school will remain anonymous when quoted. The information (data) obtained by the researcher will be used only for the purpose of fulfilling the thesis requirements for Master of Education at the University of Waikato.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 6: Invitation letter to principal and consent form

Invitation letter to principal

Dear Sir/Madam:

**RE: SEEKING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON
“IMPLEMENTING CRITICAL LITERACY IN A TONGAN
BILINGUAL CLASSROOM” AT YOUR SCHOOL.**

I am currently enrolled in a Master of Education at the University of Waikato in Hamilton, New Zealand. As part of the program I am required to undertake home – based research to complete my Master thesis on a chosen topic and therefore, I am seeking your permission to conduct my research at your school.

My research topic is *“Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom”*. As an English teacher for past seven years, I have come across issues such as students’ failure and lack of interest in English as a subject. It is therefore anticipated that this research will bring some answers to why students have a lack of interest in English and also ways to improve students’ academic attainment. Not only that, but it is hoped this study will bring effective teaching strategies to teachers of the English subject in Tongan bilingual classrooms.

The research will implement a unit on critical literacy within an additive bilingual approach (*using Tongan language in a way that supports the learning of English*). On completion, I intend to interview students and Tongan English teachers at your school. The research will adhere strictly to the University of Waikato’s Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations (2008) located at <http://calendar.waikato.ac.nz/assessment/ethicalConduct.html>

All information will be strictly confidential, and every effort will be made by use of pseudonyms for the institution and participants to remain anonymous. The information obtained will only be used for the purpose of fulfilling the requirements of a Master of Education. The author and supervisor may also use the information in publishing journal articles and conference presentation. However, if other people would want to use any information used or written in this thesis, they must seek the author’s consent first. The complete thesis will be lodged on the Australian Digital Database.

I anticipate conducting my research at the end of January, 2010 should I be given access to your institution and prospective participants upon their consents. This study is hoped to fit in with school time and without disruption to the school program.

This research project is under the supervision of Professor Terry Locke at the University of Waikato and for any queries, his contact details are: Telephone: (64) 7 – 838 4500, Facsimile: (64) 7 – 8384555 and Email: t.locke@waikato.ac.nz . If you wish to contact me, my contact details are: faleloa@gmail.com and mobile (64) 7 – 0210510252.

To show your approval, please sign the attached consent form.

Yours faithfully

Peseti Vea

(Master of Education Research Student)

Consent form for the principal

I _____ have read and understand the nature of research study on “*Implementing critical literacy in a Tongan bilingual classroom*” and that your school will be used as the research site for this research study.

I also understand that the participating teachers’ and students’ participation are completely voluntary and that they are free to decline answering any particular questions during the interview or the intervention unit or to withdraw from the study up to the point at the beginning of the analysis stage on the 19th of April, 2010.

I also understand that identity of my school will be kept strictly confidential and that the participating students and teachers will remain anonymous when quoted. The information (data) obtained by the researcher will be used only for the purpose of fulfilling the thesis requirements for Master of Education at the University of Waikato.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 7: Copy of questionnaire

Aims (Questionnaires and both Pre-intervention tests): To find out the students’:

- Views of reading.
- Motivation in English class.
- Level of ability in English language.
- Level of ability in Tongan language.
- Ability to read English passage critically.
- Ability to read Tongan passage critically.
- Ability to use both Tongan and English language correctly

Instructions: Read the statement and tick the column you most agree with.

