

Current Provision of Pacific Bilingual Education

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Ko te Tamaiti te Pūtake o te Kaupapa
The Child – the Heart of the Matter

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Current Provision of Pacific Bilingual Education

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Contents

Executive Summary.....	4
Background	5
Defining bilingual education	6
Bilingual education models.....	7
Current provision of Pacific bilingual education in New Zealand.....	10
What is the philosophy of Pacific bilingual education units?	11
How is the language taught?	12
How are learners supported to transition?	13
What are the links or pathways from early learning services into bilingual units, and into other schools?.....	14
How are learners' progress, achievement and success monitored and reported?	14
What support do Pacific bilingual units currently receive?	15
What other support is needed?	15
General discussion	16
Recommendations	17
References.....	18
Appendix 1: Schools in this report	19
Appendix 2: Pacific roll growth 2009-2018.....	21
Appendix 3: Māori immersion levels and criteria for each level	22



Executive Summary

A leai se gagana, ua leai se aganuu...A leai se aganuu, ua po le nuu

When you lose your language, you lose your culture, and when there is no longer a living culture, darkness descends on the village (Samoan proverb).

International research on bilingualism notes that high quality bilingual education provision is effective in supporting students' learning outcomes. The work in the revitalisation of te reo Māori over the past 30 years within the state school system has forged a path for schools to equally look to supporting the teaching and maintenance of Samoan, Tongan, Cook Islands, Niuean and Tokelauan heritage where their communities have reflected these Pacific language groups. The 2013 Census revealed that the overall number of Pacific people in New Zealand who speak their heritage language continues to decline. A renewed focus on Māori and Pacific bilingual education at both local and national levels is much needed.

The New Zealand Curriculum (NZC) positions Pacific languages as having a special place in New Zealand, in the wider learning area of learning languages.¹ Learning a language also contributes to children and young people taking their place in a multicultural community, and supports the wider well-being of the community and New Zealand. However, there is limited evidence about how Pacific bilingual units support Pacific children and young people to succeed, as culturally-located learners, in the New Zealand education system.

The Ministry of Education and ERO have a joint interest in understanding how Pacific bilingual units can effectively support Pacific learners' educational achievement and success. This report has focused on the current state of Pacific bilingual units in New Zealand: their philosophy, curriculum, teaching, assessment and transition practices, tracking of learners' pathways and outcomes, and the support they receive. The findings from the report will inform our understanding of effective models for Pacific bilingual education, and provide insights into enhancing outcomes for Pacific learners.

The Ministry of Education and ERO identified 30 schools (see Appendix 1) across New Zealand, although primarily in Auckland, who provide Pacific bilingual education. ERO briefed these schools about the survey and subsequently invited them to complete a questionnaire and follow-up interviews. Twenty-five schools completed the survey, of which twenty-two had Pacific bilingual or immersion education units, overwhelmingly in Samoan.

ERO found that Pacific bilingual education programmes were somewhat idiosyncratic. They tended to be developed locally, and were resourced out of schools' baseline funding. Schools expressed a general philosophy regarding the importance of Pacific languages, culture and identity, but were less likely to have developed an approach focused on bilingualism and informed by research literature and best practice. Finding appropriate resources was often a challenge, particularly for assessment. School support for transitions into and out of bilingual or immersion units varied, but there was an overall challenge around identifying and accessing meaningful bilingual pathways in senior secondary school and beyond. The level of Pacific language immersion also tended to decrease as students got older. Further support could help to address some of

¹ Ministry of Education (2007) The New Zealand Curriculum, Learning Languages, page 24.

these challenges, provide a more strategic and consistent approach across schools, and contribute to more fully realising the benefits of Pacific bilingual education.

