Kaiaka Reo: Reo-Ā-Waha Ki Te Motu
The Development of Māori Oral Language Proficiency Progressions

Report to the Ministry of Education

Edmonds, K., Roberts, N., Keegan, P., Houia, W., & Dale, H.
Hākoni Limited

He Whakamārama
The kōwhaiwhai design on the cover is featured in Te Wāhanga, a meeting room in the Ministry of
Education's Head Office dedicated to te ao Māori. The kōwhaiwhai symbolises the journey from one
generation to the other. The continuous line indicates the passage of time. The pattern in red depicts the
generations of today and the black represents those who have passed on. The triangle is a symbol regularly
used in tukutuku, raranga and tāniko designs to depict strength and determination. The cover, then, is
symbolic of the challenge that education has offered and continues to offer those who have passed on and
those of today.

KAIAKA REO: REO-Ā-WAHA KI TE MOTU

The Development of Māori Oral Language Proficiency Progressions

Final Report

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For Hākoni Limited

He Kupu Whakataki

Tōku reo tōku ahurea tōku tuakiri

Me he pou mau kupenga

Manawa mai e te Kaiaka Reo – Reo-ā-Waha
Horahia ō rongo kia mahea
Kia wawaro te rangona i te mata o te whenua
Ki roto hoki i ngā hinengaro maha o te ao.

Kei te mihi, kei te tangi atu hoki ki a Ani Jeffrey i tangohia atu e te ringa kaha o aitua. Haere atu, e hika, ki te kāpunipunitanga o te wairua, ki te paepae tapu o Rehua. E kore hoki koe e warewarehia e ō hoa takawaenga i te kaupapa Kaiaka Reo -ā-Waha. Koutou te hunga mate ki a koutou, tātou te hunga ora ki a tātou.

Ko ngā mihi nui ki Te Puna Wānanga i whakatuwhera mai i ō rātou kuaha, i whai tūāpapa ai te kaupapa.

Ki a koutou te Rōpū Whakaruruhau, tēnā koutou i tautoko, i whakamana mai i te kaupapa.

Tēnā hoki koutou e ngā Rōpū Whakapiki i te Reo e tautoko tonu nei i te kaupapa ki roto i ngā kura.

Ki ngā kura, ki ngā tumuaki, ngā kaiako, ngā whānau, ngā tamariki hoki; nā koutou i pūāwai ai tā tātou kaupapa, tēnei te mihi. Kāore i tua atu i a koutou.

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Me mihi atu hoki ki aku hoa rangahau, ki a Ngaere Roberts, ki a Waldo Houia, ki a Peter Keegan, ki a Hemi Dale, ki a Tuteira Pohatu, te kāhui hoe i tēnei waka.

Kāti, ki a tātou katoa, ngā kanohi ō rātou mā, kia manawanui, kia kaha, kia māia i roto i ngā āhuatanga e whāia nei e tātou katoa hei painga mō tō tātou reo Māori.

Tēnā koutou, tēnā koutou, tēnā tātou katoa.

Katarina Edmonds

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Executive summary

1. This report presents the development process and outcomes of establishing Māori oral language proficiency progressions for year one to year eight learners that would inform National Standards in Māori medium contexts. The Ministry of Education sought to improve its understanding and develop progressions that would make explicit the progress students could be expected to make at the different ages and stages of their reo Māori development and how this could be measured.

2. The research is underpinned by two paradigms: kaupapa Māori and language proficiency assessment, each with its own epistemology and skill base. Kaupapa Māori is grounded in indigenous language and culture. Language proficiency assessment comes primarily from a tradition focused generally on English as a second or foreign language, and a culture of testing.

3. Māori medium education operates in environments where te reo Māori, the indigenous language of Aotearoa, is a minority language. Māori medium education is central and vital to Māori language revitalisation. In 2010, there were 11,738 students at Level 1 (81–100% of class time in Māori).

4. Minimal consideration has been given to the Māori language proficiency necessary to achieve social and academic language proficiency. The need to provide nationally consistent benchmarks in literacy for National Standards prompted this investigation into Māori oral language proficiency progressions for year one to year eight.

5. The literature review confirms that there are very few standardised assessment procedures available for Māori medium. Those that exist generally focus on the achievement of curriculum objectives or literacy. Fairness is a major issue in assessment and should take into account language proficiency and achievement, the learner's instruction context and special background such as culture and language.

6. Assimilatory education in New Zealand from the 1840s to the 1970s has had a major role in the decline of speakers of the Māori language. Several national movements initiated by Māori have had some impact on reversing the demise of the Māori language. Legislation under the 1989 Education Act sections 155 and 156 enables Māori medium education in today's education environment.

7. There are approximately 10 curriculum documents that show some relevance to levels of language for te reo Māori. In contrast, there is a vast literature on language proficiency, especially for learners of English as a second, foreign and heritage language.

8. Despite the extensive literature base, the field of second language acquisition has not yet established an index of oral language development. This is possibly due to the nature of second language learners who do not have a uniform starting point.

9. Literature regarding Welsh-medium yielded some information on national standards and level descriptions in schooling. In the United States standards have played a prominent role in federal legislation under the No Child Left Behind Act (2001). All states are required to assess the English language development of English Language Learners (ELLs).

10. Some formally recognised assessment tools for Māori medium were identified. These include Aromatawai Urunga-a-Kura/School Entry Assessment, the National Education Monitoring Project, and Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning (asTTle).

11. The literature available on Māori medium assessment, Māori language proficiency, National Standards Māori, Māori oral language proficiency progressions and alignment to the curriculum reflects *te kore*, a vacuum where practically nothing exists.

12. There is much debate on what constitutes proficiency. In developing a construct of Māori oral language proficiency for year one to year eight, the research sought to analyse data that demonstrated Māori medium learners' ability, knowledge and skill in the use of te reo Māori in a communicative way.

13. The tools investigated were the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 speaking materials and the 2005 Māori medium National Education Monitoring Programme (NEMP) videotapes. Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 yielded a 15% representative sample of each of the year five and year eight cohorts for oral language analysis. These identified six elements to define the construct of Māori oral language, namely, oral production (phonology, fluency, intonation, pitch, stress, pronunciation), grammar, vocabulary, discourse, Māori discourse (socio-linguistic competence), and cognition.

14. A Draft Rating Scale was developed that resulted in a five point scale as follows: 1 – very limited proficiency; 2 – limited proficiency; 3 – basic proficiency; 4 – elementary proficiency; and 5 native-like proficiency.

15. A rater hui – Rater Hui 1 – was conducted over four days to establish the reliability and validity of the Draft Rating Scale. One hundred and forty-eight oral language samples of the year five and year eight Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 cohorts were rated by fifty-seven raters, a minimum of seventeen times.

16. Rasch analysis of the raters' performance, student performance (the language samples) and trait (language elements) determined the rating scale as a reliable and valid tool to assess the Māori oral language proficiency of learners in Māori medium contexts.

17. A survey was conducted to investigate what teachers in Māori immersion think, know and use to assess Māori language proficiency and when they think proficiency assessment should take place. The sixty-seven respondents ranged in age, ethnicity, teacher experience and knowledge of proficiency.

18. The timing of the research did not permit maximum participation. Some schools were affected by prior agreement to participate in the trialing of the Ngā Whanaketanga Reo and Pāngarau for National Standards.

19. The Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 tool was used to collect the data for language analysis. No adaptations were required of the tool itself. The only change required was the rewriting of the script for administration. The participating schools conducted the assessment themselves with minimal need for personal assistance.

20. At Rater Hui 2, 270 student scripts ranging from year one to year eight were rated. Statistics were produced covering the rating of the student scripts, and the rating scale itself. Two families of statistics were used to analyse data, Classical Test Theory (CTT) and Item Response Theory (IRT). The analysis of the student data indicates that the rating scale is reliable and valid.

21. Iwi affiliations of the students are mostly based around the Northern, Central and East Coast iwi. Over 50% of the students had attended Kōhanga Reo. Although a reasonable proportion of students were reported as being able to speak Māori at home (35.6 %), only a small proportion usually spoke Māori at home (16.3%). The older

generation (kuia/koroua) was reported as having a higher number of first language speakers of Māori and they were more likely to use Māori at home. Females in all age groups reported slightly higher numbers of first language speakers of Māori than males.

22. Students had spent most years at either kura kaupapa Māori or rumaki (immersion). In-class use of Māori language by students in the sample was high. There was less usage outside of the classroom, and less again used outside of the kura.

23. Students mostly agreed that the assessment task was well administered, the length appropriate, it was fine to be recorded, and they were happy to talk about the task pictures. Students generally agreed that this activity enabled children to talk, was appropriate for assessing oral language and gave them an opportunity to display their oral language skills.

24. The overall range of student performance was within an accepted range. There were a few students who did not *fit* (perform within statistical expectations). They were generally earlier year students with low scores or later year level students with low scores. There was a rapid progression in years one to three, but less so in years four to eight. Females were generally slightly ahead of males in years one to four. Year five was the only level in which females were behind males.

25. Te Rōpū Whāiti, a thirteen-member team of practising teachers, determined the progressions. Ten of the team were native speakers, the other three had native-like competency. The team established Māori oral language progressions at each year level from year one to year eight and three progressions within each year level. The team also examined the links between Te Marautanga o Aotearoa, Ngā Whanaketanga Reo Māori He Tauira and the Māori oral language proficiency progressions.

26. The term Māori medium Young Language learner (MMYLL) recognises the contexts of learning and the community environs of Māori medium education as sites of Māori language revitalisation where much hope is placed for the survival of te reo Māori. The term also recognises, that for the most part, these learners are a unique population for whom Māori may be a first, second, foreign, heritage, indigenous and/or native language. The 'YLL' recognises that these are young language learners of year one to year eight status, who are also at varying developmental stages in their human development, language acquisition, and school learning.

27. The development of consistent Māori oral language proficiency has immense implications for the successful achievement of MMYLLs. This research also has significant potential to inform other indigenous groups pursuing similar language revitalisation and educational goals.

Introduction

The role of Māori language proficiency in Māori medium education is largely ignored, dismissed or left to chance by the sector. Māori language proficiency is also mistakenly assessed using assessment tools designed for other purposes. With the advent of National Standards, the Ministry of Education identified the need for a Māori oral language proficiency tool to inform *Ngā Whanaketanga Reo Māori: Te Reo Matatini (Taha Kōrero, Taha Pānui, Taha Tuhituhi) He Aratohu mā te Pouako, He Tauira Noa 2010 (WRHT)*.

This research was commissioned for the development and establishment of Māori oral language progressions for year one to year eight learners in Māori medium education. The report presents the development process and the outcomes of the research to establish Māori oral language proficiency progressions for year one to year eight learners. The report is set out within a kaupapa Māori and an assessment framework.

It is a challenging task to develop Māori oral language proficiency progressions that meet both kaupapa Māori criteria and international standards of reliability and validity in language testing. The approaches are dichotomous: two paradigms each with their own epistemological and skill-base. While kaupapa Māori is grounded in indigenous language and culture, language proficiency assessment comes primarily from a tradition focused generally on English as a second or foreign language, and a culture of testing.

Education was a key strategy of cultural domination used by the English colonisers of the 1840s, via the early missionaries, to assimilate Māori. Māori in turn have utilised education to revitalise their language and cultural well-being. Today, the number of graduates from Māori education movements, including Te Kōhanga Reo (Māori language nests) and Kura Kaupapa Māori (Māori medium schools that adhere to Māori philosophical principles), Kura ā-iwi (iwi affiliated schools), wharekura (secondary total immersion), rumaki (total immersion), reo-rua (bilingual), continue to emerge, increasing the number of Māori language speakers. Language revitalisation efforts continue to emphasise growing the number of mother tongue speakers of the Māori language. Raising the expectation to higher levels of Māori language proficiency is imperative. The assessment of Māori language proficiency should be an integral part of that process so that Māori, and all concerned stakeholders, can plan and strategise effectively for the survival and maintenance of te reo Māori.

The characteristics of the Young Language learner, the English Second Language learner, the English Foreign Language learner, the Heritage Language learner, and the Indigenous Language learner are also of interest because they have potential to assist our understanding of test behaviour external to the test itself. Gottlieb (2006) provides an understanding of the issues of language proficiency and academic achievement where all tasks required of the students potentially test their Māori language proficiency.

The report is organised into several sections, namely, the: introduction, literature review, methodology, results, discussion and concluding statements.

The introduction provides the background to the research, beginning with a brief history of Māori language decline since the 1840s through to its present status in Māori medium education. Māori language from the 1970s is discussed in the context of major political events giving attention to those events that initiated the establishment of two major language revitalisation movements, Te Kōhanga Reo and Kura Kaupapa Māori. The section notes the impact of te reo Māori on education in New Zealand as evident in the brief scan of the Māori medium environment. The lack of

provision for Māori language proficiency within the policy framework is identified. Since 2008 the Ministry of Education focus has been on National Standards, highlighting the need for a Māori language proficiency tool to inform the standards. The section concludes with the questions that underpin this research.

The literature review brings to the fore the concept of the *kore* — the huge void in the research knowledge base for Māori medium contexts. It is not unlike the first remote phase of Māori cosmology, *Te Kore.* "Te Kore-te whiwhia (The Void-in-which-nothing could-be obtained) and Te Kore-te-rawea (The Void-in-which-nothing-could-be-done) ... Thus *Te Kore* expressed the idea of a vacuum in nature wherein *nothing* existed" (Buck, 1987, p. 434). Unlike in English and other majority world languages, there are no available guides to Māori language proficiency, standards of achievement or progressions of learning in Māori medium contexts, for either first, second or other learners of Māori. Literacy (reading and writing), rather than proficiency, has dominated education policy direction for both Māori and mainstream English contexts. As well, it has been given priority over oral skills of listening and speaking. The review investigates theories of proficiency and the determinants of reliability and validity along with forms of assessment that might be considered in proficiency assessment. This is followed by a section on standards based assessment, National Standards in New Zealand and Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira (WRHT).

The methodology is described in three parts. The first part is concerned with the procedures that guide the research. Essential establishment procedures include the project's philosophical approach — Kaupapa Māori, research ethics and the establishment of an Advisory Group. The second part is primarily about defining the constructs of Māori oral language proficiency and the development of an analytical scale to measure that proficiency which involved the analysis of the Kaiaka Reo 2000-2001 student sound files. This process resulted in a rating scale that a group of Māori medium raters applied to statistically selected cohorts of students from Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 year five and year eight, at Rater Hui 1. Rasch analysis was used to determine the reliability and validity of the rating scale. This section also describes the results of a survey of kaiako (teacher) knowledge of Māori oral language proficiency. The third part of the methodology is primarily about determining whether the rating scale that had proven to be reliable and valid at Rater Hui 1 was also reliable and valid in assessing the oral language proficiency of year one to year eight students in 2010. The rating scale was applied by Māori medium raters to statistically selected cohorts of students from year one to year eight, at Rater Hui 2. It includes statistical analyses by SPSS and Excel programs to provide the descriptive statistics. Rasch analysis (Linacre, 2010) was employed to investigate performance for reliability and internal consistency.

The results section focuses on the establishment of the progressions. The statement of purpose and the research questions on reliability and validity are presented, based on the results of the Rasch analysis carried out on student ability, rater severity (agreement between raters), and item difficulty. In this section also is the alignment of the progressions with *Te Marautanga o Aotearoa*, *Ngā Whanaketanga Reo Māori* and the earlier curriculum statement *Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa*.

The discussion section brings to the fore the purpose(s) and questions posed by the study with an emphasis on fairness, reliability and validity to the Māori medium young language learner. The process of development is revisited followed by the progressions established by the study.

The final concluding statements present the issues, recommendations, conclusions and a summary of the findings. The limitations and implications are noted and areas for further study are highlighted. The section concludes with a final comment.

Background to the research

Māori language in the education system has been and continues to be a site of struggle for learners, teachers, whānau, hapū, iwi and communities who choose learning in the medium of Māori. Māori medium education operates in an environment locally and nationally, where te reo Māori, the indigenous language of Aotearoa, is a minority language. English is the dominant and main vernacular, even in the regions where te reo Māori is relatively strong.

For many indigenous peoples, including Māori, processes of colonisation and occupation reduced them to a minority in their own lands. These processes threatened the continuation of indigenous language and culture, and these remain seriously threatened today. It is predicted that half of the 6,000 or so languages spoken in the world will cease to be uttered within a century (Krauss, 1992). The current struggle is to ensure the continuation of Māori language and culture. Central to this precept are intensive revitalisation strategies such as Māori medium education. For Māori, in particular, the language must be reinstated as a natural every day language, because it is the language and culture that identifies Māori people as Māori. For other citizens of New Zealand it is also an important part of their history and identity as people of Aotearoa. Thus, the revitalisation of the Māori language and culture must be a priority for Māori, the citizens of New Zealand and the country's governing bodies.

The impact of education on the Māori language

This section provides a brief review of the historical impact of the New Zealand education system on the Māori language. Prior to the 1840s the Māori language was linguistically secure for its population of 70,000–90,000 Māori (Pool, 1991). Māori was the predominant language of the time, used extensively by Māori and non-Māori in social, religious, commercial and political interactions. By 1896, the Pākehā population was larger than the Māori population, which had reduced to 39,854, and a state of bilingualism prevailed. Māori were increasingly pressured to learn English. A state of diglossia existed where Māori was still the predominant language in Māori homes and communities, with English the main medium of public and commercial life. The geographical, economic and social effects of land wars, world wars, the great depression, urbanisation and education had a major impact on the decline of the Māori population and its native language through the 20th century.

The 1867 Native Schools Act decreed English as the only language for teaching Māori children. At the time of the Hunn Report (1961) it was widely accepted that educational and linguistic assimilation had taken place, and society bred the cultural prerogatives (and language) of the majority population, Pākehā.

In the 1970s concern at the education failure of Māori and the near death of the Māori language (Benton, 1972) saw Māori urban groups such as Ngā Tamatoa and Te Reo Māori Society agitating for Māori language and culture to be offered in schools. By 1985 Ngā Kaiwhakapūmau i te Reo Incorporated Society took a claim against the Crown (New Zealand Government) to the Waitangi Tribunal. This demanded that te reo Māori be entrenched in New Zealand law based on Article II of the Treaty of Waitangi. Their claim was successful and resulted in a new policy to enable all children who wished to learn in Māori to do so from an early age with financial support from the state. Today, due to Article II of the Treaty of Waitangi and WAI 11, Māori medium schooling at early childhood, for example, Kōhanga Reo; at primary, for example, kura kaupapa Māori; at secondary, for example, wharekura, are legislated under the 1989 Education Act, Section 155 and Section 156.

The threat of imminent demise charged Māori into action. Several forms of Māori medium education were established across the country. These included bilingual education programmes in native speaking Māori language communities, Kōhanga Reo, kura kaupapa and wharekura grew in number and three Māori wānanga were established. The Department of Education and the Ministry of Education over the years responded to the drive for Māori language by producing several Māori language curriculum and resources which include Te Whāriki (1996), Tihe Māuri Ora (1992),

Te Anga Marautanga o Aotearoa (1993) and the *marautanga* for each essential learning area, Hei Korowai Tuatahi mō te Marautanga Reo Māori (2008), and the present curriculum Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (2008).

Primary schools involved in Māori medium education are funded according to the amount of instruction through immersion in the Māori language. Table 1 sets out the numbers of students in total immersion Māori medium learning in 2009–2010. In 2010, 27,532 students were involved in total immersion Māori medium learning from Level 1 to Level 4 across all year levels from year one to year 13. There were 11,738 students at Level 1 (81–100% of class time in Māori), 4,587 at Level 2 (51–80% of class time in Māori), 4,904 at Level 3 (31–50% of class time in Māori) and 6,303 at Level 4 (12–30% of class time in Māori). Levels 2–4 are considered bilingual schools. The majority of Māori medium learners are involved at years 1–8. At year 1–year 8 (primary school), across Level 1–Level 4 a total of 22,574 students are involved in Māori medium learning.