	Strongly agree	agree	Strongly disagree	disagree
1. Reading is a fun activity to do				
2. I like reading				
3. I like to read Tongan books only				
4. I like to read English books only				
5. I like to share what I read to friends				
6. I like to share what I read to teachers				
7. I like to share what I read to parents				
	Very often	Often	Rarely	Never
8. We read short stories in class				
9. We read poems in class				
10. We read plays in class				
11. We read comprehension passages in class				
12. In class I volunteer to read				
13. In class I read when I am told to				
14. In class I share my ideas and opinions.				
15. In class I volunteer to participate.				
16. In class I participate only when I am told to				
17. In class I ask questions when I'm not sure				
18. In class I complete my work on time				
19. In class I am active when work with peers				
20. In class I am active when work on my own				

Appendix 8: Pre-intervention test 1: Tongan language

Tongan studies: Form 6
Research study Pre-test.
Maaka Katoa: 20

Name: _____

VAHE 'ULUAKI: LAUTOHI MO E TALIFEHU'I (Maaka 10)

Talanoa (maaka 10)

Lau ae talanoa ke mahino pea tali kotoa ae ngaahi fehu'i i lalo.

Ko Tupou 1

Tokua 'i he tu'itu'ia 'a Hoamofaleono, na'a ne **afua** ki he toto 'o e tangata. Ko e **pekepkatama** ia ki he me'a e fai 'amui pea kitea e Ma'afu 'a e me'a e hoko 'o ne fekau ka fa'ele'i e tamasi'i pea 'ave 'o tamate'i he 'oku **utua** mai te nau kaime'akovi 'i ha me'a e fai 'e he tamasi'i 'i he haka'u. 'I hono 'alo'i na'a nau vakai koe fu'u tama kafakafa mo hoihoifua. Na'e tokolahi 'a e hou'eiki na'e ta'ofi 'a e fakapo 'onau tauhi pe ke fai ha 'anau fekau. Malie 'a e 'ikai fai he ka ne pehe, 'e iku fefe nai a Tonga ni 'i he taimi ni, ko e me'a ofa 'a e 'Otua ma'a tonga, 'io mo Polinisia foki.

Na'e fakahuafa ia ko Ngingingini Ofolanga, ko e 'uhinga 'o e hingoa, ko e motu meimei ngingingini hono niu 'a ia koe pehe oku ikai ha kakano mo kovi, ka 'i hono foa ke ma'u hono kakano, ta oku fu'e lelei pea 'aonga ke kai. Ko e palofisai tofufu pe 'a e huafa ni. Na'e fakatu'atamaki a Ma'afu moe tokolahi o pehe koe tama e fakatu'utamaki mo kovi mo ta'e'aonga, ka ta 'oku fufu pe 'i hono loto mo e laumalie ha koto me'a 'aonga ma'ae kakai moe Fonua. Pea 'i he foa ia 'aki 'ae heleta 'o e folofola, ta oku fu'u lelei hono finangalo 'o ne fakamaama ae fonua po'uli mo fakatau'ataina'i 'a e kakai na'e nofo popula 'i he lalo nima o hou'eiki mo foaki lao mo Konisitutone ki he fonua na'e **tongapule'ia**.

Ko e huafa e taha koe Taufatahi. Ko e huafa ia ne ma'u i tahi. Na'e tengetange 'a e tama ai ki mu'a pea nae feinga'i a i Haapai pea 'ikai lava. Na'a nau pehe leva ke 'ave kia Pulotukatoa 'i Mu'a 'i he potu oku ui ko Avatui. Ko hono taula ko Kautai na'e nofo i 'Ahau. Malo 'eanu feinga he na'e fakaaonga enau tui pea lelei ae tama. Na'e fulihi ai e Kautai hono hufa ko Taufatahi 'o ui ko Taufa'ahau.

Fehu'i.