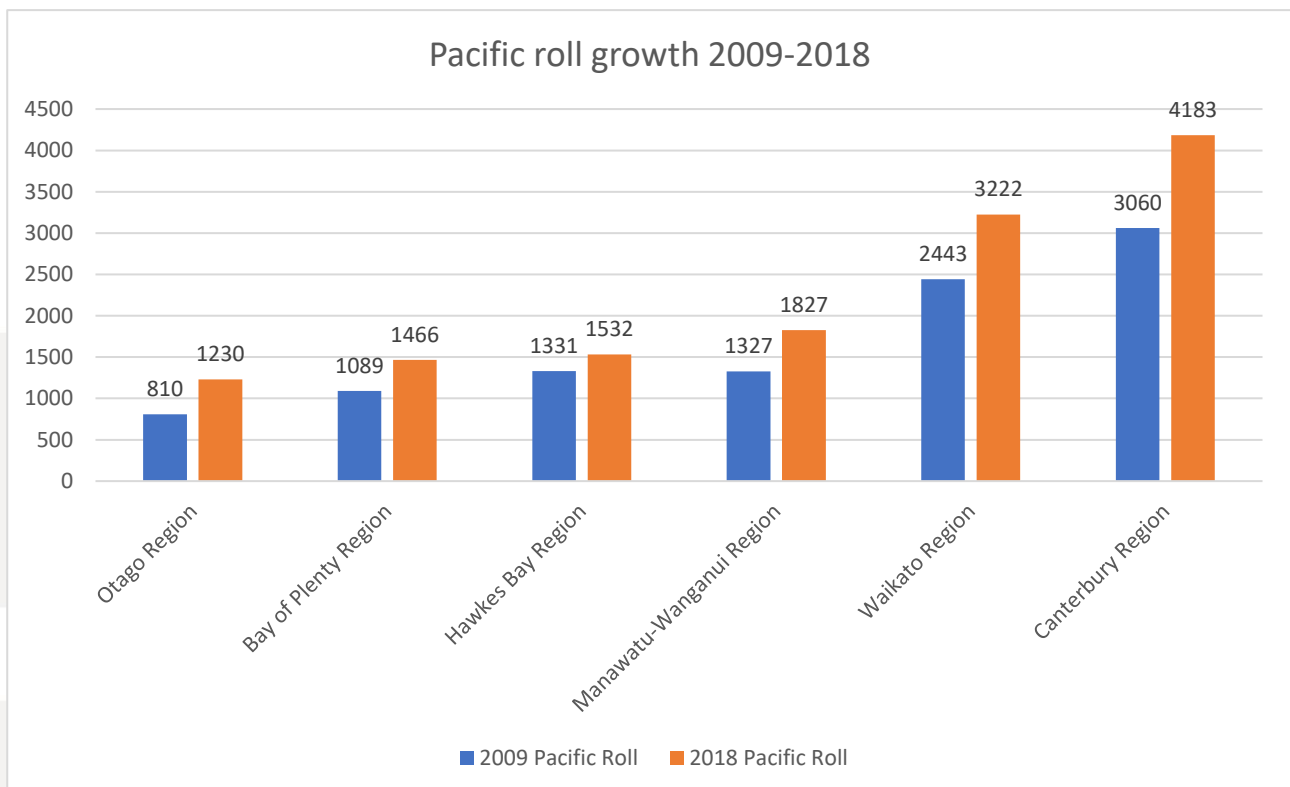
Background

New Zealand society is becoming increasingly diverse. Auckland is our most culturally diverse city with over 100 ethnicities and more than 150 languages spoken daily. ERO has [previously reported](#) more generally on schools’ response to linguistic diversity in Auckland, and has also [published an article](#) on emerging changes nationally.

The New Zealand school roll is more ethnically diverse than the population as a whole. In particular, there are a greater proportion of Pacific students, compared with the overall population. As of 2018, 78,630 students identified as Pacific, representing nearly 10 percent of the school roll, compared with seven percent of the overall population identified as Pacific at the time of the 2013 Census. The Pacific student population increased in almost all regions across New Zealand between 2009 and 2018. The bulk of the Pacific student population is in Auckland, but there were considerable relative increases in many regions, as shown in a full table in Appendix 2. Auckland saw the Pacific roll increase by 2116, from 52,443 in 2009 to 54,559 in 2018. In Wellington, the Pacific roll *decreased* by 538, from 8,529 in 2009 to 7,991 in 2018. Despite this, Wellington remains the region with the second highest number of Pacific students.

Figure 1 below shows the regions, other than Auckland and Wellington, with more than 1000 Pacific students (as of 2018), and how the population has changed between 2009 and 2018.

Figure 1: Pacific roll growth in selected regions of New Zealand 2009-2018



The 2013 Census recorded a total of 295,941 Pacific people living in New Zealand. The majority (194,958 people or 66 per cent) live in Auckland. The Pacific population is growing, and is projected by Statistics New Zealand to reach 480,000 by 2026. As of 2013, the main Pacific languages spoken in New Zealand were Samoan (86,403 speakers), Tongan (31,839 speakers), Cook Islands Māori (8,124) speakers, Fijian (6,273 speakers), Niuean (4,548 speakers), and Tokelauan (2,469 speakers) ([Statistics New Zealand, 2013](#)).

While the Pacific population growth was previously driven predominantly by migration, and migration from Pacific nations to New Zealand continues to be a factor, the majority of Pacific people living in New Zealand now are born here, and many are second and third generation New Zealanders. Unfortunately, a growing number of New Zealand born Pacific children are not being exposed to their languages, which could lead Pacific groups to occupy the same situation as Māori in the 1970s, fighting to bridge an intergenerational language gap in the community (McCaffery and McFall-McCaffery 2010).

The Government has indicated, through the Pacific Reset strategy [announced in March 2018](#), a renewed commitment to partnership with Pacific nations based on the recognition of New Zealand's Polynesian character.

Defining bilingual education

In New Zealand, bilingual education and immersion education have tended to be regarded as quite distinct from one another. However, the international research literature consistently identifies immersion education as *one form* of bilingual education (May & Hill, 2008).

Educational approaches to bilingual education also vary widely in relation to how effectively they foster or promote bilingualism, biliteracy, and academic success for bilingual learners.