Table 1:   **Students in total immersion Māori medium learning in 2009–2010**

% of Curriculum Instruction Undertaken in Maori	Ethnicity	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6	Year 7	Year 8	Y1–8 Māori & non Māori	Y1–8 Total Māori & non Māori (inc)	Y1–8 % Total Māori & non Māori	Y1–8 % of Y1–13	Y9–13 Māori & non Māori	Y9–13 Total Māori & non Māori (inc)	Y9–13 % of Y1–13	Y1–13 Māori & non Māori	Y1–13 Total Māori & non Māori (inc)	Y1–13 % Total Māori & non Māori
Level 1: 81–100%	Maori	1449	1280	1218	1243	1168	1073	1175	1105	9711		99%	83%	1,854		16%	11,565		99%
Level 1: 81–100%	Non-Maori	19	28	18	16	15	18	16	16	146	9857	1%	1%	27	1,881	16%	173	11,738	1%
Level 2: 51–80%	Maori	324	309	364	402	549	629	673	503	3753		94%	82%	599		14%	4,352		95%
Level 2: 51–80%	Non-Maori	20	22	18	30	29	30	44	36	229	3982	6%	5%	6	605	3%	235	4,587	5%
Level 3: 31–50%	Maori	372	397	484	441	456	473	441	425	3489		87%	71%	883		20%	4,372		89%
Level 3: 31–50%	Non-Maori	50	50	48	54	77	62	70	97	508	3997	13%	12%	24	907	5%	532	4,904	11%
Level 4(a): 12 – 30%	Maori	344	366	333	323	326	366	499	535	3092		65%	49%	1,424		32%	4,516		72%
Level 4(a): 12 – 30%	Non-Maori	141	164	151	145	147	167	346	385	1646	4738	35%	36%	141	1,565	8%	1,787	6,303	28%
TOTAL	Maori	2,489	2,352	2,399	2,409	2,499	2,541	2,788	2,568	20045		89%	73%	4,760		19%	24,805		90%
TOTAL	Non-Maori	230	264	235	245	268	277	476	534	2529	22574	11%	10%	198	4,958	7%	2,727	27,532	10%
TOTAL	Total	2,719	2,616	2,634	2,654	2,767	2,818	3,264	3,102	22574				4,958			27,532		

Source: Education Counts 2010

Year 2009 data from the Māori medium education sector (Ministry of Education, 2010b) shows that Māori medium schools are more likely to meet both the literacy and numeracy requirements (in te reo Māori or English) for NCEA Level 1 by the end of year 11, than their Māori counterparts in English-medium schools (in English). Also, years 11–13 students from Māori medium schools are more likely to gain a typical level or higher NCEA qualification than their Māori peers at English-medium schools. A greater number of students from Māori medium schools leave school qualified to attend university than Māori students in English-medium schools. Language proficiency is essential to achievement in Māori medium, therefore it makes sense for it to be an area of focus.

Language proficiency is a reflection of the acquisition of language inside and outside of the school. However, there is no research available in Māori medium that indicates what language is acquired by learners. Therefore, how are teachers in Māori medium to know if the language proficiency that students acquire over the years from home, the community, Kōhanga Reo, kura or other Māori medium settings is adequate to carry out the learning goals set out in Te Marautanga o Aotearoa? Apart from tests developed in 1999–2001 that could assist teachers in Māori medium to assess the Māori language proficiency of their students, that were not tied to particular curricula, most tools developed by the Ministry of Education have at their core academic achievement that focuses on the skills and knowledge that underlie the curriculum content. This implies and assumes that learners in Māori medium settings have the necessary Māori language competence to undertake their learning in the Māori langauge.

Minimal consideration is given to the Māori language proficiency necessary to achieve social and academic language proficiency. Social language proficiency reflects everyday experiences and academic language proficiency centres on the delivery or understanding of an idea or message through one or more language domains: listening, speaking, reading or writing. Generally, academic proficiency entails three criteria:

1. Comprehension and use of the specialised or technical vocabulary and language patterns associated with content.

2. Linguistic complexity (length and variety of sentences and discourse), register (formality), organisation, and cohesion of oral interaction or writing.

3. Demonstration of understanding or usage of the sound system (phonology), the grammatical structure (syntax), and the meaning (semantics) of the language (Gottlieb, 2006).

Absolum, Flockton, Hattie, Hipkins and Reid's paper *Directions for Assessment in New Zealand — Developing students' assessment capabilities (DANZ)* (2009) noted that curriculum reforms in New Zealand were influenced by international standards (Absolum, et al., 2009). They add that national standards, policies and practices such as Key Stage Assessment in England and No Child Left Behind in the United States have proven "highly problematic and not necessarily conducive to quality teaching and learning" (in Absolum, et al., 2009, p. 11). Instead, New Zealand students, in their view would be better served by teachers conducting assessments specific to their students' learning using approaches that adhered to nationally agreed standards of quality assessment. One of the new imperatives — *Attending to the needs of all our students* — Absolum et al, considered "consistent with the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi … and it was anticipated that the developers of *Te Marautanga o Aotearoa* would develop their own strategic directions for assessment" (2009, p. 7).

DANZ (Absolum, et al., 2009) suggests that the national curriculum be augmented by learning progressions for literacy and numeracy and that these stand alone with their own status. The progressions would refer to rich descriptions of progress over time and clearly defined indicators of achievement relative to different stages of learning (levels). The standards would provide nationally consistent benchmarks to guide teachers in making judgements about their students' progress and achievement in literacy and numeracy (Ministry of Education, 2009). National Standards would focus on teaching and learning, based on high but attainable standards, which would provide clear, consistent expectations for student achievement and identify next learning steps for students. The formative assessment being carried out in the

classroom would show the progress that the student would make against the standards and learning across the New Zealand curriculum. National Standards would support the New Zealand curriculum which places students and their learning at the centre of the education system and provide teachers with clear guidelines and expected outcomes. The standards would be written to complement and to reinforce the curriculum. Schools would receive MOE support in the implementation of the curriculum and standards (Sewell, 2009).

In December 2008 the Education (National Standards) Amendment Act was passed by government. The amended act introduced National Standards in years 1–8 in numeracy and literacy in English-medium and Māori medium schools. These standards were to describe what students needed to know and be able to do at different ages and stages in reading, writing and mathematics. The National Standards were implemented in schools at the beginning of 2010. In Māori medium the National Standards in literacy were termed Whanaketanga: Te Reo Matatini (Taha Kōrero, Taha Pānui, Taha Tuhituhi) He Aratohu mā te Pouako, He Tauira Noa 2010. They are referred to in this report as Whanaketanga Reo Māori He Tauira. They include reading, writing and oral language, where oral language proficiency is stated as a foundation skill for students in Māori medium settings. The Ministry of Education has designed the National Standards in Māori medium in consultation with sector representatives and experts in numeracy, literacy, standards and assessment[1]. The Māori medium standards (whanaketanga) give teachers information about expected levels of achievement and expected rates of progress. Both are important indicators of a student's performance. National Standards in Māori medium align with the Ministry's policy statements *Te Marautanga o Aotearoa* (Ministry of Education, 2008b) and *Ka Hikitia* (Ministry of Education, 2009).

Te Marautanga o Aotearoa is the new curriculum for Māori medium and it sets the direction for teaching and learning in Māori medium schools. Schools work with the National Standards as they implement Te Marautanga o Aotearoa.

Ka Hikitia — Managing for Success: The Māori Education Strategy 2008–2012 describes the Ministry's approach to the overall vision for Māori education. Māori language education is a key focus area of Ka Hikitia in which students are able to strengthen their proficiency in te reo Māori.

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1 Ministry of Education EOI May 2009.

Research project rationale

Consistent with the development of the National Standards for literacy and numeracy for Māori medium, the Ministry sought to improve its understanding and develop progressions that: a) would make explicit the progress students could be expected to make at the different ages and stages of their reo Māori development; and b) how this could be measured.

Currently, the Ministry does not have a recognised tool to measure the Māori language proficiency of students in the classroom, therefore, this research project set out to:

1. Determine what constituted Māori oral language proficiency in schools at years one to eight.

2. Develop and establish a rating scale to measure Māori oral language proficiency at the different ages and stages of their reo Māori development from years one to eight.

3. Develop and establish Māori oral language proficiency progressions that make explicit the progress students in Māori medium settings make at the different ages and stages of their reo Māori development from years one to eight.

4. Examine the predictors and indicators of success at each progression years one to eight.

Research questions

1. What are the elements of oral language proficiency?

2. How do we assess and measure Māori oral language proficiency?

3. What oral language elements are appropriate for Māori oral language proficiency progressions?

4. How do we describe Māori oral language proficiency progressions?

5. What literature is relevant and available to inform Māori oral language proficiency progressions for Māori medium?

6. What research on Māori medium assessment is relevant and available to inform Māori oral language proficiency progressions?

This investigation into Māori oral language proficiency progressions has come to be known as *Kaiaka Reo: Reo-ā-waha ki te Motu.*

Literature review

Introduction

It was originally intended that the literature review would provide insights into Māori language proficiency, oral language proficiency, assessment and national standards for Māori medium education. The lack of literature on the topics listed above redirected the focus to fairness to the Māori medium young language learner (MMYLL). That is, what knowledge and understandings about the MMYLL, the Māori language, Māori language proficiency, and assessment, nationally and internationally, would inform the development of Māori oral language proficiency progressions and ensure fairness? As with the main report, the literature review is written from both kaupapa Māori and assessment perspectives.

The factors that constitute Māori language proficiency, standards of achievement or progressions of learning in Māori medium contexts are unknown. But it is clear that fairness in assessment is essential and should be uppermost in the minds of developers. In the past, assessment for Māori medium contexts has generally stemmed from assessment initiatives developed for English-medium contexts. Gipps and Murphy (1994) challenge this practice because, in their view, changing the structure and the content of a test changes the outcomes for the learners. The assessment of Māori medium speakers should take into account both language proficiency and achievement.

Fairness is a major issue in the assessment of language proficiency, and of great import to educators. For example, there is concern at how assessment: shapes curriculum and pedagogy; affects pupils' motivations and sense of themselves as learners; affects setting and streaming; and in some situations controls access to the next stage in education (Cameron, 2001). Hargett argues that, "A fair test is one that accurately assesses a student, providing a score that reasonably represents a student's true ability" (1998, p. 8). There are those who question whether or not tests discriminate against certain groups and emphasise the importance of the ethical conduct of testing (Shohamy in C. Alderson & North, 1995). In a similar vein, Lam (1995) states that fair assessment is equitable if it is tailored to the learner's instruction context and special background such as culture and language. Lam points out that by using methods and administration procedures most appropriate to these learners, bias is greatly reduced. These issues remain uppermost in the literature with a primary focus on fairness in assessment to the MMYLL.

The literature review has nine major themes, namely, kaupapa Māori, Māori language revitalisation, language proficiency, forms of assessment, oral language proficiency, the features of language learners, the assessment tools available for Māori medium, standards assessment and language proficiency, and the policy direction of National Standards in New Zealand.

Kaupapa Māori

Kaupapa Māori research epistemology is well established and continues to grow. This theorem of knowledge and practice maintains the assertion that Māori shall shape and determine matters concerning their language, culture and people (Smith, 1990). Research on anything Māori must be 'for Māori' and have the wellbeing and integrity of the Māori people at heart. 'By Māori' promotes tino rangatiratanga which relates to concepts of self determination, and autonomy (Smith, 1990). Furthermore, research 'in te reo Māori' (in the Māori language) takes the notion of autonomy to another level and fully recognises the Māori worldview which is encapsulated in the language itself (Edmonds, 2008). The importance of Kaupapa Māori (Māori philosophy and principles) in academic scholarship goes beyond the standard ethical procedures of research.

Kaupapa Māori principles have developed out of "a long history of research on Māori by non-Māori, which is perceived to have resulted in few benefits for Māori, but rewarding academic careers for those engaged in this kind of activity" (Keegan, 2003, p. 90). He contrasts this approach with one where "Māori researchers attempted to operate within the constraints of Māori protocols and practices and to refine relationships between those being 'researched' and the 'researcher.'" This is supported by Irwin (2004, p. 27) who states that all aspects of Māori research should be informed by Kaupapa Māori, and that Māori principles and practices should be highly valued and followed, only then will the research process result in an outcome which ensures 'cultural safety' for Maori and for the kaupapa being researched.

Kaupapa Māori is therefore integral to any proficiency developments for the Māori language. A failure to adopt kaupapa Māori will lead to the development and administration of assessments that are not valid or fair to those MMYLLs learning through the medium of te reo Māori, in Māori medium settings.

Māori language revitalisation

The impact of the New Zealand education system on the Māori language

Prior to the 1840s the Māori language was linguistically secure but the arrival of the *Pākehā* (European) to Aotearoa set the Māori language on a path towards language demise. The Māori population in the 1840s was estimated at 70,000–90,000 (Pool, 1991, p. 55). Māori, the predominant language, was used extensively in social, religious, commercial and political interactions among the Māori people themselves, and between Māori and Pākehā. The missionaries, the "advance party" of the time (Walker, 1991, p. 3), furthered their cause by providing education in Māori.

A period of extended bilingualism followed, in which Māori became increasingly pressured to learn English. By the 1860s, the Pākehā population had surpassed that of the Māori population and the vast majority of the population did not require te reo Māori for practical purposes. The 1858 census recorded a total of 56,049 Māori people (Pool, 1991, p. 76). The geographical, economic and social effects of the land wars of the 1860s further decimated the Māori population. In 1867 the Native Schools Act decreed that English was to be the only language used in the teaching of Māori children. By 1896 the onslaught of European colonisation further reduced the Māori population to 39,854 (Pool, 1991, p. 76).

A state of relative equilibrium followed where Māori remained the predominant language in Māori homes and communities, during which English and Māori coexisted in a diglossic situation where English was used for formal education interactions with Pākehā, and Māori remained the everyday language of its people. However, the diglossic situation obscured the steady loss of the use of Māori. While there remained places where there were high Māori numbers with little contact with Pākehā, the Māori language was increasingly becoming weak in other places (Pool, 1991).

Other significant events that contributed to the loss of the Māori language were the loss of Māori lives in World War I and World War II and the Great Depression in the 1930s. Increasingly Māori moved to towns for work as government policy disempowered their productive use of Māori land. By the 1940s Māori urbanisation had strengthened in momentum and government housing policies saw Māori families "pepper-potted" (scattered) into predominantly non-Māori suburbs. This assimilatory policy further hindered the use of Māori in the community. Māori families were forced to speak English in their neighbourhoods and began to raise their children as English speakers. At this stage, although the parents were native speakers of Māori, their children were becoming at best passive bilinguals, moving closer to a monolingual English status.

At first the adverse impact of English remained confined to the larger towns and cities where the Māori people were a minority. In the 1960s however, early childhood centres known as playcentres, which had become prevalent in Māori communities, actively encouraged rural as well as urban Māori parents to speak English in order to prepare their Māori children for primary school. In 1961, the Māori population was further marginalised when their language was discussed by the Hunn Report (1961) as a relic of ancient Māori life.

Educational and linguistic assimilation had thoroughly taken place, reflecting the "cultural prerogatives of the majority population" (Pool, 1991, p. 137). Pool, however, was optimistic and foresaw a renewal of the Māori, not in a demographic sense, but by "the development of systems of communications (both formal and informal, both traditional and technically advanced) for the diffusion of cultural values, accompanied by the establishment of programmes of education in language and other cultural traits" (p. 233). Pool's optimism was not misplaced, the demise of the Māori language was about to be arrested and education was to have an important role in its regeneration.

In the early 1970s, concerns for the Māori language were expressed by Māori urban groups including Ngā Tamatoa and the Te Reo Māori Society. Plainly, Māori had become "victims of cultural subversion through education, proletarianisation through curriculum manipulation" (Walker, 1991, p. 9). This was clearly evident in educational failure and the loss of Māori language to the point of language death, as identified by Benton (1979). In 1972, a Māori Language Petition signed by 30,000 signatories was sent to Parliament requesting that Māori language and aspects of Māori culture be offered in all schools with large Māori rolls…" (Māori language petition, 1972).

Also of significance on the pathway to Māori language revitalisation was the 1985 Waitangi Tribunal Claim: Waitangi 11 (WAI 11) (Waitangi Tribunal, 1986a). The express purpose was to see government policy and mechanisms giving real support to Article II of the Treaty of Waitangi (The Treaty of Waitangi, 1840). The claim successfully argued that the Māori language was a taonga under Article II, and therefore protected by the Treaty. The third of five recommendations was significant in the development of Māori medium education:

> An inquiry be instituted into the way Māori children are educated to ensure that all children who wish to learn Māori be able to do so from an early age and with financial support from the state. (Waitangi Tribunal, 1986b).

Māori language impact on education

In 1981, Māori leaders responded to the threat of the imminent demise of their language by proposing the establishment of the Kōhanga Reo 'movement'. Māori language nests, or Kōhanga Reo, would provide early childhood education conducted through the medium of Māori in culturally appropriate ways. By 1982, six Kōhanga Reo were running in the Wellington region. Kōhanga Reo became a strong political movement and catalyst that mobilised Māori to regain control of their education and language from Pākehā (European) control. Within five years more than 550 Kōhanga Reo were established across the country under Māori control, through the Kōhanga Reo National Trust.

Māori medium education

Kōhanga reo, along with bilingual schools in rural areas that already recognised the decline of te reo Māori, compelled the establishment of subsequent forms of Māori medium education in primary schools. Māori immersion programmes are funded according to the amount of Māori language used to deliver the curriculum. Table 2 outlines the levels of funding that primary schools are entitled to according to the amount of instruction through immersion in the Māori language that students receive, and the numbers of students at those levels at July 2010. Kura Māori are Māori medium schools established under the Education Act that practice under a Māori philosophy in the Māori language.

Table 2:   Students in Māori medium education

Level	Total	Māori
Level 1: 81–100%	11,738	11,565
Level 2: 51–80%	4,587	4,352
Level 3: 31–50%	4,904	4,372
Level 4(a): 12 –30%	6,303	4,516
All	27,532	24,805

Source: Education Counts 2010

Some of these kura operate under a specific philosophy called *Te Aho Matua,* the foundation document of *Kura Kaupapa Māori*. These schools were legislated under section 155 of the Education Act, as a kura supported by Te Rūnanganui o Ngā Kura Kaupapa Māori o Aotearoa with learning programmes based on Te Aho Matua — Māori philosophies. Kura-a-iwi were also established under section 156 of the Education Act, as special character schools that deliver Māori medium education aligned to particular iwi. All "kura" are Level 1 total immersion schools. Schools that offer Level 1, 2, 3 and 4 immersion classes within an English-medium school are generally referred to as bilingual schools. Level 2, 3, and 4 classes are generally referred to as bilingual classrooms.

After WAI 11, Article 2 of the Treaty of Waitangi encompassed the value and unique position of te reo Māori as a taonga. This recognition is evident in Te Anga Marautanga o Aotearoa, the translation of the National Curriculum Framework, which sets out the foundation policy for learning and assessment in New Zealand schools. One of its principles states:

> The New Zealand Curriculum recognises the significance of the Treaty of Waitangi. The school curriculum will recognise and value the unique position of Māori in New Zealand society. All students will have the opportunity to acquire some knowledge of Māori language and culture. Students will also have the opportunity to learn through te reo (Māori language) and ngā tikanga Māori (Māori customary principles and customs). The school curriculum will acknowledge the importance to all New Zealanders of both Māori and Pākehā traditions, histories, and values. (Ministry of Education, 1993a, p. 10).

In tandem with the efforts of revitalisation and education policy development, the New Zealand government published te reo Māori syllabi and curricula resources. The documents described below are specific to Māori language.

Te Whāriki

Te Whāriki is the early childhood curriculum statement that was developed in partnership with the Te Kōhanga Reo Trust. The five main aims for Māori children are mana atua (wellbeing), mana whenua (belonging), mana tangata (contribution), mana reo (communication) and mana ao tūroa (exploration) (Brewerton, 1996).

Tihe Mauri Ora

Tihe Māuri Ora is a syllabus (Ministry of Education, 1992) for teachers designed to provide a framework for the teaching of Māori language in primary school. It recognises the crucial role played by the education system in nurturing and promoting the development of the language unique to Aotearoa. It also provides a basis for the inclusion of appropriate Māori language and culture in studies and activities across the curriculum. Te Ata Hāpara and the Matariki 1, 2 and 3 series (Ministry of Education, 1990a; 1990b) are resources that were provided to support the implementation of Tihe Mauri Ora.

Te Anga Marautanga o Aotearoa

The National Curriculum Framework (Ministry of Education, 1993b) set out the essential skills and seven (later eight) essential learning areas that described in broad terms the knowledge and understanding which all students need to acquire. One of these is *Te Kōrero me Ngā Reo*, which for Māori medium resulted in the curriculum statement *Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa* (Ministry of Education, 1996).

Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa

This curriculum statement sets out the achievement objectives for Levels 1 to 8 Māori medium students in the compulsory education sector. There are six strands: *whakarongo* (listening)*, kōrero* (speaking)*, pānui* (reading)*, tuhituhi* (writing)*, mātakitaki* (viewing) *and whakaatu* (receiving)*.* Whakarongo and Kōrero are concerned with oral language*.* Four of the five *Apitihanga* (appendices)*: Āpitihanga 1–Ngā Āheinga Reo* (the functions)*; Āpitihanga 2–Ngā Ariā o te Reo* (notions)*; Āpitihanga 3–Te Wetewete i te Reo* (grammar)*; Āpitihanga 4–Ngā Rārangi Kupu* (vocabulary)*,* suggest function, discourse, grammar and vocabulary examples of language for each level.

Te Marautanga o Aotearoa

Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (Ministry of Education, 2008b) is the Māori medium curriculum statement that sets out the aspirations, goals and achievement objectives for students in Level 1 — 81–100% immersion and Level 2 — 51–80% Māori immersion settings. It includes all the essential learning areas for students, one of which is te reo Māori. It sets out eight achievement levels, levels one to eight (in te reo Māori) for the three strands of *ā-Waha* (oral language), *ā-Tā* (written language) and *ā-Tinana* (paralinguistic features of language). Level one has four sub-levels, *he pīpī, he kaha, he kaha ake, he pakari.* The strand ā-waha include: a) *āheinga reo* (a language function), for example, ka mārama ki ētahi reo ā-waha; b) *puna reo* (language source or knowledge), for example, ka tika te whai i ētahi ture o te reo; and c) *rautaki reo* (language strategy), for example, ka mārama he momo raupapa te kōrero me te tuhinga.