1. Faka'uhanga'i mai e ngaahi fo'i lea ko eni fakatatau kihe lau ae talanoa. (maaka 2).
 - a). afua:
.....
 - e). pekepekatama:
.....
 - f). utua:
.....
 - h). tongapule'ia:
.....
2. Ko e ha hono faikehekehe 'o e me'a ne kikite e Ma'afu mo e palofisai fekau'aki moe huafa Ngingingini Ofolanga? (maaka 2)
.....
3. Na'e makatu'unga 'i he ha ae liliu ae huafa 'o e tama ko Taufa'ahau? (maaka 1)
.....
4. Ko e ha e 'uhinga 'o e lau ko eni he talanoa "foa ai 'aki 'a e heleta 'oe folofola"? (maaka 3)
.....
5. Oku ke pehe nai oku fiema'u 'ehe talanoa ke ke pou pou pe 'ikai kia Tupou 1? (maaka 1)
.....
6. Hiki mai ha 'uhinga lelei mei he talanoa oku ne fakamo'oni'I ho'o tali ki he fika 5? (maaka 1)
.....
7. Ke pehe nai oku taukapo'I 'e he talanoa ae pule a Tupou 1 pe koe Tupou 5? Fakamatala'I ke mahino 'uhinga ho'o tali pea hiki mai moha fakamo'oni (mei he talanoa pe ko ha me'a ku hoko tonu I ho sosaieti. (maaka 2).
.....

KONGA UA: LEA MO HONO NGAUE'AKI

(Maaka 10).

Konga A :

Maaka 5

Fakahokohoko mai 'a e ngaahi Angi ko eni ki he'ene tonu taha.

- 1. Hoka Pea hoka veteki
- 2. Takatu'u mai ko e ngaue ke huohua'i.
- 3. Tuku atu, Tuku malie pe kae palu.
- 4. Takatu'u mai ko e ngaue ke fakaavaava.
- 5. Takatu'u mai koe ngaue ke lau.

Konga E: Kalama

(Maaka 5).

Tohi'i mai 'a e tu'unga fakakalama 'o e lea 'oku laine'i.

- 1. E puna pehe mai pe.
 'E:
- pehe:
- mai:
- pe:
- 2. Ko kimoua mo hai?
 Ko:
- hai:
- 3. Neongo e me'a kotoa 'e 'omai leva 'apongipongi.
 Neongo :
- leva :
- 4. 'I he puna 'a e vaka teu foki mai.
 'I :
- puna :

Appendix 9: Pre-intervention test 2: English language

English: Form Six
Research study Pre-Test
Total Marks: 20

Name: _____

SECTION A: COMPREHENSION 10 marks

Read the passage carefully then answer the given questions.

Salaries and Benefits Report 2006 – A Survey in the Kingdom of Tonga

The private sector in Tonga like never before is looking hard at its remuneration packages for employees. Over the past two years there have been *significant challenges* to the employment market. The public service demands for 60, 70 and 80 per cent increases *crippled the Government's budget*, leaving little left for crucial operations and infrastructure. The private sector and civil society did not respond immediately, but instead looked hard at the remuneration they were already providing to their staff with the intention of ensuring that it allowed them to keep up with inflation and maintain their purchasing power. The private sector is known for rewarding their staff for their *loyalty* and their contribution to the organization, and is less inclined to raise salaries under duress.

More and more outside influences affect *the purchasing power* of the employee. Inflation is still a major part of the equation; however, other factors such as increased taxes and contributions to superannuation schemes may soon have an even greater influence on these factors. At the same time, new employment legislation may increase leave entitlements and other factors which could result in increased costs for some organizations. This may impact their budgets and their ability to increase salaries in future. Employers need to know what's coming to prepare for the possible additional costs to their operations.

'Uta'atu & Associates has once again conducted their biennial survey on salaries and benefits in the private sector in Tonga, our seventh survey since 1994. The information in the survey plays an important role in the Kingdom, providing stable, consistent and reputable information about the private sector that is not otherwise available. We maintained a solid base of participants, despite the fact that some of the organizations included in previous surveys had either merged, moved, closed down or otherwise ceased to exist, or were unable to participate in this year's survey.

This is a survey of the private sector however, information on Government salaries and benefits and has again been added to the appendices for comparative purposes as this continues to be of interest to the readers of the report.