Janet Holmes' early definition of bilingual education in New Zealand can still be applied today:

A bilingual education programme is one intended to promote bilingualism either by the predominant use of a minority group language [that would not otherwise be maintained] or by the use of two languages as mediums of instruction in school. (Holmes, 1984:1)

Put simply, bilingual education involves instruction in two languages. For a programme to be deemed to be bilingual, the key is that both languages must be used as a medium of instruction and to deliver curriculum content.

On this basis, immersion models that teach predominantly through a minority language are also clearly bilingual programmes. Curricular instruction in the majority language (English, in both cases) almost always occurs at some point prior to the end of the programme, even in those programmes with very high levels of immersion in the minority language. There are specific issues with respect to ensuring that academic language proficiency in *both* languages occurs – that is, the successful achievement of *biliteracy*.

An additional key point addressed by many commentators in defining bilingual education relates to the *goals and outcomes* of any given programme. In short, does the programme in question aim to achieve, foster and/or maintain longer-term bilingualism and biliteracy (additive bilingualism), or does it aim eventually to shift learners from bilingualism to monolingualism in the dominant language (subtractive bilingualism)?

Additive bilingual programmes are regarded as strong forms of bilingual education. Additive bilingual education approaches include those that teach in learners' first language, if this language is different from the majority language, in order to promote eventual bilingualism and biliteracy. This approach is based on the developmental interdependence principle, where acquiring literacy in one's first language is seen to provide the *strongest* basis for successfully transferring these literacy skills to a second language such as English (May, 2008).

In New Zealand, such an approach is most congruent with Pacific bilingual education, since many Pacific families still speak a Pacific language in the home and/or in community contexts. By implication, additive bilingual education would also include programmes that aim to foster bilingualism but which have a mix of both first language and second language speakers, similar to the Dual Immersion bilingual education programme in the United States of America, which predominantly focus on Spanish and English. This model could potentially apply to Pacific language education programmes in New Zealand.

In a subtractive bilingual context, the bilingual learners' first language has low status and is not valued by the school or the wider community, nor is bilingualism in this particular combination of languages seen as desirable or useful. Consequently, the educational aim is to 'shift' the bilingual learner to the second language as quickly as possible. The result is actually a *significantly* lower likelihood of the learner becoming bilingual and, in most cases, the eventual loss of the learner's first language.

A subtractive bilingual context also exhibits the lowest rates of educational success in achieving literacy in the second language for bilingual learners, not least because of the erosion of learners' cultural identity and self-esteem and the difficulties inherent in acquiring academic language proficiency in a second language (May, 2001).

There is significant research demonstrating the advantages of additive bilingual education on learner achievement in mainstream English-medium programmes (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010). There is a strong case in the research literature for bilingual education as a means of lifting Pacific attainment, rather than the current focus on English language attainment in mainstream English-medium programmes (Hill, 2017).

Bilingual education models

According to Freeman (1998), models are defined in terms of 'their language-planning goals and ideological orientations toward linguistic and cultural diversity in society'. They are broad categories that help us to understand on a very general level what bilingual education means. It could also help schools to be clear about the purpose of providing bilingual education, in relation to the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy, and their learning community's desires.

May (2008) synthesized the models into meaningful categories that highlight broad agreements among researchers. Table 1 below is a general summary of the nature of bilingual education models.

Transitional bilingual education typically begins in early learning year, by using the learners' first language (L1) as the media of instruction but the aim is leave the learners' L1 capabilities behind and develop only their second language (L2) linguistic and academic proficiencies. Transitional bilingual education programmes aim to stop teaching in the learners' L1 after 1-2 years. The aim of a transitional bilingual programme is eventual monolingual teaching and learning, usually in the dominant language. It is clearly not bilingualism or biliteracy.

Maintenance bilingual education programmes do not involve development or extension of the minority language. They are limited to maintenance of the minority language which, when compared to transitional programmes is considered additive and fairly strong. The learner's L1 and, by extension their sense of culture and identity is affirmed by the programme. Education in the L2 may begin at an early phase, perhaps as much as 50% of the time (May, 2008), but the emphasis of the early years is clearly on L1 proficiency and academic achievement using the L1. A maintenance bilingual programme aims to form a solid academic base for the learner in their L1 that "in turn facilitates the acquisition of literacy in an L2, on the basis of the developmental interdependence principle" (Cummins, 1979; Cummins, 2000).

Enrichment bilingual education focuses on teaching learners academic proficiency through the medium of a second language, whereupon literacy in the second language can be attained. The goal of enrichment programmes, just like maintenance programmes, is bilingualism and biliteracy for individual learners and also maintenance of the minority language in the community. Enrichment programmes differ from maintenance programmes in that they specifically seek to extend the influence of the minority language in an integrated national society. The goals are more than linguistic. Enrichment programmes aim for cultural pluralism and autonomy of cultural groups.

Heritage is the fourth general model type that fits roughly between, and overlaps, both maintenance and enrichment. Its distinguishing feature is the programme aim, which is generally a recovery of lost or endangered languages.