Hei Korowai Tuatahi mō te Marautanga Reo Māori

Hei Korowai Tuatahi mō te Marautanga Reo Māori (Ministry of Education, 2008a)*,* supports the Māori medium curriculum *Te Reo Māori o Te Marautanga o Aotearoa,* with extended examples for each strand and level.

The educational policy documents for Māori language were primarily designed with the achievement of curriculum content and skills in mind but provide little information regarding the Māori language proficiency of the student. Yet, when a child enters Kōhanga Reo or primary school with unknown proficiency in Māori, the school faces a serious dilemma. How can the child be expected to learn the skills and content taught in school while he or she is learning to speak Māori? These questions are important to the primary caregivers of MMYLLs. Issues around the understanding and assessment of proficiency are integral to the learning institutions the MMYLLs attend.

Language proficiency

Defining language proficiency is complex. In this section the processes of determining language proficiency are examined in some depth. These processes in turn underpin the rigour needed for the development of tools and processes for establishing Māori oral language progressions.

In the field of language proficiency assessment there is much debate on what constitutes proficiency. The experts differ, agree or agree to differ. General themes, however, do emerge. For example, Davies (1977) and Shohamy (1983) take the view that a test of language proficiency requires a demonstration of the knowledge and skill in a language. Bachman (2003), Carroll (1961), Davies (1968), Oller (1979) discuss knowledge, competence, and ability in the use of a language. Others including Canale and Swain (1980), Hymes (1972), Savignon (1983) talk about communicative competence. Then again there are those like McNamara (1996) who highlight the differences such as the distinction between the perspectives of Hymes (1972) and Chomsky (1965).

Traditionally, language proficiency has been used in the context of language testing to refer to knowledge, competence or ability in the use of language, irrespective of how, where or under what conditions it has been acquired (see also Bachman, 2003; Davies, 1977; J. W. Oller, 1979; Rivera, 1984; Spolsky, 1968; Upshur, 1979). There is agreement that proficiency comprises several distinct but related constructs in addition to a single construct of language proficiency (J. W. Oller, 1993). Proficiency equates to "equal achievement (functions, content, accuracy) plus functional evidence of internalised strategies for creativity, expressed in a single global rating of general language ability over a wide range of topics at a given level" (Lowe, 1988, p. 12). McNamara notes that this definition was criticised by Bachman and Savignon with regard to the weightings (McNamara, 1996, p. 77). Of particular relevance to oral language proficiency development in Māori contexts are the notions that:

- The learner is required to demonstrate not only knowledge of language but skill in the use of that knowledge in settings which are in some degree communicative (Davies, 1977).

- Assessment will "require the test taker to apply … knowledge about language by actually using the language in communicative situations" (Shohamy, 1983, p. 528).

- To be proficient in a second language means to effectively communicate or understand thoughts or ideas through the language's grammatical system and its vocabulary using its sounds or written symbols (Hargett, 1998, p. 7).

Communicative competence

Communicative competence, introduced by Hymes (1967), refers to the ability to use language and was a reaction to Chomsky's distinction between 'competence and performance'. McNamara (1996) highlighted the differences between Hymes' and Chomsky's (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4) propositions, claiming that Chomsky on the one hand proposes a competence-performance model in which 'competence' refers to the "speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language", and 'performance' to "the actual use of language in concrete situations" (see also Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972; Savignon, 1972, 1983). Hymes, on the other hand, agrees with underlying 'competence' (knowledge) of language but distinguishes between (i) 'performance' — a potential ability (not necessarily realised in a speech act) and (ii) 'actual use' in a speech act. Hymes' model of communicative competence consists of: (a) knowledge of language; (b) use of language and (c) the underlying potential or ability that can be inferred from the production of language.

Bachman's (2003) model of knowledge, which he refers to as 'language competence', consists of: (a) organisational competence and (b) pragmatic competence. Organisational competence can be further subdivided into (i) grammatical competence (vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology) and (ii) textual competence (knowing how to put utterances — written or spoken — to form texts). Pragmatic competence on the other hand, refers to:

(a)   illocutionary competence, which includes ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative language functions or speech acts. For example, putting words together in a grammatically correct way in order to perform a certain action (eg, requesting something), or

(b)   sociolinguistic competence, which includes sensitivity to dialects or variety, to differences in register, to naturalness, to cultural references and figures of speech and the ability to produce utterances based on these socio-cultural factors (Ohara, 2004).

Clearly, an understanding and determination of the construct of language proficiency is important in ensuring that the assessment of learners is fair. Fairness must also recognise that the assessment of language proficiency and academic achievement are different but integral to each other.

The discussion that follows makes specific references to assessments as 'tests'. In this review, unless specified, the term 'test' refers to structured assessment at a set time.

Language proficiency testing versus academic achievement testing

Most language tests are linked to the cognitive academic language achievement skills of the classroom. In other words, academic language achievement is that which is an outcome of curriculum-based formal instruction (Baker, 2001; Cohen, 1994; Gottlieb, 2006; Hughes, 1995; Underhill, 1987). While tests of achievement follow teaching, teacher presentation, explanation and practice before test administration, some proficiency tests are detached from formal instruction.

Gottleib (2006) introduces the concept of academic language proficiency as the intersection of social language proficiency and academic achievement. Social language proficiency, she believes, reflects everyday experiences and demonstrates a speaker's ability to use the acquired target language, whereas academic achievement "focuses on the skills and knowledge that underlie the communication" (p. 25). Academic language proficiency, she claims, "centres on the delivery or understanding of an idea or message through one or more language domains. It generally entails three criteria:

1.   Comprehension and use of the specialised or technical vocabulary and language patterns associated with content.

2.   Linguistic complexity (length and variety of sentences and discourse), register (formality), organisation, and cohesion of oral interaction or writing.

3.   Demonstration of understanding or usage of the sound system (phonology), the grammatical structure (syntax), and the meaning (semantics) of the language (Gottlieb, 2006).

Other researchers contrast language proficiency with academic language achievement, that is, the informal acquisition of language proficiency as opposed to a proficiency in a language which has been formally learned. Language proficiency testing is seen by some educators as relating to proficiency in the learner's linguistic or structural knowledge or the competence or ability of learners to apply this knowledge functionally. This has been substantiated by research. Brindley (1989), for example, sub-divides language proficiency into three areas: (i) general proficiency, (ii) functional proficiency and (iii) structural proficiency. The language testing theories of Oller (1983) have been aligned to academically related language competence, that is, the language abilities required by learners to operate in the classroom.

Language proficiency: reliability and validity

There has been a great deal of research and debate regarding English Second Language (ESL) and English Foreign Language (EFL) proficiency testing (see McNamara, 1996). Language proficiency testing is concerned with the extent to which a test can be shown to produce scores that are an accurate reflection of a person's ability in the language. This

is problematic when there is no agreement on what language proficiency is, but it does require an understanding of the elements that comprise the construct of language proficiency and an understanding of the method used to provide the information about the construct.

A construct is a concept or abstraction of phenomena that can be inferred through observation. For example a person's language proficiency might be inferred from their performance on a language proficiency test. The generation of evidence from test scores to support inferences concerning language learner traits, and the validity of the scoring system, is generally known as reliability and validity (see J. D. Brown, 1996; Hughes, 1995; McNamara, 1996).

Testing theory stresses the need for a test construct to be carefully defined and thought out, so that the test items reflect the purpose of the test and the scores produced by the test can be trusted as an accurate reflection of the test takers' proficiency. In other words, they are reliable estimates of proficiency despite the meaningful variance or measurement error (error variance) that occur, due to factors other than an individual's test performance. When the error variance is minimised we minimise measurement error and thus maximise reliability.

A fundamental consideration in the development and use of language tests is the identification of potential sources of error in a given measure of communicative language ability, and to minimise the effect of these factors on that measure (Bachman, 2003). We must be mindful of errors of measurement, or unreliability, because they indicate that test performance is affected by factors other than the abilities we want to measure. The investigation of reliability, according to Bachman, is concerned with:

i.   discovering how much of an individual's test performance is due to measurement error or to factors other than language ability we want to measure; and

ii. minimising the effects of those factors on test scores.

Reliability and validity are thus two complementary objectives in designing and developing tests firstly to minimise the effects of measurement error, and secondly to maximise the effects of the language abilities we want to measure.

Reliability

For reliability to be established and inherent in a test, sources of error should be identified and the magnitude of their effects estimated through both logical analysis and empirical research. The identification of sources of error requires distinguishing the effects of the language abilities we want to measure from the effects of other factors, which according to Bachman (2003) is complex. This is partly due to the fact that the interaction between components of language ability and test method may make it difficult to mark a clear 'boundary' between the ability being measured and the method facets of a given test. He further explains that the way we identify sources of error is a function of the inferences or uses we want to make of the test score, again demonstrating the relationship between reliability and validity.

Identifying sources of error is also complicated by the effects of other characteristics such as gender, age, cognitive style and native language. The effects of any and all of these factors may also be difficult to distinguish from the effects of the language abilities we want to measure.

The framework of communicative language ability posited by Bachman (2003) provides a basis for stating hypotheses about the ways in which specific abilities determine how a given individual performs on a given test and, consequently, the score s/he receives on that test. In other words, we would like to infer that a high score on a language test is determined or caused by high communicative language ability, and a theoretical framework defining this ability is thus necessary if we want to make inferences about ability from test scores.

However, as noted earlier, performance on language tests is also affected by factors other than communicative language ability. These can be grouped into the following broad categories: (a) method — test method facets; (b) personal — attributes of the test taker that are not considered part of the language abilities we want to measure, and (c) situational — random factors that are largely unpredictable and temporary (Bachman, 2003).

Language abilities are abstract, and therefore cannot be directly observed or known in an absolute sense. Therefore an individual's 'true' language proficiency (or other such cognitive ability) can only be estimated on the basis of a score derived from a performance on a particular test of that ability. Any attempt to estimate the reliability of a set of test scores must be based on a model that specifies the hypothesised relationships between the ability measured and the observed scores on the test.

Classical true score (CTS) measurement theory, which consists of a set of assumptions about relationships between actual or observed test scores and the factors that affect these scores, comprises two components:

(a)   a true score that is due to an individual's level of ability, and an error score, that is due to factors other than the ability being tested; and

(b)   an assumption about the relationship between true and error scores.

In other words the CTS measurement model defines two sources of variance in a set of test scores; the true score variance, which is due to differences in the ability of the individuals tested, and measurement error, which is unsystematic, or random (Bachman, 2003).

The measurement steps provide the basis for investigating and demonstrating the reliability of the test scores. The reliability of the test scores depends largely on the careful specification of the measurement procedures to be used and the adherence to these specifications in design and administration procedures. Reliability also depends on the quantification of the observations, because the estimation of reliability statistically will partly depend on the level of measurement applied to the test scores (Bachman, 2004).

Since we can never know the true scores of individuals, the reliability of the observed score can only be estimated. Brown explains that:

> [t]he degree to which a test is consistent, or reliable, can be estimated by calculating a reliability coefficient … Reliable coefficients, or reliability estimates as they are so called, can be interpreted as the percent of systematic, or consistent, or reliable variance in the scores on a test" (2005, p. 175).

Brown adds that language testers use three basic strategies to estimate the reliability of most tests: (i) test-retest; (ii) equivalent forms, and (iii) internal consistency strategies.

Internal consistency

According to Brown (2005, p. 176), "Internal-consistency reliability protocol utilises strategies that estimate the consistency of a test using only information internal to a test that is available in one administration of a single test". In test scores that are obtained subjectively, such as ratings of oral compositions, a source of error is inconsistency in the ratings. In the case of a single rater we need to be concerned about the consistency within that individual's ratings, or with *intra-rater* reliability.

When there are several different raters, as was the case with this study, there is a need to examine consistency across raters, or *inter-rater* reliability. In both cases the primary causes of inconsistency will be either the application of different rating criteria to different samples or the inconsistent application of the rating criteria to different samples.

Inter-rater reliability

Ratings given by different raters can also vary as a function of inconsistencies in the criteria used to rate and in the way in which these criteria are applied. A source of inconsistency, for example, could be that some raters focus on grammatical accuracy while others might focus on vocabulary. It is possible to compute the correlation between two different raters and interpret this as an estimate of reliability.

A major practical advantage of internal consistency estimates of reliability is that they can be made on the basis of a single test administration. An example of inter-rater correlations is provided by Brown using the 'Spearman-Brown prophecy formula' (J. D. Brown, 2005, p. 187). Bachman warns, however, that there are potential sources of error that cannot be investigated within the Classical True Score model because the model's estimates of error, as discussed above, address one specific source of error and treat other potential sources either as part of that source, or as a true score.

McNamara (1996) proposes that consideration be given to the effect of the presence of the rater in the assessment process in performance assessment, and to what other possible sources of influence (that is, apart from the ability of the candidate and the characteristics of the rater) there may be on patterns of test scores. Performance assessment is conceptualised in terms of *facets* or aspects of the setting. The interactions of these facets, he claims, may determine the likelihood of particular test scores. Distinction is made between raw scores on the one hand and what they are thought to indicate of the underlying abilities of the candidates, which may be estimated in rather more objective terms, known technically as *measures.* Then technology known as *multi-faceted* measurement executed by the computer program known as FACETS (Linacre & Wright, 1992) is used to compensate for aspects of the test situation which vary from candidate to candidate.

In performance-based assessment, the instrument elicits a performance or behaviour which is then judged or rated by means of a scale or other kind of scoring schedule. This requires an interaction between the rater and the scale, an interaction that mediates a scoring of the performance. The rater-scale interaction resembles the subject-instrument interaction in that the rater-scale interaction is like a 'test' of the raters (and the scale) in the way that the subject-instrument interaction is a test of the subjects (test-takers) and of the instrument.

This approach accepts that the most appropriate aim of rater training is to make raters internally consistent. Internal consistency among raters will make statistical modelling of their characteristics possible, and also accepts variability in stable rater characteristics as a fact of life. This variability must be compensated for in some way, either through multiple marking and averaging of scores, or by using the more sophisticated techniques of Rasch multifaceted measurement through FACETS which can simultaneously examine how variables such as the students being assessed, the raters, and the categories produce scores relative to the other.

Rasch multifaceted measurement

In Rasch analysis, item difficulties and candidate or person abilities often termed 'locations' are generated and reported on a 'logit'[2] scale. The scale expresses probabilities of response as a logarithm of the naturally occurring constant *e*. It is an interval which allows locations (of items and persons) to be determined individually and/or in relation to other items, persons, or locations respectively. Therefore, all the items, student abilities and rater performance are located on a common scale.

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2   The term 'logit' derives from 'log odds' of a response, ie, log odd units.

The mean of items (i.e. the difficulty in a test) is arbitrarily set to zero, with a standard deviation of 1. Items that are more difficult than the mean are positive in sign and those easier than the mean are negative. In practice the more difficult items have values of around +2 or higher and the much easier items have values of –2 or less. Person abilities are mapped on the same scale as item difficulty. A person of ability zero (the mean) has a 50% chance of getting correct an item of 0 difficulty, and a higher chance of getting an item incorrect if the item difficulty is more than 0. The probability of getting the item correct increases as the item difficulty decreases, and the probability of getting the item correct decreases as the item difficulty increases.

In addition to information on item and student locations, Rasch analysis also provides information on 'item fit' and 'person fit'. 'Item fit' describes how well responses to individual items as a whole adhere to an expected pattern of response. Items not fitting the predicted pattern of response are termed 'misfitting' and this often indicates a poorly written item that may need to be deleted from the analysis or modified for retrial. Person fit likewise describes how well individual responses to all items in a test correspond to the pattern of responses exhibited by all other participants in the same test.

Validity

Validity, according to Brown (1997) is "the degree to which the results can be accurately interpreted and effectively generalised" (see also Cronbach, 1971b; Kelley, 1927; Lado, 1961; McNamara, 1996). Weir modifies this view to mean that "validity resides in the test scores and is better defined as the extent to which a test can be shown to produce data on a particular administration of a test rather than in the test itself" (Weir, 2005, p. 12). This view is consistent with Bachman's idea that:

> Validity is a unitary concept. Although evidence may be accumulated in many ways, validity always refers to the degree to which that evidence supports the inferences that are made from the scores. The inferences regarding specific uses of a test are validated, not the test itself (Bachman, 2003, p. 237).

Messick also views validity as a unified concept, that is, "an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores" (1989, p. 13). According to Brown and Hudson (2002), Messick was of the view that validity was an "argument, or more often a series of arguments, for the effectiveness of a test for a particular purpose". Brown and Hudson also remind us of Cronbach's view that we should question the validity of our tests from functional, political, economic, and explanatory perspectives.

Construct validity

According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), a language construct is based on a theory of language ability, on proficiency, or on the content of an instructional syllabus. Bachman (2004) defines a construct as an attribute that is defined in a specific way for the purpose of a particular measurement situation. Due to the fact that constructs such as language ability, are broad descriptions, Bachman recommends that these be more precisely defined; for instance, the construct 'organisational knowledge' is identified as a component of language knowledge, along with its subcomponents of grammatical knowledge and textual knowledge.

He makes reference as well to the specific testing situation or particular purpose for which the measure is intended and specifies an indication of who the particular subjects to be tested will be. That construct, organisational knowledge, Bachman continues, should be operationalised by specifying the procedures and conditions under which the performance will be observed or elicited so that inferences can be made about the construct to be measured, such as, information about the types and numbers of test tasks to be used, the order of these, the amount of time allocated, and scoring procedures.

The quantifying of the observations or products of the assessment is the next task and usually requires the assigning of numbers, which is, according to Bachman to be used to: (a) judge the quality, or level, of the performance according to a rating scale with defined levels, or (b) count the scores or marks for the individual tasks or items. Bachman's "judging approach" (p. 17), "is used typically with tasks that require test takers to produce an extended sample of language such as in a composition test or an oral interview" and usually takes the form of a rating scale, either holistic or analytic.

Judgements of the test performance, the operationalisation of the construct, yield scores or variables that can have different values which may vary. Whereas a construct is an unobservable theory, a variable is an observable attribute of the construct, and the scores are quantifiable instances of the variable. The distinction between the construct and variable is critical because a construct cannot be observed. This interaction of a given construct with a score provides the link between construct definition and numbers or variables. It is the operational definition of a given construct that provides the logical basis for interpreting numbers or variables, as indicators of the construct that needs to be measured.

The statistical analyses that are used with the test scores can be applied to any set of numbers. However, these must be clearly linked to the underpinning constructs or attributes; if not, the results of the statistical analysis will be meaningless. When there is clear linkage, the construct can be said to be reliable and valid. The construct validity of the score interpretations depends on the clarity with which the construct has been defined and the appropriateness of the specific procedures to obtain the test scores (Bachman, 2004).

There are two approaches to validation: *a priori* and *a posteriori*. *A priori* validation involves a scrutiny of the test before it is put into use. "A posteriori validation involves investigating the way the test appears to have worked, after the event, and largely involves the analysis of scoring data" (Hasselgreen, 2004, p. 10).

There are a number of different validities identified in the literature, for example Hughes (1995), lists four; Weir seven (2005); Alderson, Clapham, and Wall eleven (2005); Brown seven (1995); and so on. Brown reminds us that the investigation of validity is only necessary after the consistency of the scores produced by the test has been established and that a test should only be used for the particular purposes and for the specific types of students for which the test was designed. Thus, he adds, "validity is not about the test itself so much as it is about the test when the scores are interpreted for some specific purpose … it is more accurate to refer to the validity of the scores and interpretations that result from the test than to think of the test itself as being valid" (J. D. Brown, 2005, p. 221). The types of validity that will be considered here are content validity and construct validity.

According to Messick a measure estimates how much of something an individual displays, and construct validity is concerned with what that something is (1975). Bachman (2003) defined a construct in terms of a theory that specifies how it relates to other constructs and to observable performance. Thus constructs are definitions of abilities that permit us to state specific hypotheses about how these abilities are or are not related to other abilities and observed behaviour. Construct validity is seen as a unifying concept and construct validation the process that incorporates all the evidential bases for validity, as stated by Messick, "Construct validity is indeed the unifying concept that integrates criterion and content considerations into a common framework for testing rational hypotheses about theoretically relevant relationships (1980, p. 1015)".

Bachman (2003, p. 256) notes that the abilities to be measured are not directly observable but are to be inferred from observed performance. "Furthermore," he states, "abilities are theoretical, in the sense that we hypothesise that they affect the way language is used and performed on language tests." Essentially, the issue, in construct validity, is the extent to which we can make inferences about hypothesised abilities on the basis of test performance. Therefore what is sought is evidence that supports specific inferences about relationships between constructs and test scores. That is, in conducting construct validation, we are empirically testing the hypothesised relationships between test scores and

abilities. He lists the different types of empirical evidence that, according to Messick, the test developer is likely to collect:

(a) the examination of patterns of correlations among item scores and test scores, and between characteristics of items and tests and scores on items and tests

(b) analysis and modelling of the processes underlying test performance

(c) studies of group differences

(d) studies of changes over time

(e) investigation of the effects of experimental treatment (Bachman, 2003, p. 258).

Therefore, "construct" validation is the process of building a case that test scores support a particular interpretation of ability, and it thus subsumes content validity and criterion relatedness. Furthermore, "construct" validation goes beyond these two types of evidence, in that it empirically verifies (or falsifies) hypotheses derived from a theory of factors that affect performance on tests or abilities, constructs, and characteristics of the test method" (Bachman, 2003, p. 290).