Our team really '*went the extra mile*' to prepare and present this report. At the outset we poled our participants for new questions to be added to the questionnaire. We prepared a new data base to make the entry of information and the extraction of information easier and this enabled us to present more tables and figures. We have added new appendices on upcoming legislation which will have an impact on future remuneration, and have generally improved the report overall.

We are very proud to present the Salaries and Benefits Report 2006 to assist both employers and employees in the Kingdom.

By Christine M. 'Uta'atu, CPA

Part A: Multiple Choice (6 marks)

Circle the letter of the BEST answer in the box provided.

1. The author's main concern in paragraph 1 is about
 - a. effects of pay rise on the government.
 - b. government's budget for 2006.
 - c. challenges faced by the government.
 - d. private sector's review of business interests.

2. The '*significant challenges*' mentioned in line 2 refers to the
 - a. employment market and its inability to meet the demands.
 - b. demands for 60, 70 and 80 % pay increase by the public service.
 - c. rise of prices caused by devaluing of money.
 - d. demands for pay rise, insufficient budget, payment offered by private sector.

3. As used in the passage, the phrase "*... crippled the Government's budget, ...*" (line 3) is an example of
 - a. metaphor
 - b. personification
 - c. simile
 - d. Onomatopoeia

4. Which of the following words is the best synonym for the work *loyalty* (line 8)?
 - a. royalty.
 - b. faithfulness
 - c. kindness

- d. Obedience
5. As used in the passage the *'purchasing power of the employee'* line 10 refers to
 - a. the ability to buy.
 - b. having power to do anything.
 - c. being able to buy the employers off.
 - d. the power to influence the workers.
 6. The expression used in line 26 *'we went the extra mile'* means that the
 - a. report was thought out in detail.
 - b. survey went a bit further than the truth.
 - c. survey was very thorough.
 - d. report took a long time to be prepared.

Part B: Short Answer Questions (4 marks)

Answer the following questions from the passage.

1. Does the writer expect you to approve of the “public service demand of 50, 60, 70 percent pay rise? (½ mark)

2. Explain your reasons? (1 1/2 mark)

3. Find evidence in the passage which tells you that the writer wants you to think highly of their organization. (Refer to paragraph 3). (Give at least two evidence). (2 marks).

PART A:

PROOF READING

(10 marks)

*There is **ONE** mistake in each line. Write the correction of the mistakes in the spaces provided.*

WINNERS AND LOSERS

1. The contrast was dramatic. As western
 2. Samoa's rugby team soared on the
 3. rugby World Cup in Europe Fiji's slumped.
 4. For decades the Fijian have enjoyed
 5. all the benefits of being regard as
 - 6 the top rugby nation over the islands.
 7. So much so that they've almost came
 8. to take it for granted. They've gotten the
 9. tours, the visits by top Rugby nations, and
 10. the invitations. But in one month at Europe
- all that changed.

Appendix 10: Copy of Observation schedule

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE: Occurrence of students' Exhibited behaviour. To record students' responses to the intervention unit, in particular to the usage of critical literacy and code – switching to teach English literature: in terms of:

1. Motivation.
2. Achievement of lesson's objectives.

Time:	Lesson:	Duration:	Topic:
BEHAVIOUR			
<i>Utterances Behavior</i>			
• Initiates discussion			
• Volunteers to read			
• Volunteers to answer questions			
• Participates in group discussions			
• Share opinions freely.			
• Participate in class discussions			
• Asks questions to clarify ideas			
<i>Non-utterances observable behavior.</i>			
• Arriving to class on time.			
• Ready for lesson without being told by the teacher.			
• On task record (record every 5 minutes)			
• Completes tasks on time			
• Well-equipped with school materials (pens, note book, ruler etc)			
• Well behaved in class, doesn't disturb others.			
Critical Literacy oriented-behavior			
• Gives reasons why authors write texts.			
• Shows an understanding that text's offer a partial view of reality.			
• Is willing to disagree with an author's position on something.			
• Shows evidence of a willingness to form their own view of a topic.			
• Shows ability to critique society's views of sports and of sports participation.			
Code- Switching (Using Tongan Language while teaching)			
• Responds faster to questions when Tongan language is used.			
• Appreciates texts engagement through use of Tongan and English language.			
• Shows willingness to discuss questions when discussions are done in Tongan language.			