Table 1: Bilingual education models²

Model	Immersion type	Aim
Enrichment	Additive/Strong	The aim is bilingualism and biliteracy as well as extension of the minority language and culture into the community and nationally.
Heritage	Additive/Strong	The aim is rejuvenation of an indigenous language. The aim is usually bilingualism and biliteracy, although the heritage language can take priority.
Maintenance	Additive/Moderately strong	The aim is bilingualism and biliteracy, albeit somewhat limited. The learner’s L1 is maintained so that it can become the basis for L2 learning, but the L1 is not developed or extended. The learners’ culture and identity is affirmed.
Transitional	Subtractive/Weak	The aim is monolingualism. Instruction in the learner’s L1 is temporary because the aim is to leave that behind and teach only using L2. The dominant culture and identity is affirmed.

² Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010.

Current provision of Pacific bilingual education in New Zealand

This section reports on the current state of play in Pacific bilingual education provision. Existing public domain information about provision was found to be incomplete or out of date. ERO therefore contacted 30 schools that were identified, in consultation with the Ministry of Education, as offering Pacific bilingual education, and asked schools to provide information about the level of bilingual education provided using the following definitions:

Bilingual: teaching in 50 percent of the Pacific language and 50 percent English

Immersion: teaching in more than 50 percent of the Pacific language

Other: learning the Pacific language rather than learning in the Pacific language

Twenty-five schools responded to ERO's survey. Twenty-two schools clearly identified that they currently provide Pacific bilingual or immersion education, overwhelmingly in Samoan (all but seven of the forty-four units taught in Samoan, see Table 2 below). Others stated that they offered Pacific languages as a subject only – learning the language, rather than learning *in* the language. In five schools, ERO was unable to make a definite determination about the level of bilingual or immersion teaching offered. For more information see Appendix 1.

Some schools provided both bilingual and immersion education within the same language. Documents shared by some of these schools, particularly primary/contributing schools outlined the transition from immersion to bilingual education for Pacific learners from Year 0 to 6, including outcomes which could be used to assess progress and achievement in bilingual language development. Table 2 is a summary of the languages taught by the Pacific bilingual units.

Table 2: Pacific languages taught by the 30 schools

<i>Samoan</i>	<i>Tongan</i>	<i>Cook Island Māori</i>
Immersion (10 units)	Immersion (2 units)	Other (1 unit)
Bilingual (22 units)	Bilingual (4 units)	
Other - language class (5 units)		

There were 5,455 Pacific learners in the schools that ERO could be sure offered bilingual or immersion units. Of these, the schools identified 1,863 students enrolled in these units, or 34 percent. Generally, fewer than 50 percent of Pacific learners in a school offering this provision were in Pacific bilingual or immersion units. The percentage of Pacific learners in the schools surveyed ranged from 16 to 76 percent. The schools with the largest percentage of learners in Pacific bilingual education units offered immersion education across several year levels. ERO found no clear link between the percentage of Pacific learners in a school and whether or not the school was likely to offer bilingual or immersion education. Across New Zealand, there are many schools with a higher proportion of Pacific learners than some of the surveyed schools that nonetheless do not offer teaching *in* any Pacific language. Further investigation could shed some light on whether this is due to a lack of demand, or a lack of staff capacity and capability, or some other reason.

What is the philosophy of Pacific bilingual education units?

“If you know from where you come, there is no limit to where you can go. If learners can connect and know who they are, and celebrate those things that make them unique, then we have a better chance to raise their achievement levels.” – Bilingual teacher.

This quote reflects many of the ideas that came through about the philosophy behind the Pacific bilingual education units at these schools. These schools want to nurture and grow Pacific learners’ confidence and sense of value, to preserve Pacific culture and identity, and to provide the curriculum in their heritage language. One school also noted that their approach supports the understanding that parents and families are the most important teachers.

Schools’ philosophies echo the aims of the 2013-2017 Pasifika Education Plan for learners to be “confident in their language, culture and identity” which contrasts with the literature about the design and delivery of bilingual education programmes where the focus is solely on the language. Perhaps the uniqueness of Māori and Pacific bilingual education programmes aim to embrace the broader features of cultural and linguistic diversity, and how these contribute to the success of learners in New Zealand.

Some schools shared their philosophy statements. One was a comprehensive outline of how immersion language would transition into bilingual practices for Pacific learners from Year 0 to Year 6. This included outcomes, which could be used to assess progress and achievement in bilingual language development. Another was a ‘Pasifika Profile’ which outlined the different aspects throughout the school that reflect the development and support of the language and culture of Pacific learners at the school. The profile provided learners and their families with a big picture of the different ways the school can support the learner to engage in bilingual education through the curriculum, participation in academic and cultural activities such as Pacific language forums and Polyfest, and whānau support. The document also celebrated success and outlined goals for the following year, as well as more general history and values of the school.