Content validity

Describing content validity begins with a definition of the content or ability domain and the content areas from which items or test tasks are generated. There are two aspects to this part of the validation: (a) content relevance and (b) content coverage. Content relevance requires the "specification of the task or test domain" (Messick, 1980, p. 1017) and the specification of the test method facets that Bachman refers to as "the process of operationally defining constructs". This involves "every aspect of the setting in which the test is given and every detail of the procedure that may have an influence on performance and hence on what is measured …" (Cronbach, 1971a, p. 449). Content validity also involves content coverage, or the extent to which the tasks required in the test adequately represent the behavioural domain in question (Bachman, 2003).

This section of the literature review has outlined the importance of reliability and validity in determining language proficiency and the processes involved. It highlights that language proficiency is an unobservable construct which can be operationalised by defining or describing language behaviour or performance from which inferences can be made. Moreover, it provides a process, Rasch analysis, for determining the reliability and validity of an oral language performance using an analytical rating scale. In the next section we examine a variety of assessment tasks, such as a rating scale, that have been developed for assessing English language proficiency.

Proficiency assessment

Forms of assessment (alternative forms of assessment)

In summarising the work of Aschbacher (1991), Herman, Aschbacher and Winter (1992), and Huerta-Macias (1995), Brown and Hudson (J. Brown, D. & Hudson, 1998) note that the following characteristics of a variety of alternative assessments appeal to language teachers and testers because they:

1. require students to perform, create produce, or do something

2. use real-world contexts or simulations

3. are nonintrusive in that they extend into the day-to-day classroom activities

4. allow students to be assessed on what they normally do in class every day'

5. use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities

6. focus on processes as well as products

7. tap into higher level thinking and problem-solving skills

8. provide information about both the strengths and weaknesses of students

9. are multiculturally sensitive when properly administered

10. ensure that people, not machines, do the scoring, using human judgement

11. encourage open disclosure of standards and rating criteria

12. call upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles.

Brown and Hudson are concerned, however, at Huerta-Maicas's (1995) argument that the trustworthiness of a measure consists of its credibility and auditability, where:

> Alternative assessments are in and of themselves valid, due to the direct nature of the assessment. Consistency is ensured by the auditability of the procedure (leaving evidence of decision making processes), by using multiple tasks, by training judges to use clear criteria, and by triangulating any decision making process with varied sources of data (for example, students, families, and teachers). Alternative assessment consists of valid and reliable procedures that avoid many of the problems inherent in traditional testing including norming, linguistic, and cultural biases (p.10).

Although Brown and Hudson agree in part that "trustworthiness of a measure consists of its credibility and auditability", they believe that trustworthiness is not defined enough. For them consistency is only aided by "the audibility of the procedure". In Brown and Hudson's view and experience, Hueta-Macias's statements about reliability and validity are too general and shortsighted, Alternative assessments, they say, are not new. Designers and users of alternate assessments must make every effort to structure the ways they design, pilot, analyse and revise the procedures so that the reliability and validity of the procedures can be studied, demonstrated and improved. The "issues of reliability and validity must be dealt with for alternative assessments just as they are for any other type of assessment — in an open, honest, clear, demonstrable, and convincing way" (Norris, Brown, & Yoshioka, 1998, p. 5).

Brown and Hudson (1998) argue that "language testing practices are fundamentally different from assessment practices in most other disciplines not only because of the complexity of the domain being tested but also because of the different types of tests that language teachers and administrators can and do use" (p. 657). These tests range from the discrete

point, for example, multiple choice in the 1950s–60s, the integrative-like cloze and dictation in the 1970s and the early 1980s and more task-based communicative tests and other new assessments in the 1980s and 1990s. Brown and Hudson identify questions such as: Which are more valid? Which are more reliable? Which are easiest to score/ which tests measure what skills? They note that these are "legitimate questions" because all have distinct strengths and weaknesses (1998). Brown and Hudson discuss in detail three basic assessment types: a selected response eg, true-false; constructed-response eg, Fill in, short answer and performance assessments; and personal-response eg, conference. Table 3 is a summary of Brown and Hudson's (1998) assessment types, including the advantages and disadvantages that are conducive to productive language assessment such as speaking.

Table 3:   Language assessment types

Type of Assessment	Advantages	Disadvantages
Constructed-response Produce language by writing, speaking.	Less guessing	Problems of objectivity
Performance Students produce, authentic speaking and writing	- Authentic communication - Valid real-life language tasks; predict performances in real-life language situations - Can counteract negative washback - Can provide positive washback	Difficult to produce and time-consuming. May incur costs eg, development, administration, training, rating, reporting. Logistics: eg, collecting and sorting the performances, special equipment, security. Reliability eg, Rater inconsistencies Validity eg, lack of construct generalisability
Personal-Response Assessments Require students to produce language that differs	Provide personal or individualised assessment, can be directly related to the curriculum, can assess learning processes	Difficult to produce and organise, involves subjective scoring.
Conferences Focus directly on learning processes and strategies	- Foster student reflection - develop better self images - elicit language performances on particular tasks, skills, Informs	Time consuming, difficult and subjective to grade)

Source: Brown & Hudson (1998)

Rating scales

The use of rating scales is a language testing technique for the measurement of children's oral performance (OP). A rating scale provides the most appropriate measurement and requires a scoring method that:

(a)   provides criteria of how student utterance is to be evaluated

(b)   describes the procedures followed to arrive at a score (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

Definitions of performance are generally called criteria or descriptors in scoring rubrics for assessing language. Generally, the criteria or descriptors that are selected will reflect the construct or "operationalise the construct for the performance" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 194) so that "well defined sets of criteria should therefore be theoretically based and not just randomly selected," as asserted by McKay (2006, p. 267).

Gottlieb (2006), for example, offers a five-point holistic rubric that offers broad indicators of the developmental nature of speaking for second language learners of English. This developmental scale (p.48) presents a sample 1–5 strand of Model Proficiency Indicators (MPI) for use by classroom teachers of ESL speakers. However, holistic scales such as the MPI and ACTFL potentially lack the fit of individuals with performance on the various sub-skills (Hughes, 1995).

Analytic scales on the other hand, require a separate score for each of a number of aspects of a task that are said to be analytic. Analytic scales have:

> … the advantage over the holistic in that they help teachers and assessors to be less subjective and less prone to variability … they take more time to complete than global scales but they provide guidance to markers on what they are looking for… harder for markers to ignore aspects of performance … decisions that markers make are also very clearly set out for all to see… give assessors the opportunity to acknowledge uneven development of sub-skills in individual children's performance (McKay, 2006, p. 289).

It has been claimed that analytic scoring is particularly useful for second-language learners, who are more likely to show a marked or uneven profile across different aspects of language. For example a speech act may be quite well developed but have numerous grammatical errors, or may demonstrate an admirable control of syntax but have little or no content (Hamp-Lyons, 1991; Weigle, 2007). Gottleib (2006, p.50) with regard to analytic scoring, points to the need for teachers to become more familiar with a scoring guide where larger scale speaking tests may be assessed in terms for example, of, fluency; grammar; vocabulary and comprehension. Gottleib tables these within a five scale speaking rubric.

The constructs of testing and methods of proficiency assessment outlined above, are not proposed as a regime of testing for the Māori medium sector. The intention is to underline the fact that such rigour is expected, explicit and implicit, and sometimes required in English-medium contexts of learning. Languages at risk, such as Māori should be given the same consideration.

Oral language proficiency

The field of second language acquisition has not yet established an index of language development despite the extensive research literature base that exists for ESL proficiency, EFL proficiency, and communicative testing procedures. Gass and Selinker (2001) suggest that this is due to the nature of second language learners who do not have a uniform starting point. They refer to utterances varying in the degree of syntactic sophistication, interlanguages as unique creations, and an individual's creation as his/her own language system. Suggested forms of assessment include the use of rating scales, standardised tests, categorisation according to scores, or the measurement of syntactic development using a T-unit. The T-unit (Terminable Unit is used to measure the linguistic complexity of sentences. It is the smallest unit that a sentence can be reduced to and usually consists of an independent clause and any associated dependent clauses attached or within it {Richards, 1995 #128}. The T-unit was initially used for native speakers and is more reliable for written data because of the discourse utterances that occur in spoken discourse such as "um, ā…, and mm".

Assessing spoken language

Traditional assessment procedures have tended to be either discrete point tests or integrative tests. However, a good assessment procedure should place the learner in a realistic context such as a real oral interactive situation where language is being used for a purpose. The assessment should therefore involve engagement in a whole-language task involving the production of sustained talk. Such a task could be re-telling a story. Gibbons does, however, point out that at some point in assessment it is necessary to focus on form, since the appropriateness and forms of language — structures and vocabulary — determine the effectiveness of communication (1992, pp. 294–295).

The task of determining a learner's oral proficiency is complex and depends on the type of speech utterances, such as a monologue or dialogue, which could include such things as pauses, speech rate, syntax, phonology or pronunciation.

Pronunciation

Pronunciation is defined as "the way a certain sound or sounds are produced … stresses the way sounds are perceived by the hearer … " (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1995, p. 296). The teaching of correct pronunciation or proper pronunciation training of young language learners is crucial. Research clearly indicates that after childhood years the ability to pronounce a new language in a native-like fashion diminishes (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 165) The teaching of pronunciation has seen some dramatic changes over the last 50 years. During this time the emphasis has moved from the importance of 'product' to a focus on 'process' and where fluency received greater focus than accuracy. Pronunciation teaching became more incidental as a result. The 1980s saw another change with a greater emphasis in language teaching on discourse and a balance between fluency and accuracy. Now, pronunciation is seen as key to gaining full communicative competence (H. D. Brown, 2000).

Intonation

Intonation is the music of speech and conveys a subtle range of meaning. A drop in intonation for example signals the end of a conversation. A rise in intonation at the end of an utterance signals an air of uncertainty, leaving a situation 'open', or signals leaving other possibilities in the air. A fall in intonation at the end of an utterance shows more certainty of what is being said. Intonation affects the meaning of what is being said and how the speaker feels about what is being talked about. Intonation changes also occur in questions, statements and the expression of surprise.

Stress

Stress is "the pronunciation of a word or syllable with more force than the surrounding words or syllables … by using more air from the lungs" (Richards, et al., 1995, p. 354). It is the point in a word or phrase indicated by a change in pitch, a volume increase or the lengthening of a vowel. Stress is important in conveying meaning. For example, in the phrase "Haere kōrua" (You two go), the stress on the word "haere" stresses the verb. Whereas stressing the noun kōrua, focuses on the two people.

Pitch

Pitch is a language device concerned with the "relative height of speech sounds" (Richards, et al., 1995, p. 278). Pitch may signal emotion in communication. A high-pitched delivery signals that the speaker may be frightened or excited. A low-pitched delivery can signal that a speaker is tired, bored or even fed up (Harmer, 2001).

Fluency

Fluency refers to the "features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions" (Richards, et al., 1995, pp. 141–142). The ability to produce fluency is an important consideration in any approach to second and foreign language learning and teaching as it describes:

a. the ability to produce written or spoken language with ease

b. the ability to speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation, vocabulary and grammar

c. the ability to communicate ideas effectively

d. the ability to produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown in communication. (1995, pp. 141–142)

Fluency is sometimes signalled by the 'flow' of language in utterances both long and short and needs to be established from the beginning. While learners need to practice 'freely and openly' without fear of correction of every error, there is also a need to draw attention to selected grammatical and phonological errors in order that learners do not assume that 'no news is good news' and that their language production is correct. Attention also needs to be given to pronunciation, intonation etc., for to neglect these elements could be at the expense of later fluency. A balance is vital (H. D. Brown, 2000).

Cognition

As learners begin to learn a second language their processing is, according to McLaughlin (1990) in a 'focal, controlled mode' (usually at beginner's level). This is common in new skills where only a few bits of information can be handled at once. This is evident in plenty of repetition and limited vocabulary, phrases and sentences. When the learner displays the skill of managing several pieces of information simultaneously, the automatic processing level has been attained (usually at intermediate levels). Richards et al (1995) refer to cognition as mental processes used by learners in language learning, such as thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognising or classifying.

Grammar

The system of rules that governs the arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence (that is its sentence-level rules as opposed to discourse rules) is its grammar. Grammar is seen in relation to the 'form' or the 'structure' of the language. Richards et al (1995) explain grammar as:

… a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meanings and functions these sentences have in the overall system of the language. It may or may not include the description of the sounds of a language.

Having an understanding of the application of grammar rules enables learners to construct sentences in terms of word order, verb and noun systems, phrases, clauses etc. Rules of grammar exist hand in hand with semantics and pragmatics and are all interconnected in the process of communication.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary plays a central role in the communication by the speaker of contextualised, meaningful language. Words are the basic building blocks of language. For any language learner, it is the encounter with words, be it comprehension or production, within the context of discourse that best internalises vocabulary (H. Brown, D., 1994, p. 365).

Discourse

Discourse rules govern the relationship among sentences in any utterance or any form of communication. A variety of discourse markers or devices signal these relationships among ideas expressed through phrases, clauses and sentences (Brown, 2000 p. 279). Learners will be greatly assisted with a clear comprehension of these markers. Clear signalling of these relationships is also crucial for listener clarification or intelligibility.

Sociolinguistic competence: appropriate use of te reo Māori

The ability of second language learners to insert utterances such as idioms, pepeha, whakatauākī, dialects (linguistic variations distinguishable by choice of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) demonstrates an understanding of the sociolinguistic rules of a community. This knowledge, which underlies an ability to use language appropriately, is known as sociolinguistic competence (Holmes, 2001).

Intelligibility

The process of the understanding of the meaning of oral language or any speech utterance is dependent on an understanding of the role of pronunciation or phonemes, vocabulary, grammar, discourse, culturally appropriate expressions, listener expectations, situation contexts, background knowledge and topic selection. Intelligibility, according to Richards et al, is the extent to which a message is understood, and due to various factors such as accent and intonation. This includes the listener's ability to predict parts of the message, the location of pauses in the utterance, the grammatical complexity of sentences, and the speed with which utterances are produced (see also Foss & Hakes, 1978).

The assessment of oral language is, according to Deriwianka (1992), the most neglected area in language assessment. She suggests, in the first instance, that this is because oral language is seen to have lesser status than written language, despite the presence of oral language skills and functions in syllabi and curricula. Secondly, she claims that spoken language is "fleeting" and "vanishes at the moment of utterance, unlike written language". Moreover, as Gass and Selinker point out, "we do not know how these should be weighted … nor do we know what can be expected in terms of acquisition, a prerequisite to being able to place learners along a developmental continuum" (2001, pp. 49–50). We do know, however, that the teacher must be present to assess, and fortunately, present day technology enables various forms of recording language.

While oral language is visible in syllabi and curricula, such as *Te Marautanga o Aotearoa,* there still remains the question: what are we looking for when we assess spoken language? It is possible to fall into the trap of assessing spoken language according to written language such as the T-unit suggested above. Deriwianka suggests that we need to assess oral language on its own merits. These might include aspects of phonology such as intonation and pronunciation; or to take the communication approach which also involves the paralinguistic features of language. She goes on to suggest that oracy is more than performance and that our assessment procedures should be more sophisticated and need to take into account:

Is the task a monologue or dialogue?

Is it spontaneous or prepared?

Who is in the interaction?

What roles are they?

What is their relationship?

And we need to recognise how oral language is being used to develop our understanding of the world, how it is constructing a particular field of knowledge.

Reasons for using language vary from one context to another, giving rise to different genres, such as recount, debate, or anecdote. A recount, for example would usually begin with who is involved, the time and location, the series of events in some chronological order and a commentary on the events (Derewianka, 1992). Each culture too would have its own purposes for using language and therefore its own genres.

Oral language proficiency assessments

Examples of professionally developed proficiency tests used to assess English as a second/foreign language include the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and those developed by the American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages (ACTFL). The ACTFL assessments are reviewed here, in the first instance, because the proficiency guidelines have been adapted to accommodate younger learners. Secondly they have been adapted to measure and describe proficiency levels for English as a second or foreign language, and other major world languages such as Spanish being learned as second or foreign languages in a variety of immersion settings.

The ACTFL speaking guidelines that were revised for speaking in 1999 and writing in 2001 function as criterion reference rubrics. Some argue (Lantolf & Frawley, 1988) that they are implicitly norm-referenced, that is, "they are more properly seen as proficiency-referenced scales with the task criteria selected to reflect proficiency levels in a norm-referenced manner" (p. 224). The rubric presents nine proficiency descriptors along a continuum ranging from Novice Low, –Mid, –High to Intermediate –Low, –Mid, –High,, to Advanced–Low, –Mid, High and Superior.

Fortune and Tedick (Fortune & Tedick, 2009) claim that second language learners of English, develop less native-like language speaking and writing skills. In particular, their oral language lacks grammatical accuracy and lexical specificity, and is less complex and sociolingualistically less appropriate than when compared with the language of native speakers. Moreover, they use language that sounds increasingly anglicised over time and is limited to a more formal academic discourse style.

ACTFL oral language proficiency tools

COPE

Originally COPE was used to measure a student's ability to understand, speak and be understood by others in Spanish. The test is conducted as an oral interview/role play with two students at a time. The test measures primarily cognitive-academic language skills (the ability to discuss subject matter eg, science) as well as social language (eg, family recreational activities). The rater evaluates each student's proficiency in terms of comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, and grammar using a simplified nine point holistic scale (Rhodes, 1998, p. 128). Parallel versions of COPE in other languages include Arabic, Chinese, German, Japanese and Russian.

SOPA

SOPA, a lower-level version of COPE, consists of four parts: listening comprehension, informal questions, science and language usage and story telling. Similar to COPE, two students are assessed at a time by one or two testers using a six point rating scale (Rhodes, 1998, p. 128).

All SOPA and COPE tasks are designed carefully to elicit specific grammatical forms that have been identified and stated in the rubric used to identify proficiency levels. SOPA and COPE take approximately 20–30 minutes per pair of students depending on how much language is produced. Students must be paired very carefully for both SOPA and COPE, taking into account grade level, perceived level of oral proficiency and personality considerations such as social compatibility (Thompson, Boyson, & Rhodes, 2006). Interviewers must ensure that both students in each pair produce enough language to constitute a sample that is assessable. Generally two interviewers are present: one who films and records while the other conducts the assessments.

ELLOPA

ELLOPA is an adaptation of SOPA and COPE for very young learners, the main difference being the use of additional visuals such as puppets.

SOLOM

The Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM) is a rating scale to assess English. SOLOM was originally developed by the San Jose Area Bilingual Consortium and has since undergone revisions by the Bilingual Education Office of the California Department of Education. Although similar to the ELLOPA, SOPA and COPE assessments, it differs in that is not a test, as in a set of structured tasks given in a standard way. Unlike the structured interviews of ELLOPA, SOPA and COPE, teachers can use the rating scale to assess their students' emerging academic English for oral language in K-12 settings based on what they (the teachers) observe on a continual basis in a variety of situations such as the class or playground. Like the other forms of assessment discussed above, the teachers judge a student's language performance on comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, grammar and pronunciation on a five-point scale.

Assessing young language learners

Assessment has the power to change people's lives (Shohamy, 2001), therefore assessments, as far as possible should provide, reliable, valid and fair information on the student's abilities and progress (Cameron, 2001, p. 21). Cameron discusses social realities, in the form of political, commercial, and cultural dynamics that underlie several conflicts around the role of assessment in language teaching and learning, particularly when assessing children. She states:

> It would seem reasonable to require assessment to serve teaching, by providing feedback on pupils' learning that would make the next teaching event more effective, in a positive, upwards direction. Teaching and learning needs should dictate the form and timing of assessment. In practice, the scenario is quite different: assessment seems to *drive* (emphasis in the original) teaching by forcing teachers to teach what is going to be assessed. And this happens around the world, with young learners as well as older students. " (2001, pp. 215–216)

Cameron presents three examples to demonstrate the power of assessment over teaching and over learning. In the first instance reference is made to how England, after decades without any national testing at primary level, introduced national curriculum assessment at age 7, 11, and 14. Initially, the assessment tasks were designed to involve the child in familiar tasks and enable the teacher to assess each child. However, these soon became paper and pencil tests, and parents and teachers, she claims, are asking for a review of the assessment process. In the second instance the communicative English language syllabus became a formal, grammar-based syllabus and parents and headteachers demanded that children from the age of seven be tested every month, every term and every year. The test practices and syllabus from then on determined what a child would learn and experience, with little or no attention to their individual needs. In the third instance, Cameron relates the development of a new test for young learners by the University of Cambridge Learning Examination Syndicate (UCLES) which has "taken off rapidly" through private language schools. UCLES produces lists of words and topics that are to be tested which in effect become defacto syllabi. "Inevitably and inexorably, the test, however well intentioned and planned, concretises language teaching by diminishing the opportunity for creativity in the classroom" (p. 216).

Cameron's observations are a reminder that 'washback' can have negative effects that can impact on the learner by placing stress on the students and teachers, downplaying children's learning needs for the syllabus and limiting educational change. Neither is all 'washback' negative. Negative washback, according to Alderson and Wall, refers to the "negative or undesirable effect on teaching and learning of a particular test" (J. C. Alderson & Wall, 1993, p. 5). Some researchers, however, believe that positive washback refers to "beneficial change in language teaching by changing tests and examinations … teachers and learners have a positive attitude towards the test and work willingly towards its objectives" (Cheng, 2005, p. 30). Cheng cautions that whether positive or negative, washback depends on "how it works within the educational context it is situated in" (p. 31).