INSTRUCTIONS:

For this observation, consistency is important to show that the observed behavior is the true behavior. Write in the right hand column the initial of the student(s) who exhibit(s) the behavior in the left hand column each time it happens. Note down additional comments, as necessary to provide a rich description of events and classroom atmosphere.

Eg.: A- Alice, B-Ben, C- Cathy, D- Daniel, E- Elsy

Comments (classroom atmosphere, organization, weather, events relevant to project, etc.):

Appendix 11: Formative assessment task 1

ENGLISH: ASSESSMENT

TOTAL MARKS: 15%

The aim of this task is to:

- **Assess students' ability to read Ihimaere's story critically.**
- **Test students' understanding of the story.**
- **To test student's ability to assess the way Ihimaera positions the readers in the story.**

Name: _____

Instructions:

Write a series of one page paragraphs on the given topic.

Topic: How is Ihimaera encouraging his readers to think about sport? (Example: non- competition, about whanau etc).

- You are required to discuss ways that Ihimaera used in this story which encourages his readers : eg: characters' behavior, the appropriateness of the setting etc.
- Then use detail examples from the story to support your discussions.

Appendix 12: Formative Assessment task 2

The aim of this task is to:

- Assess students own evaluation of boxing as a sport.
- Find out students cultural implications of boxing as a sport.
- Find out how students assess viewpoints given in the text towards boxing.

NAME: _____

Instructions:

- Discuss the following questions and write as much as you want about each question.
- You are allowed to discuss each question with your partner.
- Revisit the article before answering the questions.

1. What do you think of Boxing as a sport?

.....

2. What are the cultural implications of such sport?

.....

3. In overseas countries, Boxing is done by both male and female. Do you think Tongan women should be allowed to join this kind of sport? Why?

.....

4. Identify the viewpoints presented in the text towards Walter, then provide example of each from the text.

- Writer:.....
Example
- DannyTaumoepeau:
Example:
- Walter:
Example:

5. How do these viewpoints contribute to the promotion of Tonga?

.....

Appendix 13: Formative assessment task 3

Name: _____

AIMS: This task is aiming at students to: - identify different issues or concerns with sports in their community.

- Suggest ways to solve these issues or concerns.
- build their own personal views or arguments on sports in Tonga
- Relate what they have learnt from the three texts to their own reality or community.

Choose only one from the three tasks given here:

TASK ONE: CREATIVE WRITING: PERSONAL REFLECTION OR IMMIGINATIVE LETTER.

Students will be asked to write a personal reflection or imaginative letter on an unforgettable sports event.

TASK TWO: LETTER TO THE EDITOR.

Students will be asked to write a letter to editor to be published in one of the local newspapers. They are to address any current issues concerning sports (based in Tonga). They must include constructive suggestions on how to improve that issue.

TASK THREE: ARGUMENT ESSAY.

Students write an essay which builds an argument around *“Sports is life to Tongans”*.

Appendix 14: Students' interview schedule

1. Group focus interview- students.

As I explained to you at the beginning of the unit I taught, the work I have been doing with your class will help me complete and to hopefully pass my Master degree. Also, I explained to you at the beginning through this research, I would like to investigate the appropriateness and possible benefits of using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in bilingual classrooms in Tonga. All information provided by you during the interview shall remain confidential between the interviewer and interviewees. A copy of the transcribed interview will be made available to all participants for your validation.

You have been selected for the interview, it is because, as students who have experienced the intervention taught, you are now in the best position to talk about your experiences and share your opinions of the unit taught and in particular, critical literacy and code-switching. Your opinions are valuable to the success of the research.