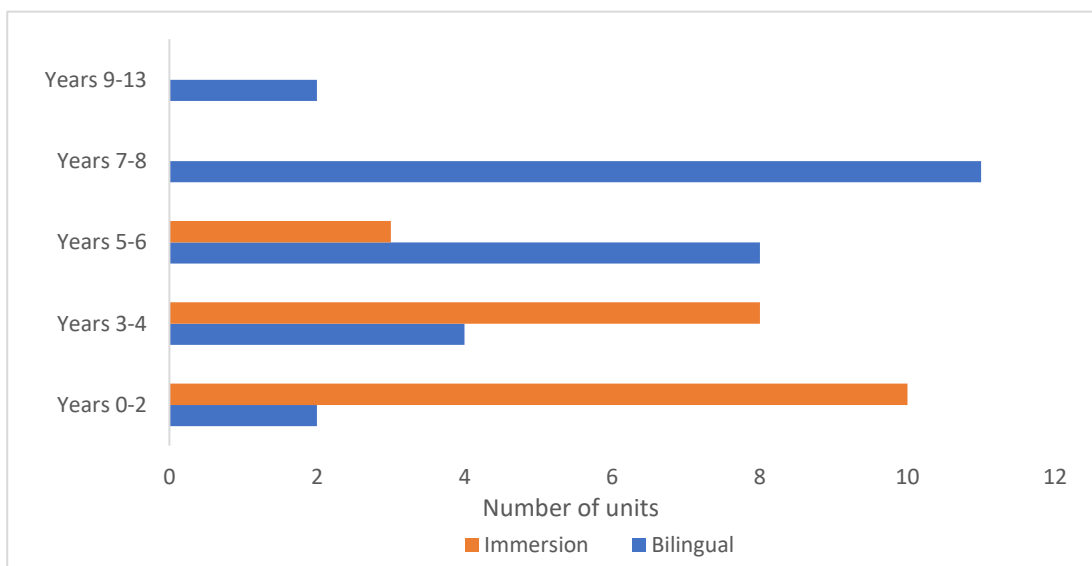
However, it’s unclear, from the data, the type of bilingual education model schools followed to support Pacific children and young people to learn and engage in the curriculum using their heritage language. Having clarity about their bilingual education model could help schools to understand the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy, in relation to providing effective bilingual education.

Based on the data gathered, ERO infers that many of these units attempt to provide a version of the enrichment model of bilingual education. These schools spoke about their philosophy, the aspirations of Pacific parents and communities for their children, and the theory underpinning their provision of bilingual education. However, there seemed to be a disconnect between the practical implementation, in terms of pedagogical practices, and the delivery of a broad curriculum, in relation to the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy. This could be related to the demands of an English-medium education system and the focus on learning the English language to prepare learners for latter years of schooling.

How is the language taught?

Figure 2 illustrates the approaches taken to teaching or incorporating language throughout the school years. Total immersion is predominantly practiced in the early school years, continuing until the end of contributing primary years. This is also the most common approach used for this age-range. As learners progress through school the dominant approach becomes bilingual education delivery, preparing learners for the latter years of schooling and external examinations.

Figure 2: Shift from immersion to bilingual emphasis over school years



The above approach is a mix of the enrichment, maintenance and transitional models of bilingual education. When deciding on their model/s of bilingual education, schools may have taken into consideration the requirements of New Zealand's English-medium education system and default to the norm, which may not necessarily be the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy or the school's philosophy.

Six schools fit the 'other' approach which has remnants of the maintenance bilingual education model that is, affirming the Pacific learner's culture and identity. However, in some of these schools, they had a mix of up to 70 percent English in Years 5-6, and 80 percent in Years 7-8 which seems more of a transitional model of bilingual education. Figure 2 excludes the 6 aforementioned schools.

One school shared how they have used research about the significance and importance of bilingual education to develop and implement their programme. This school understood the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy, and reviewed their bilingual education programme accordingly. They engaged with academics, practitioners and whānau to understand the theoretical framework, pedagogical practices of an appropriate model and their aspirations for their children.

This school was the exception. In general, there was a lack of clarity about the bilingual education models that schools utilised to inform their programme.

How are learners supported to transition?

Transition into the Pacific bilingual unit and within the school

Few primary schools identified having transition plans from early learning services. They visited Pacific early learning services and spoke to leaders and teachers. One school had a transition support strategy for its Pacific learners, including a welcome pack for Year 1 parents that included how they can help at home and a buddy system. Fluent speakers of the language were partnered with new learners, dependent on their age and level of language use.

Other schools reported that, while some learners' transition from a Pacific bilingual early learning service into their school, often they would return to their local schools. Three of the primary schools said the transition involved only the parents' expression of interest in their children learning in a bilingual unit. Two of these schools also indicated that entry into the bilingual unit was only at five years old. These schools may utilise an age-specific approach in their provision of bilingual education.

For intermediate schools, the transition support consisted primarily of competency assessments and interviews with families. The competency assessments and interviews were considered as entry requirements for learners who particularly may not have been part of bilingual education in their earlier years of schooling. Two schools offered an 'open day' so that learners could familiarise themselves with the expectations of bilingual units.