Assessment also has the power to change practice positively and may increase attention to neglected aspects of learning, as found by a Cherokee Nation preschool immersion programme. The immersion programme used the Cherokee Preschool Immersion Language Assessment (C-Pila), a language proficiency test developed uniquely by the Cherokee National Resource Center in 2004, as a pedagogical tool rather than as a determination of programme success or failure. When combined with the more informal and ongoing documentation of children's language use, they found that the C-PILA has the "potential to positively impact the practice of preschool teachers and ultimately the ability of the immersion preschool to produce new speakers of Cherokee" (Peter & Hirata-Edds, 2006, p. 645). This view is consistent with the New Zealand Ministry of Education Position Paper — Assessment:

> In New Zealand there is a deliberate focus on the use of professional teacher judgment underpinned by assessment-for-learning principles rather than a narrow testing regime … Teachers make these standards-referenced judgments across a range of evidence drawn from multiple sources guided by examples such as annotated exemplars that illustrate, in a concrete way what achievement looks like. (Ministry of Education, 2010a)

Young Language Learners

Variables which need to be taken into consideration involving young language learners include age, language background and contexts of learning. Literature (English and New Zealand) refers to Young Language learners (YLLs) as those children in their first seven to eight years of primary schooling. North American usage refers to learners in elementary education — age ranges from five to 13 — who for various reasons are learning in a language/s which may not include their first language (L1) (Bialystok, 2001). Cameron, although speaking of the nature of children's foreign language learning, suggests that other factors such as the age of children is an important consideration and assessment design and implementation should take into account their motor, linguistic, social and conceptual development.

English Second Language Learners

Young English Second Language Learners (YESLLs) are usually those learners engaged in learning English as a second language (ESL) as well as learning through the English language. These learners may be from immigrant families, or members of minority groups in a context where the majority of their peers are monolingual English speakers. Moreover, the "language they are learning is usually the main language of communication in the classroom, school and community" (McKay, 2006, p. 2). This, however, differs from the context for young Māori Immersion learners where the language of the community is more likely to be English.

Research approaches with respect to ESL emphasises the formal recognition of language proficiency. Gottlieb (2006, p. 370) also advocates the formal recognition of ESL learners as a unique student population whose second language development should be described through a series of language proficiency levels.

English Foreign Language Learners

English Foreign Language (EFL) programmes, indeed Foreign Language (FL) programmes vary in type. Some of these programmes are language awareness programmes or introductory programmes designed to raise learners' interest in another language. The young Foreign Language Learner (FLL) may attend scheduled classes that range from two hours per week to 20 hours per week and study English much like a curriculum subject. Such language classes may be regarded as partial immersion programmes where "… children may study their curriculum subjects through the target language for part of a day or week, and in total immersion programmes where they learn through the target language every day of the week and every week of the year" (McKay, 2006, p. 3). Total immersion programmes are sometimes referred to as bilingual programmes. In most cases FL programmes occur in countries where English is neither the majority language nor the language of communication. This is not, however, always the case. In Dutch primary schools, for example, "English is a compulsory subject, firstly because of its major importance to the Dutch and secondly, English is the only FL taught to all first year pupils in secondary schools" (Edelenvos & Vinje, 2000, pp. 144–145).

Heritage Language Learners

It is necessary to distinguish between Heritage Language Learners (HLLs) and FLLs. Heritage Language Learners (HLLs) have been defined by Kondo-Brown & Brown (2008, p.3) as "learners who have acquired their linguistic competence in a non-dominant language primarily through contact at home with foreign born parents and/or other family members." Zhang & Davis add that "… HLLs are associated with an endangered indigenous or immigrant language" (2008, p. 299).

Difficulties in proficiency assessment of HLLs as a result of non-homogeneity and the varying characteristics of the target HLL is signalled by Hasegawa (2008). A language study carried out at UCLA questions current methods of assessing language performance and making inferences about linguistic knowledge using for example, the ACTFL proficiency levels and the National Standards for HLLs (UCLA, 2000).

Indigenous/Native Language Learners

Research suggests that Indigenous/Native Language Learners (I/NLLs), sometimes associated with immigrant language learning, rightfully deserve to be dealt with independently (Kondo-Brown & Brown, 2008). Indigenous languages are native to a region and spoken by indigenous people/s who may have been settled in an area for many generations. Indigenous languages may not be national languages. They may have fallen out of use caused by colonisation and resulting in language death or linguicide. The resultant effect is the replacement of that indigenous language by the language of the colonist. This review uses the terms *indigenous* and *native* interchangeably to refer to indigenous languages considered endangered and as is evident above, this reference will apply to Young Indigenous/Native Language Learners (YINLLs). These (YINLLs) are involved in learning their native language, or the native language of their country in programmes which are partial immersion or total immersion, such as the students in the K1–12 Hawaiian total immersion school at Nāwahīokalani'ōpu'u Laboratory School (Wilson & Kamanā, 2001).

Māori Medium Young Language Learners

Children attend primary school in New Zealand from the age of five and usually finish their primary education at the age of 12–13 years. Up to 16% of Māori students undertake their learning in some form of Māori medium learning. However, of this number, only seven percent learn in the medium of Māori for 80% or more of their time at school.

A survey by Te Puni Kōkiri in 2001 found that of all Māori speakers, only 16% used Māori for half or more of the time with primary school children in the home (Te Puni Kokiri Ministry of Maori Development, 2002, p. 16). For most of these children, English is the main language of communication in the classroom, school and community, and therefore most Māori children could not be considered English second language learners, including those who attend Māori medium schools, because for most of them English would be the first language in the home.

Theoretically it is possible to argue, given the descriptions discussed earlier regarding English as a foreign language, that 23.9% (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 43) of the total immersion MMYLLs could be said to qualify as EFL learners, on one hand, since most Māori medium schools concede a few hours a week for their children to learn English.

On the other hand, English is the majority language in New Zealand, and therefore they do not meet that part of the English Second Language definition. MMYLLs could possibly be considered Heritage Language Learners. However, they do not acquire their cultural and linguistic competence through contact at home with foreign-born parents or other foreign-born family members.

So where does this leave the indigenous young language learner worldwide, and more specifically, the MMYLL? Is it possible, given the descriptions above, that 16% of students in Māori medium contexts are native speakers of their indigenous language? Skutnabb-Kangas cautions against a strict adherence to purely linguistic performance-based definitions over identity definitions and in due respect to mother tongue says:

> It is possible to claim a mother tongue by identification, even if one knows very little, or sometimes, next to nothing of the language, and even when native speakers do not identify one as a native speaker, or even when there are no native speakers. Mother tongue definitions have to be rethought so as to allow for situations where parents and children may not have the same mother tongue, especially by origin; for situations where the mother tongue by origin may not be learned in infancy and may not be taught by the primary care-takers; for situations where lost languages are being reclaimed as mother tongues by identification; and for fluid multilingual situations where multilingualism is the mother tongue, rather than one or two discrete languages (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, p. 110).

The discussion above has shown that MMYLLs possibly share some of the characteristics of the theoretical models of language proficiency and communicative competence for ESL, EFL, HLL,YLLs and NLLs. Programmes where Māori is the, or one of the, languages of instruction, according to Rau (2001, p. 2) cater for the following language groups:

1. Children for whom Māori is the primary language of communication.

2. Children who have mixed competencies in more than two languages.

3. Children who have dual capacity in both English and Māori (infant bilinguals).

4. Children for whom English is their first language but also have some competency in the Māori language (elective bilinguals).

5. Children for whom English is their first and only language and who will begin their Māori language learning at school.

It is true to say, however, that despite the diversity of the background of MMYLLs and different starting points of Māori language, they do identify as Māori by *Whakapapa* (genealogy). He or she is a *mokopuna* (grandchild) of their *tīpuna* (ancestors); a blueprint of their forebears. The *mokopuna* belongs to a *whānau* (family), a *hapū* (subtribe), and an *iwi* (tribe). The mokopuna can trace their lineage back to "*Hawaiki nui, Hawaiki roa, Hawaiki pāmamao*" (Buck, 1987, p. 37). The mokopuna have their own unique language, Māori. However, as a result of colonisation and assimilation, the students may not have proficiency in the language that is the hallmark and vehicle of their distinctive culture, even though it is the language of the *tangata whenua* of Aotearoa (the indigenous people of Aotearoa), and an official language of New Zealand since 1987[3] (The Maori Language Act, 1987).

Thus, for Māori, although many issues impact on MMYLLs in Māori medium contexts, such as historical events, language background, the years of attendance at Kōhanga Reo, the quality of teaching in *kura*, the influence of English as the dominant language in Māori and mainstream contexts, in the community and in the home, te reo Māori (the Māori language) is defining and is at the heart of the matter.

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3   The Maori Language Act, 1987.

Assessment of Young Māori Language Learners in Māori medium schools

Each and every MMYLL is a *mokopuna* (a blueprint of their tīpuna (ancestors)). These students and their unique characteristics help teachers, educators, policymakers, stakeholders, whānau and iwi understand how language, culture and experiences shape their identities. The survival, maintenance and revitalisation of te reo Māori and their unique identities are in their hands. It is critical that their Māori language proficiency is understood, progressed and valued. It is important that assessment tools are developed with them specifically in mind. Robinson, Hohepa and Lloyd (Robinson, Hohepa, & Lloyd, 2009) point out that:

> Identifying and obtaining assessment resources that are pedagogically and philosophically aligned to valued goals is a particular challenge for leadership in Māori medium schools. For example, there are relatively few standardised assessment procedures available in te reo Māori and limited access to professional learning opportunities focused on Māori medium assessment (p. 41).

They go on to say:

> A tool that is smart for the teaching of one group of students may not turn out to be smart when used with another group. For example, a theory of language progression that is valid for teaching reading in English-medium classrooms may not be valid for Māori medium classrooms. Smart tools for Māori medium classes will recognise that teaching and learning is taking place in the context of language regeneration: students (and teachers too) bring with them very different levels of skill in te reo Māori and very different learning experiences.

Arguments for pathways that would go a long way towards ensuring success for students in Māori medium settings are not new and have been articulated clearly elsewhere. He Ara Angitu A Pathway for Success, for example, devised the following criteria as an assessment framework for literacy. That framework stated:

1. Should be consistent with the New Zealand Curriculum Framework

2. Must be derived from a Māori worldview

3. Should inform and be informed by Māori pedagogy which is dynamic, still evolving, developmental in nature and multidimensional

4. Should illuminate Māori achievement and aspirations

5. Should be able to be used with reliability and confidence by the variety of options represented by the term Māori medium

6. Should be responsive to children from the five differing language backgrounds[4]

7. Should yield useful information for schools and establish a platform for evaluating the effectiveness of programmes

8. Should use assessment procedures validated for Māori medium and which are preferably (or likely) to be used by classroom teachers as part of their regular classroom assessment regime.

9. Should not be prescriptive but treated as the start of the development of a range of appropriate responses.(Rau, 2001, p. 4)

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4   Cited earlier under MMYLLs

The last decade and a half has seen the implementation of various assessment tools in New Zealand primary schools, particularly in English-medium settings. In the Māori medium primary contexts, available assessments are usually adaptations of various national assessments that have been translated, interpreted or created for Māori medium from English-medium contexts. These tools, however, pay little attention to the contexts and conditions of the MMYLL listed above.

Aromatawai Urunga-a-Kura/School Entry Assessment

MMYLLs may have been assessed for their readiness for entry into school at the age of five by the school-based assessment tool Aromatawai Urunga-ā-Kura (AKA), the Māori medium equivalent of the English School Entry Assessment (Ministry of Education, 1997) used in English-medium schools. The Ministry's purpose was to create national baseline data to inform policy development and resource allocation. This kit comprises tasks designed to provide teachers with information on the performance of new entrant Māori learners in basic literacy, numeracy and oral language. The three intended uses of school entry assessment included:

(i) the provision of valuable diagnostic information about individual children to complement existing assessment information

(ii) the provision of information for school management, about new entrant cohorts for planning and resource allocation

(iii) the informing of policy development and monitoring, and resource allocation.

SEA/AKA includes *Kī Mai,* an oral assessment using a story retelling procedure, which Rau suggests, "… only measures gross changes in oracy development and perhaps its most effective use is for determining children's readiness at entry to school to engage in literacy activities" (2001, p. 7).

The students may also be assessed for their emergent reading skills at the age of six by the tool He Mātai Āta Titiro ki te Tūtukitanga Mātātupu Pānui, Tuhi (Rau, 1998), also known as the Māori reconstruction of An Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 1993).

National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP)

The stated purpose of NEMP was the provision for teachers, principals and the public of 'a snapshot of achievement by identifying national trends in education within New Zealand.' It aims to demonstrate what students know and can do in years 4 and 8. The Green Paper (1998) proposed modifications to NEMP for the investigation of the achievement of 'special groups' (including Māori) to enable the government to develop policy and to monitor the achievement of these groups. The parallel development of assessment tools for Māori medium education in the area of literacy and numeracy was part of policy decisions in 1999. NEMP then undertook the first assessment in *te reo Māori* (literacy and numeracy) in Māori medium contexts in 2000. The random sample of students (2.5% of students in those years) included 120 from Māori immersion schools. NEMP carried out four yearly Māori medium assessments in parallel with the English-medium assessment cycle that focuses on curriculum subjects (Crooks & Flockton, 2001). These four-yearly assessments have been carried out in parallel with the English-medium assessment cycle and have focused on the same curriculum subjects. From 2000, only students with five or more years in kaupapa Māori (Māori medium) schooling were included in the NEMP assessments, recognising that students need time to gain academic proficiency in te reo Māori (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 78).

However, the participation of Māori medium students in the NEMP assessments was discontinued from 2006. The Māori medium sector questioned the value of the project and there were concerns regarding students academic proficiency in te reo Māori. The emergent concern about Māori language proficiency constituted a significant statement by the Māori medium sector. Until recently, Māori language proficiency has been focused on *acquisition*, with the expectation that the language acquired by the students would ensure successful engagement in their learning.

Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning (asTTle)

The Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning (He Pūnaha Aromatawai mo te Whakaako mo te Ako) is an assessment tool linked to curricula in both Māori and English settings (Murphy & Gray, 2003; Murphy & Keegan, 2002). This educational resource consists of assessment activities designed primarily for the formative assessment of literacy and numeracy. The first trial in Māori immersion contexts was undertaken in 2001–2002. This provided information for teachers, parents and students about the levels of achievement in pānui, tuhituhi and pāngarau relative to curriculum outcomes (levels 2 and 4) and national norms of student performance.

Hopukina (Kia Atamai Trust)

An unpublished oral proficiency tool created by teacher participants of Ngā Taumatua[5] in 2004. The tool supports and aligns with Ngā Kete Kōrero.

Kaiaka Reo year five and year eight

In 1999 the Ministry of Education commissioned the University of Waikato to create year five Māori Language Tests (Crombie, Houia, & Reedy, 2000). This project was the precursor of *Kaiaka Reo* proficiency tests. Kaiaka Reo year five and year eight established proficiency tests in listening, speaking, reading and writing by Māori, for Māori, in *te reo Māori*. The test in writing has been validated as a reliable and valid tool to determine the Māori language proficiency (in writing) of year eight students in Māori medium primary school settings in New Zealand (Edmonds, 2008).

Except for Kaiaka Reo, there is little evidence of proficiency instruments developed specifically for an indigenous language such as Māori. However, this research study is part of a larger project that has developed a five-point proficiency scale for year one to year eight students, that has been established as reliable and valid. The authors are also aware that Hawaiian educators from the University of Hawai'i at Hilo have also recently developed some proficiency tools to assess the oral language of their students in Hawaiian immersion settings.

The tools developed prior to Kaiaka Reo are neither reliable nor valid for assessing Māori language proficiency, despite any reliability in assessing their intended areas such as reading or early development skills. AKA, asTTle and NEMP were not developed to specifically measure Māori language proficiency.

Thus, in order to make progress we need to be clear about what constitutes Māori language proficiency and what the proficiency levels of our learners are. To rely on academic tests of curriculum achievement as valid and reliable measures is inadequate.

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5   Ngā Taumatua: a professional development programme offered to teachers in Māori medium by Kia Atamai.

Standards

McKay (2006) describes standards as descriptions of curriculum outcomes, usually described in stages of progress. These, she states, may be content standards that describe what students should know and be able to do or performance standards that describe how much or at what level students need to perform to demonstrate achievement of the content standard. She adds that many standards combine both purposes. "Achievement of standards is often measured through external tests, though data is sometimes also collected on achievement through teachers' reports based on classroom assessment" McKay, 2006, p. 21).

Tests create tension, especially when educators and government officials alike demand assessments that serve two incompatible purposes:

   a.   determining whether students are achieving or striving toward desired standards of a performance; and

   b.   providing relative measurements of students, schools, districts, and states on scales of achievement (Taylor, 1994).

The tension, Taylor claims, is not a new one. The existing assessments for these two purposes she roughly categorises as criterion-referenced tests (assessment for standards) and norm-referenced tests (assessment for relative measurement). The call for performance assessments is in part a consequence of inappropriate uses of norm-referenced achievement tests. Taylor cautions that the use of performance assessments will not automatically eliminate the negative consequences of large-scale, high-stakes tests, nor will changes in response mode or testing format necessarily support hoped-for changes in the schools. School reform efforts, she argues, will be supported only if the new assessment systems are developed using an assessment model that is in harmony with the goals or reform.

Taylor uses the term *measurement model* to refer to the assessment model that has been the foundation of norm-reference test development for the past 60 years. The model assumes that the function of tests is to assess general knowledge across some broadly defined area of achievement, to rank students based on their performance on the tests, and to compare students, schools, and districts on numeric scales of achievement.

Taylor, uses the term *standards model* to refer to what has been the conceptual foundation for criterion-referenced testing. The model assumes that the tests used assess how students perform in relation to absolute standards and that educators can define standards of performance and establish these standards as learning targets. She argues that performance assessments can be developed to serve both a measurement model and a standards model. However, she argues there is an inherent danger in mixing the models and applying the assumptions and technology of the measurement model to the assessment of progress toward standards. It is Taylor's view that we must choose the model that will fit the intended assessment purposes rather than hope that one assessment can actually serve a range of incompatible purposes.

Setting standards

Standards should emphasise what students can do (student performance) rather what students know (defined domain of content). The challenge, once the desired outcomes of education are articulated, is that educators not only must define the domain of content for a discipline, but must also identify and define the complex performances and processes that are authentic to that discipline (Wiggins, 1989). Stiggins (1988) argues that clear criteria for student performances can be established. These are specific requirements of performance, including knowledge, concepts, skills and processes that must be exemplified in a performance or collection of performances . Examples of student work (exemplars) that

represent the standard and criteria are then obtained to make these statements of expectations concrete and tangible. These desired standards, criteria, and exemplars then become part of the public domain. Taylor (1994) adds that "before standards can be set, educators and educational stakeholders must articulate their values and expectations in words and examples that can be understood by students as well as teachers. The relevant parties must work together to identify important and tangible outcomes of education".

Professional judgement

The standards model requires the use of professional judges of student performances — educators knowledgeable in the subject matter are trained to internalise the standards and to be familiar with the performance criteria. Judges of student performances must be knowledgeable of the structure and content of the discipline for a given performance. "It is impossible, for example, for a teacher to assess a student's level of writing proficiency if that teacher does not clearly understand the attributes of good writing" (Stiggins, 1992, p. 36).

The next step in the development of standards is to establish "benchmarks" or descriptions of the types of student performances at different developmental levels that are central to each discipline and that reflect the desired outcomes. Along with the benchmark performances, educators define performance criteria (the important features, knowledge, skills, and thinking processes) for performances at each developmental level. Identifying performance criteria is one of the most difficult of tasks in the process of establishing standards for two basic reasons: a) educators may disagree on the criteria for excellent work, or b) they might disagree about what is possible at a given developmental level. Some educators, for example, may believe that the most important performance criteria in writing are those related to rhetorical style and organisation, while others may insist that language conventions (grammar, punctuation, capitalisation or spelling) and use of language, for example, varied sentence structures or a broad vocabulary must carry equal weight.

Once criteria are determined for each developmental level the standards are then established by supplementing the performance criteria with examples of student work that reflect the criteria and represent the desired quality of work for each developmental level. Standards are not based on average performance. Instead, standards represent expectations for performance of quality. The process of setting standards takes time and requires explicit discussions about general expectations of students. It is the first stage of standardisation.

Criterion-referenced assessments in national curricula show that there are advantages to adopting an approach that references assessment outcomes to an underlying construct, not only in clarifying how those outcomes should be interpreted but also in terms of manageability. Sizmur and Sainsbury (1997) discuss this approach against the introduction of level descriptions for National Curriculum assessment such as that adopted by England and Wales. They explore what inferences criterion-referenced assessment permit and their attempts to alleviate concerns of manageability and utility by adopting level descriptions that has theoretical and practical implications.