The objectives of the interview are as follows:

- **To find out if your views of sport has changed after the unit on critical literacy.**
- **To record your opinions of critical literacy as a teaching strategy.**
- **To find out if code-switching had helped with your understanding of the unit taught.**
- **To find out if code-switching should be used by teachers teaching English class in Tongan classrooms.**

Interview Guide.

Part A: English subject

1. Which of the following parts of English subject do you enjoy the most?
 - a. Language (Grammar, etc)
 - b. Literature (short stories, dramas, poetry, novel..etc)

Prompts: please tell me why you like that part, and when did you start liking that part...which level or class...why?
2. How did your previous English teachers teach that part of English?
3. Do you notice if that teaching approach is still used in your classrooms now?

Prompts..why..please tell me more about it....

Part A : Critical literacy

4. Which part of the unit did you find most exciting? (***Why???***)
5. The theme of the unit is "Sport". After learning about sport from the three different texts used, Did your view of sport change? (***Why...please explain***)

6. Do you think critical literacy- as a teaching strategy had helped you change your view of sport?
7. Could you think of any possible advantages or disadvantages of critical literacy as a teaching approach to teach English literature? (*please explain your answer in detail*)
8. Does critical literacy affect your attitude towards English literature? (*How or in what way??*)
9. Do you think critical literacy will help you change your attitude towards reading (either reading in Tongan or in English? (*why...please explain??*))

Part C: Code-Switching

10. Do you think students should be allowed to speak in Tongan in this school or in English at all times? (*why....*)
11. Do you think teachers should be taught in Tongan language in this school or English only? (*why....*)
12. During the unit I taught, I used to speak in Tongan, Do you think it was suitable and appropriate (to use Tongan language when teaching English? (*Please explain your answers.....*))
13. When do you think English Tongan teachers should speak in Tongan during English class?
14. Do you think that code-switching helped understand the subject better?
Prompts: please explain your reasons.....
Why Yes or No then please explain further.....

Appendix 15: Teacher's interview schedule

1. Group focus interview- teachers.

As I mentioned before, as well as trying to pass my Master degree, the aim of this research is to investigate the appropriateness and possible benefits of using Critical Literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in a bilingual classroom in Tonga.

The objectives of the interview are as follows:

- **To record your views on the benefits of using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in Tongan classrooms.**
- **To record your views on any problems when using critical literacy as a teaching strategy to teach literature in Tongan classrooms.**
- **To find out if code-switching supports critical literacy as a teaching strategy.**
- **To find out if code-switching is suitable to use in teaching English literature in Tongan classrooms.**

All information provided by you shall remain confidential between the interviewer and interviewees. A copy of the transcribed interview will be made available to all participants for your validation.

In order to achieve maximum accuracy in the collection of information, I would like to request your permission to audiotape the interview.

You have been selected for this interview for your knowledge and expertise in teaching English at the secondary level, which is considered essential for this study and for the development of education in Tonga.

Interview Guide

I would like to thank you for your willingness to take part in this research study. In particular, I thank you for finding time in your busy schedule to attend this interview session. *Malo Lahi.*

Part A: Teaching motives

1. First of all, what was it that made you decide to become a teacher and to teach English?
2. Which of the following aspects of English subject do you find easy/enjoyable or difficult/hard to teach in your classrooms?
 - reading.
 - writing.

- speaking.
- listening.

Prompts: why? Please explain.

Part B: Strategies for teaching English.

3. What are the daily challenges do you face with in your English classrooms (other than teaching challenges)?
4. How do you overcome those challenges (other than teaching challenges)?
5. What are the teaching challenges do you face with in your classroom?
6. How do you deal or solve those teaching challenges?
7. What are the most effective teaching strategies you have ever used to teach English (Language and Literature)?
8. How do you know that it is the most effective strategy amongst others?