Documents shared by some schools outlined the challenges schools face in pursuing their aims to support the cultural diversity of both Māori and Pacific learners.

"Learners have variable ability in both Samoan and English. Some have received bilingual education for 5 or 6 years - the rest are mostly literate in English. It is the families' desire for the children to utilise their Samoan heritage in their learning and improve both their Samoan and English literacy. This is a challenge for our teachers to provide a dual-medium instructional approach to a very diverse range of [literacy] abilities".

Transition to another institution

For many of the schools, there were no transition plans or support in place for bilingual learners moving to another institution. A number of schools felt there was no need to have formal transition plans because the learners were proficient in English and had the capability to continue with bilingual education or other language options offered by their next school, should they wish to.

Several primary schools stated there were no formal transition plans or that they followed the same process of providing information as they do for any other learner. A few primary schools had school visits and transition meetings for new learners. Intermediate schools who responded to the survey had no formal transition plans for bilingual learners.

One school provided reports about learners to the new school. Only one school had visits from staff and learners from the bilingual units, and also supported Samoan bilingual learners to visit the high school.

One school acknowledged an initiative, Komiti Faufautua³, with whom they have been accepted as a strategic partner, because the secondary school does not have a bilingual education unit. Komiti Faufautua is similar to Kāhui Ako whereby schools with common interests work collaboratively to achieve their goals.

ERO was also informed of some schools collaborating to provide bilingual education, either as individual schools or as part of a network. Two schools provide a joint Pacific language class and two others access an online tool for their learners. Half of the respondents are members of Auckland Samoan Bilingual Education Cluster (ASBEC), established in 2005. They 'share the same philosophical base and commitment to bilingual education and a passion to strengthen our efforts through co-operative and collaborative practices'. ASBEC has worked with the Ministry of Education and other agencies to develop appropriate resources and tools, organise professional learning and development and lobby support for their Samoan teachers.

What are the links or pathways from early learning services into bilingual units, and into other schools?

Many of the schools visited early learning services and organised open days for parents of learners who were thinking of enrolling their children in bilingual education units. A few schools offered additional information such as enrolment packages to parents who wished to enrol their child in the bilingual unit. Other schools reported having no pathways but were developing these through their Kāhui Ako. This was still in its infancy stages.

Some schools reported that their connections to particular schools and early learning services helped them to make links for their learners or identify potential pathways. One of these schools stated that their learners tended to transition into mainstream schools and often opted not to continue bilingual education in secondary school.

Some of the challenges for developing suitable links and pathways for bilingual learners could be due to the requirements of the compulsory schooling sector, and the lack of bilingual education programmes at senior school years. Another challenge is the declining interest from parents for their children to learn their heritage language in later years of schooling.

How are learners' progress, achievement and success monitored and reported?

Half of the schools indicated that learners were assessed in the same way as the rest of the school. An additional four schools used overall teacher judgements (OTJs) or teaching as inquiry to monitor progress, achievement and success.

Other schools reported to the Board of Trustees, with one also holding annual Pacific leaders' evenings where they reported to the community. One school also held monthly parent fono.

Five schools assessed learners both in the English and Samoan languages. They used Anofale, the Samoan equivalence of STAR, which is heavily based around literacy. Anecdotal evidence suggests that high achieving learners score highly in both Samoan and English. Anofale was developed with assistance from the University of Auckland and the Ministry of Education. The Auckland Samoan Bilingual Education Cluster (ASBEC) worked with the Ministry of Education and others to develop tools such as Samoan Individual Prose Inventories Kit, School Entry Assessment Kit, 6 Year Net kits, High Frequency Word Lists, Anofale, and Samoan Writing Benchmarks.

³ Similar to Kāhui Ako.

Schools acknowledged the challenges they faced with assessing bilingual learners in the heritage language, and reporting their progress and achievement against the backdrop of English reading and writing benchmarks. This aligns with research about the need to develop and utilise tools to determine bilingualism, in relation to language use and language proficiency (Baker, 2001).

What support do Pacific bilingual units currently receive?

Pacific bilingual programmes are categorised analogously to Māori bilingual education programmes, which are divided into five levels according to the quantity of language instruction. This breakdown is shown in Appendix 3. In the Māori bilingual context, these categories correspond to funding levels, but Pacific bilingual education programmes are funded through the host school's operational funding grants. The funding levels vary and funding decisions are made by schools' individual Boards of Trustees. Schools also do not receive additional funding for the development of resources.

A few schools reported fundraising from families and parents as another source of funding, particularly for cultural exchange trips.

Some schools employed teacher aides to help make resources, while other schools said they made their own reading materials because financial resources were tight. One school noted support from ASBEC and ongoing professional learning and development, such as the Graduate Diploma in Teaching English in Schools to Speakers of Other Languages (TESSOL).

What other support is needed?