> Level descriptions indicate the types and range of performance which children working at a particular level should characteristically demonstrate. Teachers should use their knowledge of a child's work to judge which level description best fits that child's performance across a range of contexts, [whereby] the level description acts as a paradigm rather than a definition. The appropriate application of level descriptions as a means of indexing the continuum of achievement set out for the National Curriculum is therefore conditional upon teachers' grasp of the underlying construct in all its complexity.

Taylor (1994), however, suggests a different set of assumptions for the standards model, that is:

1. We can set public educational standards and strive toward them

2. Most students can internalise and achieve the standards

3. Very different student performance and exhibitions can and will reflect the same standards

4. Educators can be trained to internalise the standards and be fair and consistent judges of diverse student performances.

5. To be good judges of student performances teachers require:
    a. subject-matter knowledge;
    b. an understanding of the processes that are central to different disciplines; and
    c. pedagogical strategies that help students approach each discipline in appropriate ways.

(Taylor, 1994, p. 243)

Language proficiency and standards

Language proficiency represents language in social and academic settings, whereas academic achievement is tied to knowledge and skills of learning of content areas. Language proficiency pinpoints where the learner is placed on a language acquisition continuum; whereas academic achievement reflects their conceptual development (Gottlieb, 2006). In the United States:

> Standards have played a prominent role in federal legislation … State academic content standards were introduced in the Improving America's School Act of 1994, and English language proficiency standards were mandated under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 … English language learners have emerged as an important student group and their unique linguistic and cultural characteristics have been acknowledged … Since 2003 all states have been required to develop and use English language proficiency standards grounded in their academic content standards (2006, pp. 29–31).

In the United States the No Child Left Behind Act required all states to assess English language development of English Language Learners (ELLs). Existing English language development assessments did not capture what was considered the necessary pre-requisite language proficiency for English-medium classroom participation and for taking content-area assessments in English. Thus, experts of the National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards and Student Testing (CRESST) at UCLA decided that English language assessments were needed that went beyond the general, social language of existing English language development (ELD) tests. Such assessments would capture academic language proficiency (ALP) as well, and thereby cover the full spectrum of English language ability needed in a school setting. Their purpose was to provide an approach for the development of an evidential framework for operationalising ALP for broad K-12 applications in the three key areas of assessment, instruction and teacher professional development (Bailey & Butler, 2003). The framework was to include the integration of analyses form a variety of sources such as national content standards, state content standards and English as a second language standards. The goals were:

1. The identification of an empirically based ELL assessment validity threshold for defining the academic language proficiency of ELLs.

2. The establishment of a much-needed set of principled procedures for implementing accommodation[6] as an outgrowth of an established validity threshold for academic language proficiency. (2003, p. 38)

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6   A strategy established for English Language Learners (ELLs) that involved changes in the test process, the test itself or test format, the goal of which was to provide ELLs with an opportunity to demonstrate what they can do without unfair advantage over students who do not receive accommodation (Abedi, Hofstetter, & Lord, 2004   )

These efforts were intended to specify academic language proficiency characteristics aligned with the type of language on content assessments and standards documents.

In English-medium contexts, the impact of language demands in academic settings was present in studies of differential student performance, where native speaking or English only (EO) students tended as a group to outperform ELLs (Abedi, Hofstetter, & Baker, 2000; Abedi & Lord, 2001; August & Hakuta, 1997; Butler & Castellon-Wellington, 2000; MacSwan & Rolstad, 2003). Bailey and Butler (2003) argue that the strength of the evidence-based approach to ALP was that it would provide a mechanism for capturing the linguistic features of language — vocabulary, syntax, discourse and the features of language use across content areas — and also the linguistic demands created and/or assumed by a broad array of stakeholders.

A growing concern at the literacy abilities of youth in the United States also lead to the development of state standards to promote reading acquisition. The US - National Goals Panel concluded that:

> …to meaningfully measure progress on the goals, consideration should be given to creating national education standards that define what students should know and be able to do. NCEST recommended national content standards and a national system of assessments based on new standards. Emphasis on performance standards aimed at defining levels of competence in relation to content standards criteria by six groups for judging standards. Only the early English arts content includes phonemic awareness … mainly reading.
>
> (Wixson & Dutro, 1999, p. 91)

The English Language Development Standards for California Public Schools summarised listening and speaking under the English-language arts strand as follows:

- Comprehension, eg, Begin to speak with a few words or sentences by using a few standard English grammatical forms and sounds (eg, single words or phrases). Organisation and delivery of oral communication - Begin to be understood when speaking, by usage of standard English grammatical forms and sounds (eg, plurals, simple past tense). Make oneself understood when speaking by using consistent standard English grammatical forms and sounds, however, some rules are not followed (eg, third-person singular, male and female pronouns.

- Strategies and Applications K-12. Comprehension, Comprehension and organisation and delivery of oral communication - includes grammatical forms, eg, past tense, pronouns, plurals, grammatical forms, sounds, intonation, pitch, modulation, random errors.

    (California Department of Education, 2002, p. 2)

Alignment of National Standards and Te Marautanga o Aotearoa

Curriculum reforms in New Zealand have always been influenced by international standards. But they have generally avoided policies and practices that are problematic and not necessarily conducive to quality teaching and learning, such as Key Stage Assessment in England and No Child Left Behind (Absolum, et al., 2009). In providing policy direction for New Zealand, Absolum et al. argue that each school would be able to conduct assessments that best serve student learning rather than follow a prescriptive national approach. At the same time, schools should be obliged to demonstrate that "the approaches … *do* adhere to nationally agreed standards of quality assessment". All young people should, according to the Ministry of Education, be educated in ways that develop their capacity to assess their own learning and that this would require assessment capable teachers, school leaders, and Ministry personnel. Because the overriding concern of the vision was the learning needs of *all* students, the authors of the report (Absolum et al) felt that one of the new imperatives, *"Attending to the needs of all our students"* was consistent with the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi and it was anticipated "that the developers of *Te Marautanga o Aotearoa* would develop their own strategic directions for assessment".

The policy direction suggests that the national curriculum be augmented by learning progressions for literacy and numeracy and that these should stand alone with their own status. The progressions refer to "rich descriptions of progress over time and clearly defined indicators of achievement relative to different stages of learning (levels)". It is surmised that the levels are the standards based on multiple sources of evidence. It is asserted that each school is obliged to demonstrate their approach to enhancing student assessment capabilities and adhere to nationally agreed standards of quality assessment. Once school learning goals are clarified, teachers will select the available assessment approaches and tools that will best help them and their students judge how well the goals have been met and determine future directions in learning. Parents, also, will be expected to know the levels of their children and their progress in comparison with the standard.

Māori medium standards are not evident in the policy document *Directions for Assessment* apart from the minimal reference to the Treaty of Waitangi, and the anticipation that "developers of *Te Marautanga o Aotearoa* will consider the implications of our work for Māori medium education but that they will develop their own strategic directions for assessment (Absolum, et al., 2009, p. 7).. Māori in English-medium receive recognition as follows:

> … mainstream classes [need to be] places where power is shared between self-determining individuals within non-dominating relations of interdependence; where culture counts; where learning and assessment is interactive, dialogic, and spirals; where participants are connected and committed to one another and where there is a common vision of excellence (Mahuika and Bishop in Absolum, et al., 2009, p. 22)

National Standards came into effect for learners for years 1–8 in English-medium schools in 2010, and 2011 for Māori medium. The standards are intended to provide benchmarks which are nationally consistent that will guide teachers in making judgements about their students' progress and achievement in literacy and numeracy (Ministry of Education, 2009). Teachers in Māori medium will begin assessing children against the standards set in Whanaketanga Reo Kōrero, Pānui, Tuhituhi: He Aratohu mā te Pouako, the final version of the Draft — Whanaketanga Reo Kōrero, Pānui, Tuhituhi: He Aratohu mā te pouako.

Conclusion

Fairness to the MMYLL in the context of kaupapa Māori and assessment established the focus of the literature review. The demise and renaissance of the Māori language was featured as a starting point that led to the institutionalisation of the Māori language. Much attention was given to language proficiency, and in particular, the rigour that should be applied in the development of assessment resources. Constructs of oral language proficiency and the characteristics of the MMYLL and their contexts of learning are investigated along with forms of assessment that might be helpful in the development of oral language proficiency assessment. The trend of adapting assessments from the English-medium sector to gauge learning in the medium of Māori, without consideration of reliable and valid constructs of Māori language proficiency, was noted.

The void ("te kore") and absence of a knowledge base of research in Māori medium education assessment highlights how policymakers and educators rely heavily on external sources to validate learning in the medium of Māori. However, policy and practice should, in the first instance, draw upon research from the context that is being investigated.

Methodology

Methodology Part One

Part one of the methodology illustrates the philosophical underpinnings of the project through its maintenance of kaupapa Māori. Research ethics is maintained through a kaupapa Māori lens. Kaupapa Māori continues through the tactical choices of members to the Advisory Committee, where the selection of team members with a fluency in te reo Māori and commitment to Māori medium education.

Kaupapa Māori

Kaupapa Māori (Māori philosophical principles and philosophy) was central to the research, especially in this situation where all the team members did not belong to one specific organisation. Although the team shared common goals and beliefs for the research, and brought together a range of knowledge and skills such as competence in te reo Māori, research skills, primary and tertiary educator backgrounds, te reo Māori linguistic analytical skills, strong Māori medium and iwi relationships, statistical analysis and knowledge of language proficiency, they all presupposed that the validity and legitimacy of Māori is a given fact, and that the survival and retention of Māori language and culture is imperative. Moreover, each placed a high value on learning in the medium of Māori for MMYLLs and Māori enjoying success in te reo Māori as Māori. The project situates itself within that kaupapa Māori framework and an assessment framework where fairness is integral to the development of Māori oral language proficiency progressions.

Research ethics

Kaupapa Māori in academic scholarship goes beyond the standard ethical procedures of research. First and foremost kaupapa Māori recognises and maintains the tino rangatiratanga (sovereignty) and mana (integrity) of the Māori people, their culture and language. The ethics are underpinned by contemporary understandings of New Zealand society, particularly the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi and especially the active protection of te reo Māori and tikanga Māori, tino rangatiratanga and the duty to consult with tangata whenua on all research programmes that concern them. This code of ethics reflects the ethical principles of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education, and current thinking around what constitutes ethical practice in the education sector.

Advisory group

Consistent with kaupapa Māori and the ethics statement above special consideration was given to working with tangata whenua and tamariki Māori in the education context. The Advisory Group was selected on the basis of their: passion for the revival and maintenance of te reo Māori; ability to initiate and promote the goals of the project nationally and internationally; native/first language speaker competence in te reo Māori; knowledge and experience in Māori linguistics, Māori medium teacher education, Māori medium education (Te Kōhanga Reo, Te Kura Kaupapa Māori, Wharekura, Kura-ā-Iwi, Māori medium schools, Education Review Office), Māori medium education research, and their whānau, hapū and iwi roles.

Methodology Part Two

In this section the many deliberations to define proficiency are investigated. A considered amount of attention is paid to the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 research project with respect to the development of the constructs of oral language proficiency and a scale for measuring oral language proficiency. The NEMP 2005 videotapes and the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 sound files are analysed with a view to identifying the elements of oral language proficiency from authentic Māori oral language samples. The scale that results is applied to the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 data by Māori medium raters, and Rasch analysis is conducted to determine the reliability and validity of the Draft Rating Scale.

There is much debate on what constitutes proficiency. The experts differ, agree and agree to differ, however, similar themes emerge. There is general agreement also that proficiency comprises several distinct but related constructs in addition to a single construct of language proficiency (J. W. Oller, 1993). For this project it was decided that the learner would be required to: demonstrate not only knowledge of language but skill in the use of that knowledge in settings which to some degree would be communicative (Davies, 1977); demonstrate communicative competence by applying knowledge about language by actually using the language in a communicative situation (Savignon, 1983); and as proposed by Hargett (1998) demonstrate knowledge of the elements of language such as its grammatical system, vocabulary and sounds (see also Bachman, 2003; Canale & Swain, 1980; Carroll, 1961; Davies, 1968; Hymes, 1972; J. W. Oller, 1979; Rivera, 1984; Spolsky, 1968; Upshur, 1979).

Bachman's (2003) model of knowledge refers to 'language competence', as: (a) organisational competence and (b) pragmatic competence. Organisational competence he further subdivides into (i) grammatical competence (vocabulary; morphology; syntax; phonology and graphology) and (ii) textual competence (knowing how to put utterances-written or spoken to form texts). Pragmatic competence on the other hand, refers to: (a) illocutionary competence which includes ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative language functions or speech acts such as putting words together in a grammatically correct way in order to perform a certain action such as requesting; (b) sociolinguistic competence which includes sensitivity to dialects or variety; to differences in register; to naturalness; to cultural references and figures of speech and the ability to produce utterances based on these socio-cultural factors (Ohara, 2004).

The development of the analytical rating scale and the assessment task Kaiaka Reo 1999–2001

The research team thought that it was imperative that the construct of Māori oral language proficiency take cognisance of the definitions above from actual oral language derived from the oral language communicative performances of students in Māori medium education. The task also required consideration of the development of an analytical or holistic scale (see J. D. Brown, 2005; Gottlieb, 2006; McKay, 2006; Weigle, 2007) to measure Māori oral language proficiency performance. Three projects were investigated, namely, Kaiaka Reo 1999 (Crombie, et al., 2000); Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 and NEMP.

Kaiaka Reo 1999 and Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001

Kaiaka Reo 1999 and Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 evolved from policy by the Ministry of Māori Development and the Ministry of Education Māori language and Māori education strategic plan in the year 1999. The policy identified the need for assessment materials for the Māori language. Kaiaka Reo 1999, developed initial year five Māori Language Tests'(Crombie, et al., 2000). As part of that development the School of Māori and Pacific Development, of the University of Waikato, was contracted to further develop proficiency tests for year 5 and year 8 students in Māori medium settings. In that project (Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001), 65% of the Level 1 Māori medium schools (44) participated in the research that produced a battery of six proficiency tests for year five in listening speaking, reading and writing and a test set for year eight students in listening, speaking, reading and writing also. Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 was not progressed further by the Ministry of Education or the University of Waikato.

In her doctoral dissertation titled *The Reliability and Validity of the Māori Language Proficiency in Writing Test: Kaiaka Reo year eight,* Edmonds (2008), examined the writing performance of the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 year eight students. Edmonds (2008) created a rating scale for that purpose and conducted Rasch analysis on the writing of the 65% cohort from 2001. This work confirmed that both the Kaiaka Reo year eight 2000–2001 writing test and the 2008 Rating Scale for Writing are reliable and valid tools of assessment for year eight writing in Māori medium.

The Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 materials yielded a 15% representative sample of each of the year five and year eight cohorts for oral language analysis; and Edmonds's dissertation, a framework to establish a rating scale. Also considered in the process of development were the National Education Monitoring Project videotapes provided by the Ministry of Education and the ACTFL proficiency assessments for assessing young learners.

National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP)

These four-yearly assessments have been carried out in parallel with the English-medium assessment cycle and have focused on the same curriculum subjects. Over time, testing and translation have been refined to better suit kaupapa Māori (Māori medium) schools. For example, assessments are no longer direct translations of those used in the English-medium sector. From 2000, only students with five or more years in kaupapa Māori (Māori medium) schooling were included in the NEMP assessments, recognising that students need time to gain academic proficiency in te reo Māori (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 78).

New Zealand's National Education Monitoring Project assesses and reports on the achievement of New Zealand primary school children in all areas of the school curriculum. Children are assessed at two class levels: year four (halfway through primary education) and year eight (at the end of primary education). Different curriculum areas and skills are assessed each year, over a four year cycle. The national monitoring assessments in 1999 were the first assessments conducted at a national level in te reo Māori using tasks originally developed to be administered nationally in English. In 2005 Māori medium students showed general proficiency and competence in ordinary everyday conversation. There were two distinct groups with regard to academic proficiency. Some students were able to express their ideas, strategies, understandings and opinions clearly with recourse to a wide range of vocabulary. Other students however found it difficult to understand some of the source material and to provide anything more than superficial answers to questions due to their limitations with te reo Māori.

At the Ministry's request the research team examined the 2005 NEMP videotapes with a view to their potential to informing the current project. The research team selected and analysed a 10% random sample of the 132 tapes provided. Common errors and language patterns identified in the NEMP tapes were consistent with those found in the Kaiaka Reo samples. An issue was the content focus of the tasks, which were achievement tests based on curriculum. The research team felt that the assessments were tests of their knowledge of the tasks, which in turn determined the quality of the language produced. It is difficult to say if the language produced by the students was a reflection of their general Māori language proficiency or a lack of content words. The assessment of Māori medium students by NEMP was discontinued from 2006.

The method of assessment, tasks, materials and personnel for NEMP were quite enviable and similar to those used by ACTFL (see Literature Review), except that the ACTFL students participate in simulated interviews. ACTFL, has however, already established proficiency assessments underpinned by research, as to what constitutes proficiency for second and foreign language learners of the targeted languages. A decision was made to leave ACTFL because the assessment methodology of interviews was not practical in this research project.

The development of a proficiency scale

In the development of a proficiency scale the research team has been mindful that the participant or person being assessed should perform or be required to demonstrate both their knowledge of language but also their skill in the use of that knowledge communicatively. It would as stated earlier, "require the test taker to apply … knowledge about language by actually using the language in communicative situations" (Shohamy, 1983, p. 528).

The research team therefore reviewed and analysed representative samples of oral language from the year five and year eight cohort of Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001. The Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 language samples represented 15% of the year five cohort and 15% of the year eight cohort. Taking into account what emerged from the review of the literature, the analysis of the samples provided a working definition of Māori oral language proficiency and a process to develop a rating scale using an inductive approach. That is, the sample was first determined and then based on aural observations and analysis; the categories were created from actual authentic language produced by the sample cohort. Thirdly, a gradient of ratings was assigned that would indicate performance on each of the categories.

Kaiaka Reo year eight and year five sample for analysis

Firstly, the sample of students of each of the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 year five and year eight cohorts totalled 80. The scores of these 80 students represented the midpoint averages of the quartiles A, B, C and D ascertained in Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001. The sample of the 40 year five students comprised 17% of the cohort, and the sample of 40 year eight students comprised 25% of the their cohort, whose speaking performance was analysed in 2001.

Secondly, a random sample of 40 students from the total number of students of each of the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 year five and year eight cohorts was established then analysed. Table 4 summarises the sampling from the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 database.

Table 4:   Kaiaka Reo year five and year eight samples

Kaiaka Reo	Midpoint average quartiles		Random sample
Kaiaka Reo Year 5	A, B, C, D.	40	40
Kaiaka Reo Year 8	A, B, C, D.	40	40

The 160 samples described in Table 4 were first transcribed. The researchers listened and analysed the 160 audiotapes. The videotapes were two to five minutes long. The first analysis was aural with no visual support at all. The researchers were seeking to conduct performance based analyses of the language samples from a strictly authentic Māori oral language perspective, in the first instance. Mehemea he reka ki te taringa Māori? (Was it "sweet" to the Māori ear?):

- Did it sound right to the Māori ear?

- Did it make sense to the Māori ear?

- Was it Māori? (Did it convey a Māori world-view)

- Was it correct?

- Did they have the words to express themselves?

- What did they do to convey the message? (What strategies did they use?)

The second analysis of the performance-based samples were aural and assisted by the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 assessment tool (Figure 7) that elicited the language samples, plus the written transcriptions. This process enabled the identification of the elements to describe Māori oral language proficiency. In this project they are:

1. oral production (phonology, fluency, intonation, pitch, stress, pronunciation)

2. grammar

3. vocabulary

4. discourse

5. Māori discourse/Māori sociolinguistic competence

6. cognition/strategic competence.

The rating scale was developed in parallel with the oral language elements. Each audio-file was rated on a scale of 1–5, a progressive development from Edmonds' (2008) four step rating scale where the variation in category difficulty was minimal (within one logit). The five step scale determined was:

1. Very limited proficiency

2. Limited proficiency

3. Basic proficiency

4. Elementary/confident proficiency

5. Native-like proficiency.

Each language element or category combined with the ratings stated above has resulted in a Draft Rating Scale (Table 5), each with its own descriptors. Initially, the emerging rating scale had included specific examples of language; but as the descriptors developed the inclusion of examples became cumbersome and the scale became clumsy. It also became very clear, as the rating scale was trialled, that including the examples was not wise because it became very easy to assign a rating based on isolated grammar errors. Instead it was more important to assign a score based on a holistic or analytical rating scale that had a separate set of examples to support the rater.