Part C: Critical Literacy as Literature teaching strategy.

9. Do you think students should be enforced to speak in English at all times once enter school compound? (**Prompts: Why...explain your answers please.....**)
10. What about at home and with friends?
9. How do you normally teach English Literature in your classroom?
11. Do you think Critical Literacy is suitable to use in Tongan classrooms?
Prompts: if Yes ..please explain! If No...please explain!
12. Intertextuality- is using of more than one text. What do you think of this strategy to use in a Tongan classroom to teach English literature? (**Advantages or disadvantages???**)
Prompts: please explain reasons...

Part D: Code-Switching

13. Do you think Tongan English teachers should use both English and Tongan language when teaching English Literature?
Prompts: if No.....please explain reasons.
If Yes...please explain reasons.....how much time should be given to Tongan language as used by the teacher?....or when should the teacher use Tongan language?
14. What do you think of any advantages and disadvantages of code-switching?

Appendix 16: Post-intervention test.

The aims of this Post- Test activity are as follow:

- Assess students' critical literacy skills.
- Evaluate if additive bilingual helps to support critical literacy thinking.

**Research Study Post-Test
Form 6 English
Total Marks: 23**

Name: _____

Question A: Read the poem carefully then answer the given questions.

The sportsman drops a goal

surprising everybody
and almost himself
he spun on his heel
and swung savagely
at the small bladder
which (he knew with certainty)
compromised parts of the pig
and with a swift boot
made up (he knew
with equal certainty)
from parts of calf
he lifted the ex-pig
high into the sky
and sent it zinging
between two posts of ex-tree

whereupon the terraces
erupted with brays
bleats and exultant whinnies
and waved bits of sheep about
in the colorful air

By James Norcliffe

Plot Summary: (In Tongan)

Ko e ki'I maau ko 'eni oku hange nai hano faka'alunga'I ehe tokotaha fa'u maau ae kakai oku nau fuu mateaki'I sipoti. Oku ne fakatatau ai 'a e taha 'oku mate fiefia 'I ha hu ha aka fakahu kihe fiefiavale ae fakamanu. Tokua oku pehe 'a e anga 'ene sio kiha taha pe koha kakai oku nau fuu matu'aki mate'aki'I ha fakahinga sipoti pe. Lele tavale holo pe ikai toe ilo ha me'a tatau tefito kihe taimi oku malohi ai 'a e timi pe ko e fa'ahi oku kau ki ai.

Questions:

1. What kind of sport is this poem talking about? Give example from the poem to support your answer. (1 mark).
.....
2. What is the mood of the poem? Give examples from the poem to support your answer. (1mark)
.....
3. Name a figure of speech used in the poem. Identify and example of the figure of speech used in the poem. Explain the meaning of that figure of speech as used in the poem (3 marks)
.....
4. What is the poet trying to communicate to the readers about the sport and the people in this poem? (1 mark)
.....
5. How is the writer trying to make you believe or agree with his own idea about main incident in the poem? Explain your answer. (2 marks)
.....
6. This poem was written in 1981. Do you think what is happening in this poem is still happening nowadays? Explain your answer in detail and give examples from your own experiences. (2 marks).
.....
7. Compare what the poet is trying to put across in this poem to your own experiences with any kind of sport you like. (1 mark)
.....
8. What is your reaction towards sport after reading this poem? Give examples from the poem or from your own experiences. (2 marks).
.....

Question B:

Newspaper article

(10 marks).

1. Select a sport you feel strongly about _____
2. Write one or two sentences that communicate clearly your view of this sport.
3. Imagine you are a news reporter for the Tonga Chronicle or Taimi o Tonga Newspaper; write a news story about an event, real or imaginary , involving your sport. Write in such a way that you communicate clearly to your reader your attitude to the sport (as explained in (2) above).
4. Draw a colored line under those parts of your story, where you think your point of view comes through most strongly.

(Write your news report on the paper provided)