Common responses from schools were the need for:

- specific and targeted professional learning and development (PLD), in particular about bilingualism, biliteracy and bilingual education
- better access to resources, for example reading materials in Pacific languages.
- additional funding to recruit and retain bilingual education teachers
- greater recognition of bilingual teachers' additional work in designing and implementing a bilingual curriculum
- established pathways and incentives for bilingual education teachers, similar to mainstream teachers.

Some schools highlighted the need for initial teacher education providers to be part of the discussion about bilingual education and the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy, and teacher training programmes. One school talked about the need for more support from Pacific leaders which would help grow their own school leaders.

General discussion

Based on the discussions and data collected from schools and, there seems to be a general lack of clarity about the goals of Pacific bilingual education, in relation to the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy. The bilingual education models discussed earlier are theory-based, and highlight practical implications and outcomes.

While schools' have the best interests of their learners and community at heart, there is a need for a research-informed and coordinated approach to bilingual education. Wider sectoral discussions and understanding of bilingual education models in the context of bilingualism and biliteracy could help with a consistent approach to bilingual education across sectors, and in relation to different learner/language groups. Utilising bilingual education research could also inform schools about second language acquisition theories and pedagogies. Given the general lack of coordination of Pacific bilingual education units, there could be an opportunity for schools to collaborate and support each other with a broader consistent approach in the provision of bilingual education, similar to groups like the Teen Parents Association or Activity Centres Network.

Research shows the enrichment bilingual education model is most probably the best model for Pacific bilingual education in New Zealand given its aim for bilingualism and biliteracy, as well as extension of the minority language and culture into the community and nationally.

Gaining greater support for immersion programs and further strengthening bilingual education pedagogies, particularly in relation to achieving biliteracy objectives, have been key for the success of Māori bilingual programmes (May, Hill, & Tiakiwai, 2006).

The variation in assessment practices and lack of appropriate assessment tools for learners in Pacific bilingual units is a specific area of concern. Assessment of educational outcomes for learners in bilingual education contexts need to be cognisant of, and appropriate to, such language learning contexts. The acquisition of bilingualism varies with age and over time.

The philosophies of these bilingual units espouse a vision that values and nurtures the learner's language, culture and identity. However, many of the Pacific bilingual units use English-medium tools to assess their bilingual learners. Research recommends age-appropriate assessment for learners in the heritage language to understand levels of bilingualism, rather than what the learner lacks (May, et al, 2006).

The use of Pacific languages within New Zealand schools to enhance the language learning and educational achievement of Pacific learners is still not well understood. Despite important and ongoing research and professional development initiatives, it remains the case that there is still a relative absence of research on Pacific bilingualism and its links with schooling (Hill, 2017). An in-depth study would help to further investigate the disconnect between the schools' philosophy and their pedagogical practices. This could also further assist schools in identifying the support they need to implement effective bilingual education curricula, including the resources and tools to support both teachers and learners.

Case studies of effective Pacific bilingual education practices from exemplar schools could be used to further guide the development of specific organisational and pedagogical practices within other bilingual education programmes. Often such studies are part of academia which may not necessarily be shared with the wider sector.

Both Māori and Pasifika communities face significant issues in safeguarding their languages in a context where English is the dominant language and minority languages have a lower profile. While the situations of Māori and Pacific languages in New Zealand are not neatly analogous, the success of Māori immersion and bilingual education in revitalising te reo Māori suggests a potential model of effective practice, in combination with evidence from successful bilingual education in immigrant languages in other jurisdictions.

There are compelling arguments for improving access to curriculum learning in Pacific languages as a matter of equity, and to maintain and enhance the health of Pacific languages. It is less clear that such an investment would be an effective lever for system-level improvement of Pacific learner achievement. Currently fewer than three percent of Pacific learners are participating in bilingual or immersion units. It would be useful to assess the level of unmet demand for Pacific bilingual education.

Finally, ERO proposes to undertake work to: use available longitudinal data to monitor outcomes for students enrolled in Pacific bilingual education, and conduct further research and evaluation into models of effective bilingual teaching.

Recommendations

ERO recommends that the Ministry of Education:

- develop an overarching strategy for supporting Pacific bilingual education
- evaluate the level of unmet demand for Pacific bilingual education
- ensure that public data about provision of Pacific bilingual education is up to date
- support development of resources, particularly Pacific language assessment tools to support those working in Pacific bilingual education.



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Appendix 1: Schools in this report

Note that five schools were unable to respond to ERO's survey. These are highlighted in yellow in the table, with any information ERO was able to access from other sources.