Table 5:   Rating scale

	ORAL PRODUCTION (PK) FLUENCY/LANGUAGE FLOW INTONATION PHONOLOGY/PRONUNCIATION Learner's oral language:	GRAMMAR The learner:	VOCABULARY The learner:	DISCOURSE (Language discourse. How language is structured so that it is understood by the listener) The learner has:	SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE (Māori Discourse) There is/are:	COGNITION: Strategic Competence The learner:
1 Very Limited Proficiency	Is halting; fragmentary/ exhibits chunking; involves long pauses; is slow; contains much repetition words & learned, short, routine phrases. Is monotonic/ is low pitched; sounds as though reading/ is marked by pitch rises reflecting uncertainty. Is marked by incorrect pronunciation of vowels, consonants & vowel blends.	Uses simple sentences; makes numerous **major & minor** errors.	Has very limited vocabulary at his/her disposal.	Very limited knowledge of appropriate Māori sequence markers- interlingual interference.	No evidence of sociolinguistic reference. (whanaungatanga, kīwaha, whakatauāki/ whakataukī)	Uses long pauses to mentally organise successive ideas; code switches to compensate for gaps in message; requires prompting.
2 Limited Proficiency	Is frequently hesitant; still involves frequent chunking; has an unnatural flow; is marked by frequent regular, hesitant-pauses; involves some repetition-words & phrases. Is less monotonic; is often low pitched/ frequently involves pitch rises reflecting uncertainty Requires careful listening-frequent mispronunciations.	Makes regular major & minor errors; uses simple structures & is not aware of incorrect grammar.	Has a minimal amount of vocabulary with which to communicate ideas/thoughts; searches for words.	Some awareness of sequencing but uses markers incorrectly-some interlingual interference.	Limited ability in the use of Māori sociolinguistic forms – eg, Māori pronouns.	Uses brief hesitations to mentally organise successive ideas; some prompting still required.
3 Basic Proficiency	Flows more naturally using simple sentence; is not marked by unnecessary pauses; is only occasionally hesitant. Is marked less frequently by pitch rises reflecting uncertainty. Shows a greater awareness of Māori phonological sounds-few occasional errors.	Has some control of Māori structures but makes occasional **errors**; is beginning to produce a mixture of simple & more complex structures.	Has adequate vocabulary to express ideas; occasionally searches for words.	A growing awareness of sequencing events & is making fewer mistakes.	Regular errors occurring in learner language-some use of appropriate Māori socio-linguistic forms.	Makes the occasional attempt at self correction; requires no prompting.
4 Elementary Confident Proficiency	Sounds smooth, more native like; pauses are more meaningful; communicates , expresses ideas confidently using longer sentences. Is only occasionally marked by pitch rises reflecting uncertainty. Confirms control over phonological sounds-makes only occasional errors.	Makes random **mistakes** in complex sentence structures. Random mistakes may appear.	Has developed a broader range of vocabulary to cope with a variety of topics.	The ability to use more appropriate sequence markers – form is generally correct.	Occasional errors evident in learner language – Some use of Māori socio-linguistic forms is mostly appropriate; more evidence of Māori dialectal forms.	Is able to self correct; is able to monitor language use.

	ORAL PRODUCTION (PK) FLUENCY/LANGUAGE FLOW INTONATION PHONOLOGY/PRONUNCIATION Learner's oral language:	GRAMMAR The learner:	VOCABULARY The learner:	DISCOURSE (Language discourse. How language is structured so that it is understood by the listener) The learner has:	SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE (Māori Discourse) There is/are:	COGNITION: Strategic Competence The learner:
5 Nativelike-Proficiency	Is always smooth & effortless-expresses ideas with greater ease/confidence; has developed the ability to paraphrase; is native like. Shows no evidence of inappropriate pitch rises; reflects certainty & confidence. Shows accuracy in production of Māori phonology.	Produces complex sentences; makes only the occasional grammatical slip.	Has an extensive vocabulary; is able to paraphrase instead of searching for an appropriate word.	Control over a greater variety of sequence markers-more confident & accurate sequencing of events.	The ability to use appropriate linguistic forms confidently & accurately with very limited slips; clear signals of iwi orientations through dialect.	Automatically self corrects; constantly monitors language use; is more skilled in paraphrasing, can effectively organise ideas.

Determining the reliability and validity of the Draft Rating Scale

In performance-based assessment, the instrument elicits a performance or behaviour which is then judged or rated, by means of a scale or other kind of scoring schedule. This requires an interaction between the rater and the scale, an interaction that mediates a scoring of the performance. The rater-scale interaction resembles the subject-instrument interaction in that the rater-scale interaction is like a 'test' of the raters (and the scale) in the way that the subject-instrument interaction is a test of the subjects (test-takers) and of the instrument. This approach accepts that the most appropriate aim of rater training is to make raters internally consistent. Internal consistency among raters will make statistical modelling of their characteristics possible, and also accepts variability in stable rater characteristics as a fact of life. This variability must be compensated for in some way, either through multiple marking and averaging of scores, or by using the more sophisticated techniques such as Rasch multifaceted measurement through FACETS which can simultaneously examine how the variables like the students being assessed, the raters, and the categories produce scores relative to the other. Rater-scale interaction training took place at Hui 1.

Rater Hui 1

In order to determine the reliability and validity of the Draft Rating Scale a rater hui was held at Te Puna Wānanga Auckland University Faculty of Education. The hui was conducted over four days from the 23 March to the 26 March, 2010. A total of 57 raters participated at the rater hui. The characteristics of the raters are presented in the Survey of Teacher Knowledge of Māori Language Proficiency (Section Four: Methodology Part Two) of this report. Each participating rater either attended on the 23–24 March, or the 25–26 March, 2010. Day 1 of each two-day cohort of raters began with a pōhiri at the marae at Te Puna Wānanga. Following the manaakitanga at the wharekai the rater hui started with explanations about the research project, activities to that time, and in the future. The roles of the researchers were explained, followed by an explanation of the rating scale and its accompanying notes. Also important prior to rating, was ensuring that the rating equipment, the sound-files for example, were ready for rater use. Prior to the first formal rating session, time was given to a twenty minute practice session so that the raters would understand and maintain consistency in their rating procedures: listening to the files, assigning scores using the rating scale and score schedules; and set discussion times after each rating session. Thereafter, each rating session was conducted as practised, except that the actual rating sessions were 1.5 hours each.

At Session One each rater rated the same random sample of 10 year eight Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 oral language samples. The sample covered the range of scores of 1–5 from the rating scale, pre-determined by the research team. At the end of Session One a question and discussion time was facilitated.

At Session Two each rater rated a random sample of 10 year five Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 oral language samples. The sample covered the range of scores of 1–5 from the rating scale as pre-determined by the research team. At the end of Session Two a question and discussion time was facilitated. The discussion time was invaluable. Discussion included questions about scoring, the categories on the scale, rater confidence and te reo Māori.

After each rating session the ratings were collected and processed by the project statistician. During the discussion time, the raters were also shown and informed of how they were performing as raters according to Rasch analysis. In this way, the performance of the scale and rater behaviour was monitored. By the concluding session of Day 1, Session Three, the research team was confident that the scale was working as hoped and the raters were also confident in their task.

At Session Three the raters divided into three pre-assigned groups to rate a combination of year eight and year five oral language samples that only their group rated. These assigned rating sessions, followed by discussion among the three groups, set the pattern for Day 2.

The second cohort that arrived on day three of Rater Hui 1 followed the same approach used by the Day 1 and Day 2 cohort. By using this approach the 148 oral language samples of the year five and year eight Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 cohorts were rated a minimum of seventeen times at Hui 1. Note, that 10 of each year five and year eight cohort was rated 50 times at Session One and Session Two of Day 1.

Rasch analysis

On Day 2 of each cohort at Rater Hui 1, the team statistician detailed rater performance with the raters before rating began. This helped the raters understand how they, the raters, the students, and oral language categories were performing. In effect, with the team statistician's support, they developed an awareness and understanding of how their roles as raters contributed to determining the reliability and validity of the assessment tool and scale. A few of the raters were performing quite differently from the majority of raters, by rating the oral language samples too severely. They were able to identify themselves and time was spent talking with them about their ratings. Again all the ratings were monitored and feedback provided.

On day two after the final rating session for each respective rater group, the research programme was discussed and the raters completed a survey regarding the rating process. Before closing the hui, the raters were asked to give consideration to participating as raters again for Rater Hui 2. The focus at Rater Hui 2 would shift to assessing the oral language samples of year one to year eight students from the project's participating schools, some of whom would be students from the raters' own total immersion schools. The hui concluded with a mihi poroaki.

Knowledge of Māori oral language proficiency

Background to the survey

What teachers in Māori immersion settings think and know about Māori language proficiency is unknown. The research team felt that knowing what teachers in Māori immersion think and know about Māori language proficiency was important since the teachers would be evaluating the Māori language proficiency of their students. Toward this end the research team created and conducted a survey to find out what teachers think, what they know, what tools they use to assess Māori language proficiency and when they think proficiency assessment should take place.

Proficiency definition

This research project is underpinned by the following language proficiency definition:

> The defining feature of a test of language proficiency is that the learner is required to demonstrate not only knowledge of language but skill in the use of that knowledge in settings which are in some degree communicative. Such tests may require a demonstration of skill in performance or the use of a language. It will "require the test taker to apply … knowledge about language by actually using the language in communicative situations" (Shohamy, 1983, p. 528).

This is important when considering teacher responses to questions on what they think Māori language actually means.

The survey

Workshop tasks

The survey was distributed to all schools that participated and to all the raters who participated at the rater hui. Fifty-seven raters completed the questionnaire and an additional 10 teachers. The majority of the raters were also teachers in participating schools.

Raters completed three questionnaires. One about their knowledge of Māori oral proficiency, one about their own proficiency of Maori and teaching background, and the other was an evaluation of the workshop. In addition to this, raters were asked to provide feedback on the rating scale and issues of assessing the oral proficiency of their students. Teachers completed only the first two surveys.

Demographic details of the survey sought information about age, gender and ethnicity, including iwi affiliations. Teacher/raters details were specific to their current teaching positions, educational qualifications, teacher registration, teacher training and training for bilingual and immersion programmes. Questions regarding experience in Māori medium education were related to class levels in the past and present. With respect to levels of oral proficiency in the Māori language, teacher/raters were asked to indicate their level of proficiency, the importance of being proficient Māori speakers, and the importance of improving teacher proficiency. They were also asked how well their training institutions prepared them to assess the oral proficiency, in Māori, of their students, and how important it was that they knew the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students. Teacher/raters were also questioned about their confidence in assessing and reporting the oral proficiency of their students. With respect to reporting, the researchers were particularly interested in knowing how confident the teacher/raters were in reporting the oral proficiency of students, in Māori, especially to parents and whānau. The teacher/raters were also asked to indicate what they thought was the correct time to assess the oral proficiency of students. Added to this they were asked what tools, methods and criteria they presently used to assess oral proficiency. The last question asked teacher/raters to describe in their own words what oral proficiency in Māori meant. (See Appendix A for the survey questionnaire.)

Initially, it was intended that the survey would take place early in the research and online. Feedback from the Te Marautanga o Aotearoa consultation, of Māori medium participation online, indicated that this was not a productive way of finding out about teacher views. The surveys were sent out with the testing instruments and distributed at the end of the rating sessions. In hindsight, conducting the survey during the testing regime was probably not a good idea because some of the teachers who were also the raters complained of too much paperwork. Should the survey be undertaken again, it might serve its purpose better if it were the first task that teachers carried out before assessing the students' language. The following account, details the results of the oral proficiency survey.

Oral Proficiency of Kaiako Questionnaire Results

Demography of Respondents

At the time of data input 67 teacher/raters completed the kaiako oral proficiency questionnaires. Fifty of those were female and 17 were male. Fifty-six reported their ethnic group as Māori, two were Pākehā, and nine reported that they were Māori and Pākehā. Other ethnic affiliations included Cook Island Māori, Dutch, Scottish, Tongan, Chinese and German.

Figure 1 presents the age groups of the respondents.

Figure 1:   Age groups of respondents
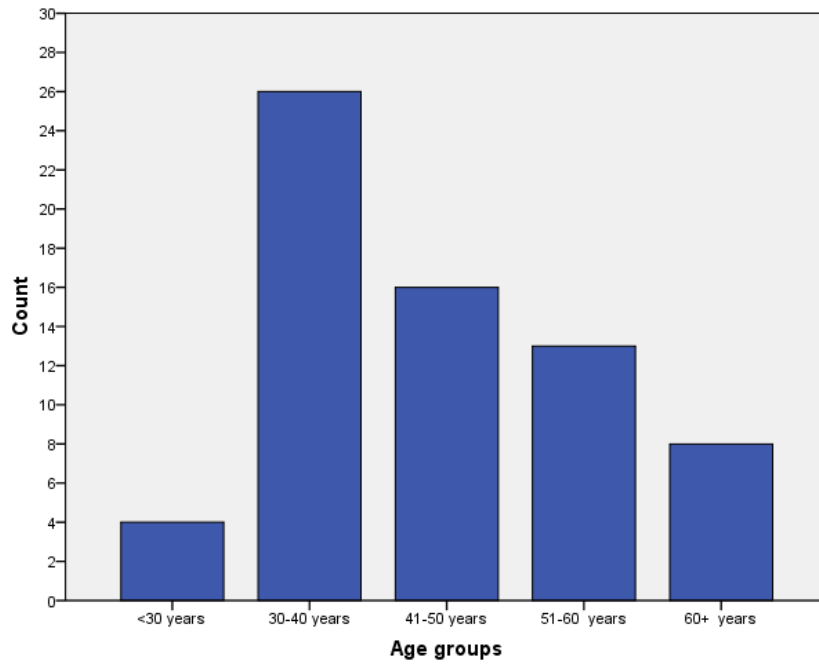
Most of the respondents (26) were in the 30–40 year old age group. There were only four respondents under 30 years old.

Respondents were asked to rate their oral proficiency of Māori. Eleven rated their oral proficiency very high, 23 high, 25 medium, and three reported low proficiency. Figure 2 presents ratings of proficiency versus age groups.

Figure 2:   Ratings of proficiency versus age groups
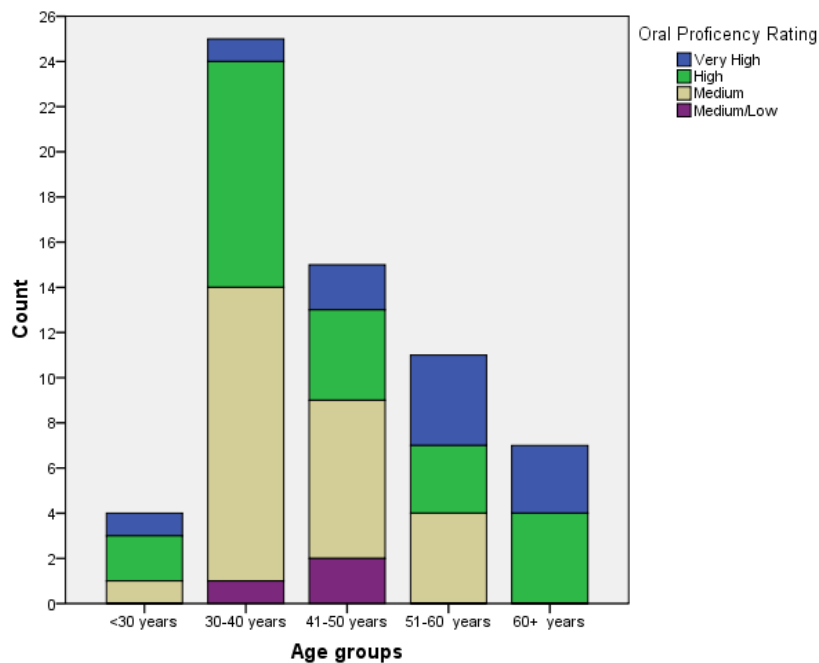
Age group ratings are similar with less medium and medium low in the youngest and oldest groups. Based on anecdotal evidence and the observations of the research team there is a tendency for the very proficient speakers to underrate their proficiency and less proficient speakers to overrate their proficiency.

Table 6 presents iwi affiliations. Respondents identified with 127 iwi.

Table 6:   Iwi affiliations

Iwi	Count	Percentage	Iwi	Count	Percentage
Ngapuhi	15	11.8	Nga Rauru	1	.8
Tuhoe	14	11.0	Nga Ruahine	1	.8
Ngati Porou	10	7.9	Nga Wairiki	1	.8
Ngati Whatua	7	5.5	Ngaiterangi	1	.8
Ngati Kahungunu	6	4.7	Ngati Apa	1	.8
Ngati Tuwharetoa	6	4.7	Ngati Hako	1	.8
Te Arawa	6	4.7	Ngati Kahu	1	.8
Te Rarawa	5	3.9	Ngati Kahu Te Tai Tokerau	1	.8
Te Whanau a Apanui	5	3.9	Ngati Kahungunu ki te Wairarapa	1	.8
Waikato	5	3.9	Ngati Kahungunu-Rongomaiwahine	1	.8
Ngati Raukawa	4	3.1	Ngati Mahanga	1	.8
Ngati Maniapoto	3	2.4	Ngati Maniapoto ki Tainui	1	.8
Tainui	3	2.4	Ngati Pukenga	1	.8
Te Whakatohea	3	2.4	Ngati Toa	1	.8
Ngai Tamanuhiri	2	1.6	Ngati Uepohatu	1	.8
Ngati Awa	2	1.6	Ngati Wai ki Ngapuhi	1	.8
Ngati Hine	2	1.6	Rangitane	1	.8
Ngati Paoa	2	1.6	Rongomaiwahine	1	.8
Ngati Raukawa ki te Tonga	2	1.6	Te Aupouri	1	.8
Taranaki	2	1.6	Whanganui Iwi	1	.8
Te Atihaunui-a-Paparangi	2	1.6			
Atiawa	1	.8			

Respondent teaching details

Sixty-three respondents were registered teachers. Two were beginning teachers and two were not registered. Forty-four respondents listed their current occupation as a teacher. Eight were principals. Eight were in support roles such as Resource Teacher of Māori, Whakapiki Reo, or some other teacher support role. Figure 3 presents type of institute where the teachers were trained.

Figure 3:   Teacher training institute type
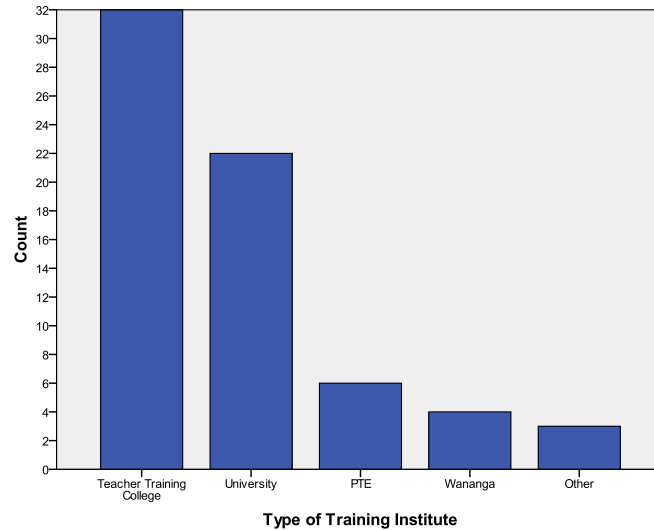
Most teachers (32) had been trained at a Teacher Training College. Private Training Establishments (PTE) include Te Wānanga Takiura in Auckland and Anamata in Whakatane. Figure 4 presents the location or region of training institute.

Figure 4:   Region of teacher training institute
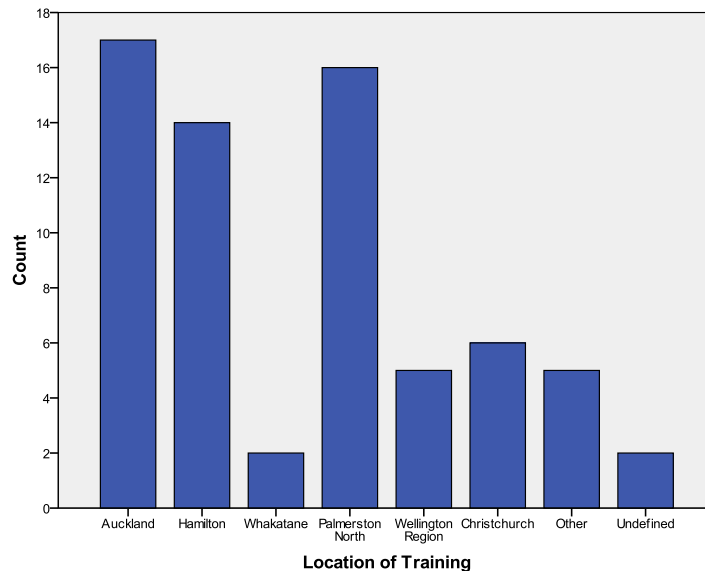
Most teachers were trained in Auckland or Palmerston North. The Wellington region includes those trained at Te Wānanga o Raukawa. Figure 5 presents the number of years as a registered teacher.

Figure 5:   Number of years as a registered teacher
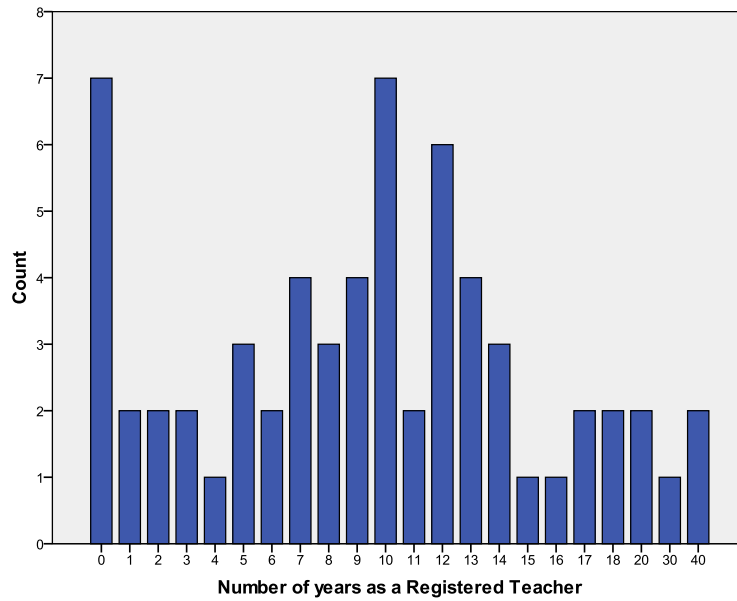
Seven respondents reporting zero years as a teacher are likely to be beginning teachers. There was a wide of range of years as a registered teacher with three reporting more than 20 years. Figure 6 presents the sum of the number of years teaching in each level of the school sector.