Schools	Pacific language/s taught and how	Learners in Pacific bilingual class ⁴	Number of Pacific learners in the school ⁵
Avondale College, Auckland	Samoan Years 9-10: Other	n/a	683
Bruce McLaren Intermediate, Auckland	Samoan Years 7-8: Bilingual	28	77
Clendon Park School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-4: Immersion Years 5-8: Bilingual	139	296
Finlayson Park School, South Auckland	Samoan and Tongan Years 0-2: Immersion Years 3-8: Bilingual	225	445
Flatbush School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-6: Other	unclear	390
Henderson Intermediate School, Auckland	Samoan Years 7-8: Bilingual	60	181
Henderson South School, Auckland	Samoan Year 0-4: Immersion Years 5-6: Bilingual	40	173
James Cook High School, Auckland	Samoan Years 9-13: Bilingual	120	505 (from Education Counts 14/1/19)
Kia Aroha College, Auckland	Samoan and Tongan Years 9-13: Bilingual	56	250
Kelston Girls' College, Auckland	Samoan Years 9-10: Bilingual	43	275
Kelston Intermediate School, Auckland	Samoan Years 7-8: Bilingual	33	175
Kowhai Intermediate School, Auckland	Samoan Years 7-8: Bilingual	31	87
Lincoln Heights School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-6: Immersion Years 7-8: Bilingual	35	176
Mangere East Primary School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-6: Immersion Years 7-8: Bilingual	105	390

⁴ As identified by the school at the time they completed the questionnaire (between Nov 18 and Feb 19). Bilingual means teaching at least 50% in the Pacific language - where instruction does not meet this level, listed as n/a.

⁵ As identified by the school at the time they completed the questionnaire (between Nov 18 and Feb 19) except where specified

May Road School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-6: Bilingual	70	153
Otahuhu School, Auckland	Samoan and Tongan: Bilingual	unclear	293 (from Education Counts 14/1/19)
Richmond Road School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-6: Immersion	54	71
Robertson Road School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-2: Immersion Years 3-4: Bilingual Years 5-8: Other	138	487
Roscommon School, Auckland	Samoan bilingual	unclear	340 (from Education Counts 14/1/19)
Rosebank School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-6: Bilingual	85	267 (from Education Counts 14/1/19)
Sir Edmund Hilary Collegiate Junior School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-6: Bilingual	121	308
St Catherines College, Wellington	Samoan Other	n/a	49
St Patrick's College, Wellington	Samoan Other	n/a	153
St Thomas of Canterbury, Christchurch	Samoan Years 7-13: Other	n/a	82
Sutton Park School, Auckland	Samoan and Tongan Years 0-4: Immersion Years 5-8: Bilingual	300	568
Te Komanawa Rowley School, Christchurch	Samoan Years 5-8: Bilingual	39	88
Te Matauranga School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-4: Immersion Years 5-8: Bilingual	85	220
Tokoroa High School, Tokoroa	Cook Island Māori Years 9-13: Other Samoan Years 9-10: Bilingual	n/a	208
Te Waka Unua School, Christchurch	Samoan Bilingual	unclear	77 (from Education Counts 14/1/19)
Wiri Central School, Auckland	Samoan Years 0-4: Immersion	56	263 (from Education Counts 14/1/19)

Appendix 2: Pacific roll growth 2009-2018

Region	2009 Pacific Roll (% of regional roll)	2018 Pacific Roll (% of regional roll)	Roll change (% change 09-18)
Chatham Islands	4 (6%)	0 (0%)	-4 (-100%)
West Coast Region	78 (2%)	87 (2%)	9 (12%)
Tasman Region	67 (1%)	131 (2%)	64 (95%)
Gisborne Region	168 (2%)	222 (2%)	54 (32%)
Nelson Region	160 (2%)	241 (3%)	81 (51%)
Marlborough Region	204 (3%)	303 (4%)	99 (49%)
Taranaki Region	331 (2%)	409 (2%)	78 (24%)
Southland Region	345 (2%)	504 (3%)	159 (46%)
Northland Region	547 (2%)	723 (2%)	176 (32%)
Otago Region	810 (3%)	1230 (4%)	450 (52%)
Bay of Plenty Region	1089 (2%)	1466 (3%)	377 (35%)
Hawkes Bay Region	1331 (4%)	1532 (5%)	201 (15%)
Manawatu-Wanganui Region	1327 (3%)	1827 (4%)	500 (38%)
Waikato Region	2443 (3%)	3222 (4%)	779 (32%)
Canterbury Region	3060 (3%)	4183 (4%)	1123 (37%)
Wellington Region	8529 (11%)	7991 (10%)	-538 (-6%)
Auckland Region	52443 (20%)	54559 (20%)	2116 (4%)

Appendix 3: Māori immersion levels and criteria for each level

Māori immersion – curriculum taught in Māori (Levels 1-2) and learning te reo Māori (Levels 3, 4a and 4b)

Level

- 1 » 81–100% of the time, i.e. for more than 20 and up to 25 hours per week.
- 2 » 51–80% of the total time, i.e. for more than 12.5 and up to 20 hours per week.

Te reo Māori - Learning Māori language

- 3 » 31–50% of the total time, i.e. for more than 7.5 and up to 12.5 hours per week.
- 4a » 12%–30% of the total time, i.e. for more than 3 and up to 7.5 hours per week (i.e. more than 70% of instruction is in English).
- 4b » At least 3 hours per week.