Figure 6:   The sum of number of the years teaching in each school sector
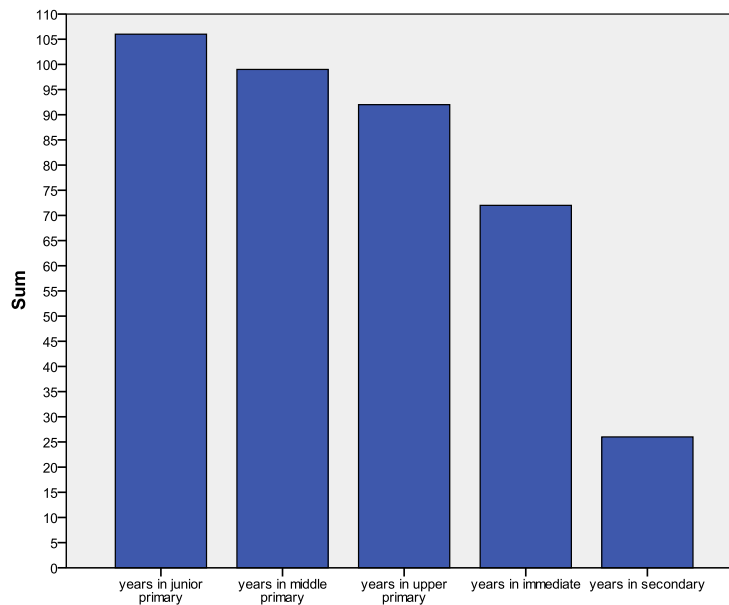
The respondents reported more years spent teaching in the primary sector rather than the intermediate or secondary sector.

Respondent Comments on Proficiency

Table 7 presents details on the respondents answer to questions on oral proficiency.

Table 7:   Respondents comments on oral proficiency

Question	Response			
	Very Well	**Well**	**Adequate**	**Not Well**
How well did your training institute prepare you as a teacher for assessing the oral proficiency(in Māori) of your students?	7	10	14	29
	Extremely Important	**Very Important**	**Important**	**Not Important**
Important that teachers are very proficient speakers of Māori?	48	14	1	-
Important that teachers be given the opportunity to improve their own proficiency in Māori?	57	5	1	-
How important is it that teachers know the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students	48	10	4	1
How important is it that teachers report the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students to parents/whānau	34	20	7	2
	Extremely Confident	**Very Confident**	**Confident**	**Not Confident**
How confident are you as a teacher in assessing the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students?	7	19	27	8
How confident are you as a teacher in reporting the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students against curriculum outcomes?	34	20	7	2

Twenty-nine respondents reported that their teacher training institute did not prepare them well for assessing the oral fluency of their students. Respondents reported it was important for teachers to be proficient speakers of Māori and to have the opportunity to improve their own fluency. Respondents also expressed confidence in assessing the oral proficiency of their students and reporting on this. The confidence in many cases is more likely to have been the result of participation in the two rater hui.

Table 8 presents the correlations between the comments on oral proficiency.

Table 8: Correlations between comments on oral proficiency

		Important that teachers are very proficient speakers of Māori	Important that teachers be given the opportunity to improve their own proficiency in Māori	How well did your training institute prepare you as a teacher for assessing the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students	How important is it that teachers know the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students	How confident are you as a teacher in assessing the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students	How confident are you as a teacher in reporting the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students against curriculum outcomes	How important is it that teachers report the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students to parents/whānau
Important that teachers are very proficient speakers of Māori	Pearson Correlation	1	.675**	.090	.591**	-.078	-.057	.288*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.487	.000	.547	.655	.022
	N	63	63	62	63	62	63	63
Important that teachers be given the opportunity to improve their own proficiency in Māori	Pearson Correlation	.675**	1	-.041	.505**	.078	.108	.359**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.750	.000	.544	.399	.004
	N	63	63	62	63	62	63	63
How well did your training institute prepare you as a teacher for assessing the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students	Pearson Correlation	.090	-.041	1	.109	.215	.247	.095
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.487	.750		.398	.096	.053	.461
	N	62	62	62	62	61	62	62
How important is it that teachers know the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students	Pearson Correlation	.591**	.505**	.109	1	.101	.065	.465**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.398		.435	.614	.000
	N	63	63	62	63	62	63	63
How confident are you as a teacher in assessing the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students	Pearson Correlation	-.078	.078	.215	.101	1	.771**	.152
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.547	.544	.096	.435		.000	.239
	N	62	62	61	62	62	62	62
How confident are you as a teacher in reporting the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students against curriculum outcomes	Pearson Correlation	-.057	.108	.247	.065	.771**	1	.077
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.655	.399	.053	.614	.000		.548
	N	63	63	62	63	62	63	63
How important is it that teachers report the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students to parents/whānau	Pearson Correlation	.288*	.359**	.095	.465**	.152	.077	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	.004	.461	.000	.239	.548	
	N	63	63	62	63	62	63	63

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In terms of the correlations, it is interesting that training institute preparation has no correlation between any of the other questions.

Important that teachers are very proficient speakers of Māori correlates with teachers should be given the opportunity to improve their proficiency ($r = .675$) and that teachers know the oral proficiency of their students ($r = .591$). Likewise, the latter two (teachers be given the opportunity to improve their proficiency and teachers should know the oral proficiency of their students) correlate ($r = .505$).

Important that teachers know the oral proficiency of their students also modestly correlates with its important that teachers report the oral proficiency of their students to parents/whānau ($r = .465$).

Not surprisingly, confidence in assessing the oral proficiency of students correlates with confidence in reporting the oral proficiency of students against curriculum outcomes ($r = .771$).

In terms of gender differences between the questions, the only significant difference was males reported slightly higher on their teacher training institutes preparing well for assessing the oral proficiency of their students (males, mean = 3.65, SD = .47; females, mean = 2.96, SD = 1.13, $t (60) = 2.26$, $p = .026$). Those teachers that had taught beyond primary also reported slightly higher on this question compared to those that taught at primary only (beyond primary mean = 3.63, SD = .77; primary only mean = 2.73, SD = 1.18; $t (55) = 3.22$, $p = .002$).

There were no differences between the question responses comparing the under-40-year-olds versus those 40 and over; and comparing those registered as a teacher for nine years or less versus those registered as a teacher for nine years or more; and those of medium, high proficiency versus those of low-medium, low proficiency.

Correct time to assess oral proficiency

Thirty-four respondents reported that the beginning of the year was the right time to assess the oral proficiency of students. Thirty reported that the middle of the year was the right time and 30 reported that the end of the year was the correct time to assess oral proficiency. Twenty-nine reported that any time was the right time.

Methods used to assess oral proficiency

Methods reported included gathering anecdotal evidence and listening, observing or recording students. Assessment tools used were Jost Māori (1), Hopukina (7), He Mātai Matatupu (1), AKA (1), asTTle (2) and other instruments developed by Kia Atamai Trust or teachers own locally developed instruments/observations (28).

Respondents comments on the definition of oral proficiency

The respondents comments and definitions on what constituted language proficiency was wide-ranging. Their comments covered several aspects such as Māori identity and culture, language elements, thinking, communicative competence, contexts of use (see Table 9).

Table 9:   **Respondents comments on the definition of oral proficiency**

Māori identity & culture	Language elements	Thinking	Communicative competence	Contexts
Thinking & speaking in Māori	Vocabulary	Māori way of thinking	Accuracy, clarity	Content
Rangatiratanga	Grammar	Ability to express thoughts	Fluency	Everywhere, in Māori contexts
Speaking in a Māori way	Pronunciation		Language strategies	Experiences
	Sociolinguistic competence		Confidence	Text types
			Register	Questioning
			Progressive	
			Enjoyable to the participants	

Analysis

Demographic details

The research team is satisfied with the number and range of teachers who participated in the survey on oral proficiency. They range in age, ethnicity, teacher experience and knowledge of proficiency. Although the number of Pākehā and ethnicities other than Māori are lower, the research team believes this to be a fair representation of the teachers who teach in Māori total immersion settings. In most cases the forms were only completed by: a) the teachers who conducted the oral proficiency assessments; and b) the raters who attended Rater Hui 2. The respondents were specifically instructed to complete the survey once only. The fact that the majority of the respondents were female (50/67); Māori (65/67) did not surprise the researchers. In fact the research team was pleasantly surprised at the number of males (17) who participated in the survey, and those who attended the rater hui.

Oral proficiency of Māori

A large number of respondents, in the self assessment of their particular levels of oral proficiency, regarded their oral proficiency as very high, particularly the 30–40 year olds. As noted earlier, this could be that the native speakers have underrated their language and that the younger groups overrated their language. It is unclear if they were adequately trained for total immersion settings. Most of those who indicated specialist training for bilingual/total immersion attended in-service courses provided by the larger teachers colleges. These courses included Te Whakapiki i te Reo, te Rōpū Reo Rua and bilingual/total immersion pre-service courses.

Iwi affiliations

The iwi affiliations are fairly reflective of the raters and schools who participated in the research. Iwi ranged from Te Aupouri in the Far North to Rangitane, Ngāti Kahungungu, Taranaki, Ngāti Toa and Te Āti Awa. Not evident is representation from the South Island. A Kura Kaupapa Māori from Ōtautahi (Christchurch) did participate in the research; however, that teacher's affiliation was Ngāpuhi.

Teaching backgrounds

All the participants were trained teachers. It was good to see that most of the respondents were registered. Aside from the two beginning teachers, the two other unregistered teachers were likely from the Whakapiki i te Reo participants, who no longer require registration in their current roles. It was also good to see that the majority of the respondents were still practicing teachers, whilst eight (8) were still actively involved in working in total immersion Māori contexts, in support roles. Most of the Whakapiki i te Reo facilitators attended both rater hui, for their own professional development, to support the teachers in their schools, and to have an active role in the establishment of progressions for oral language proficiency.

It is worth noting that most of the respondents did their pre-service and/or in-service training in the conventional teacher training colleges/universities of Auckland, Hamilton and Palmerston North. Wellington, Christchurch and 'Other' together equal the third largest teacher training provider. The smaller providers were those of Anamata in Whakatāne and Te Wānanga o Raukawa.

The number of years teaching varied greatly from 1–40 years. Interestingly there were more respondents who noted zero years as a teacher, than those who were not registered. The majority of teachers taught or had taught at the primary level. Most had taught in the junior school, with the numbers decreasing slightly to the upper end of primary. Interestingly, combined secondary experience totalled 20 years. This was likely to have been the one Atakura secondary trained teacher who has taught in primary schools, and currently is a facilitator of the Whakapiki i te Reo programme.

Oral proficiency

As stated earlier only 29 respondents, just under half, were of the view that they were not trained very well to assess the oral fluency of their students. Males and teachers who had taught beyond primary reported that they were better trained by their teacher training institutes than females who had only taught at primary respectively. It is possible that this is a result of the sample as opposed to the suggestion that either group were significantly better prepared. The research team strongly advises caution with respect to those who indicated that they were trained very well (7), well (10) and adequate (14) because it is more than likely that their confidence was due to participation at the two rater hui.

The research team advises similar caution with respect to Question 19: How confident are you as a teacher in assessing the oral language proficiency (in Māori) of your students? Only eight considered themselves "not confident". As with the responses to teacher training above, it is more likely that confidence in assessing oral language proficiency (in Māori) was due to participation at the workshops of the two rater hui.

In response to the questions regarding teacher proficiency, opportunity to improve proficiency, knowing the oral proficiency of students and reporting the oral proficiency of students to parents and whānau; the majority were quite emphatic about the extreme importance of proficiency. Only three respondents thought that proficiency was not important. Interestingly, although 'extremely important' received the highest response for reporting to parents (34/63 teachers), this was 14 less than the importance of teachers knowing the oral proficiency of their students.

It is clear, however, that most of the teachers believe that Māori language proficiency is very important for all, including teachers, students and families.

When to assess oral language proficiency in Māori

There was no consensus as to a good time to assess oral proficiency. The teachers were able to choose more than one response. Each response received a score from 29–34.

Māori oral language proficiency tools

Earlier, teacher knowledge and confidence in assessing oral language based on the survey was cautioned. This caution would appear to be justified when one considers that the methods that teachers used were anecdotal and based on their observations and recordings. Added to this, the tools that were listed for assessing oral language were not designed to assess oral proficiency in Māori. It would be fair to say that in the absence of a tool they use what they have at their disposal.

It is clear that many of those definitions refer to language fluency or language outputs, as opposed to oral proficiency. Most definitions lack reference to the type or range of tasks that students are required to do in everyday situations.

The research team has had much anecdotal feedback from the teachers who conducted the assessments in schools, and those who attended the two rater hui. Many have gone back to their schools and given their teachers a task whereby they assess their own Māori language proficiency. The scale from the rater hui was then used to assess their own teacher proficiency. Those raters, who also teach in the schools that were tested, are more aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in the area of oral language proficiency in Māori.

Methodology Part Three

Establishing progressions year one to year eight

The researchers of this project had little success in locating a body of research or literature on oral language proficiency progressions for te reo Māori. The most the research team could find were the levels allocated to whakarongo (listening), kōrero (speaking) in Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa; Te Marautanga o Aotearoa, Māori in the Mainstream and Tihei Mauri Ora. These documents were curriculum statements published by the New Zealand Ministry of Education. It is unclear what informed the levels stipulated within those documents. For these reasons, the research team decided to investigate the oral language proficiency in Māori by collecting samples of oral language from year zero/year one to year eight.

The team faced two major challenges in gathering data. The first, was the availability of schools to participate in the research. Schools were invited in February 2010 to participate in the assessment/testing of the students' Māori oral language, however at that time, there was conflict of interest within the Māori medium sector. Te Rūnanganui o Ngā Kura Kaupapa Māori was opposed to their schools participating in the proposed National Standards Māori medium. Also, for some Māori medium schools participation was problematic because they had already fully committed to participating in other programmes including the trialing of the Draft Statements of Ngā Whanaketanga Rumaki Māori for Te Reo Matatini and Pāngarau. However, the research team was pleasantly surprised at the number of schools who initially agreed to participate although some withdrew and others were unable to return their data back in time for analysis.

The second challenge was to find or create a tool that could be used to assess the language of year one to year eight students. It needed to be a tool that would provide students the opportunity to demonstrate language proficiency that was not content or context dependent. The tool had to be consistent with kaupapa Māori and therefore *by Māori, for Māori, in te reo Māori.* There were also time and budget constraints. In the end, the situation was easily resolved after the examination of the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 samples of oral language in speaking at year five and year eight. The data analysis, had already established a rating scale, statistically reliable and valid. The team now needed to gather data for years one to eight.

Data collection: Reo-ā-waha ki te Motu

Upon agreeing to use the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001 oral language proficiency tool (see Figure 7), the research team considered whether any changes needed to be made. In fact, no adaptations were necessary for the tool itself, except to ensure that the terms of reference were specific to Kaiaka Reo: Reo-ā-Waha ki te Motu. This involved rewriting the administration script for the teachers.

School participation

In total 92 Level 1 Māori medium schools, a potential population of approximately 9,587 year one to year eight students, were invited to participate in the research. The majority of the schools (83) were Māori medium Level 1 immersion schools. The other nine schools had classrooms that had different levels of immersion (Levels 1, 2, 3 and 4).

Figure 7:   Kaiaka Reo-ā-waha ki te motu test tool

The Kaiaka Reo oral language assessment tool (Figure 7), is a sequence of nine pictures depicting two boys who discover money while out walking. Essentially, the task presented a dilemma for the two boys. What should they do with the money? What could they do with money? Who else might be involved? How could they spend the money? Where might they go? What was their resolution? More importantly, although it was a one-way performance based communicative task, it could generate oral language.

Pre-data collection

A package of information (Information Pack 1) was sent out to these schools prior to conducting the assessment. These included a letter to the tumuaki regarding the research (Appendix B); a letter in English explaining the research to parents and legal guardians (Appendix C); and consent forms for the parents and legal guardians, principals, teachers and students (Appendix D). Attached to the parents form was a survey for the parent(s)/legal guardian to complete (Appendix D). This was to survey the types of oral Māori language outside of school the child was/is exposed to and whether, for instance, the child had attended Kōhanga Reo. Background information of the child's reo at school was requested via a survey form to the teachers.

Thirty-three of the 92 invited schools agreed to participate. This sample of 33 schools included Kura Kaupapa Māori (17), Designated Character Schools (6), Bilingual Schools (1) and a further nine state schools with varied immersion levels. The schools were from the Far North, Auckland, Waikato, Thames, Hamilton, Taupo, Rotorua, Tauranga, Whakatane, Opotiki, Gisborne, South Taranaki, Palmerston North, Masterton and Christchurch regions. A potential 2500 year one to year eight students.

The 33 schools were sent the second information pack (Information Pack 2) in the first week of term two 2010 that included the following:

- A letter to the principal advising the contents of the mail-out and each item's purpose (Appendix E)

- A CD that included a mihi from the research team and a PowerPoint that outlined how to use the tool

- The forms for teachers to allocate individual student identification numbers (Appendix F)

- The forms for teachers to allocate themselves individual identification numbers (Appendix G)

- Instructions about how to conduct the test (Appendix H)

- The test tool itself (Figure 7)

- The survey on views and knowledge of proficiency (Appendix A)

- Instructions on how and when to return the materials

- A 4GB USB drive

- A microphone.

The participating schools collected the language data themselves. The teacher/s of the schools or the personnel assigned by the schools to conduct the assessments was encouraged to follow the instructions and participate in a telephone conference with the research team. Three schools used the telephone conference facility. The schools and teachers required little assistance in conducting the actual assessments. Their major difficulty was completing the assessments in the time allocated and returning these in time so that all the data could be considered as part of the sample cohorts for analysis.

Participating schools — the research data sample

The materials were sent to the 33 schools that had agreed to participate. Of these 33 schools, 15 returned their materials in time to be included in the random samples for Rater Hui 2. Twelve schools returned these either at Rater Hui 2, or not long afterwards. Six schools were unable to conduct the assessments. All but two have since returned all the materials. In summary, of the 33 schools who agreed to participate, six schools returned the materials unused or didn't return them at all; 12 schools returned the materials too late to be included in the data sample for analysis and 15 schools returned their materials in time. A total of 707 students formed the data sample.

The random sample of 707 year one to year eight students represented Kura Kaupapa Māori (9), a Bilingual School (1), Designated Character Schools (2) and state schools (3). Those schools not dedicated Level 1 Māori medium were the Bilingual School and the three state schools who offer Level 1, 2, 3 and 4 Māori immersion levels. Other demographic details such as gender, attendance at Kōhanga Reo and Māori medium schools are discussed later in the report.

Rater Hui 2

Rater Hui 2 was held over four days from 11 May to the 14 May 2010. Each participating rater either attended on 11–12 May, or 13–14 May 2010. The main focus for this hui was: a) to apply the rating scale to the language samples collected by the schools; b) determine the reliability and validity of the rating scale as an instrument to assess the oral language of students in Māori immersion settings from year one through to year eight.

Day 1 of each two day cohort of raters began with a mihi at the marae at Te Puna Wānanga University of Auckland Faculty of Education. Following the manaakitanga at the Te Tū Tahi Tonu Marae the raters and project team moved to a larger room on campus. Table 10 displays the number of raters who were in full attendance over the two day period for both Rater Hui 1 and Rater Hui 2. Note that five new raters attended the May workshop; all other raters had attended the March workshop. The majority of raters attended the same cohort in both workshops. A few raters could not attend for two full days of a workshop and they are not included in the numbers below.

Table 10:   March and May rater workshop numbers

Workshop	Cohort 1	Cohort 2
May 2010	20	28
March 2010	27	19

Prior to rating Session One, rater performance at Rater Hui 1 was presented and reviewed. Overall, the performance of the raters, students and oral language categories was satisfactory. It was reported that the year five cohort at Hui 1 was more severely rated than the year 8 cohort. The severity was attributed to the raters rating the year eight cohort first. The team, therefore decided to order the ratings of the cohort from year one through to year eight.

The new raters at Rater Hui 2 were trained and prepared for rating. Feedback was provided to the raters of Hui 1. Those raters that had rated more severely (according to Rasch analysis), compared to their fellow raters at Rater Hui 1 were counselled as to how they might adapt their rating to be consistent for Rater Hui 2.

The procedures for Rater Hui 2 were slightly different to those of Rater Hui 1, to take into account the aims of the hui and the greater number of oral language samples from year one to year eight. In order to ensure that each year group was rated fairly, Day 1 focused on the same samples from each year group. Each rater rated the same randomly selected samples for each year group. What was similar to Rater Hui 1 was the facilitated discussion at the end of each rating session. Each rater was encouraged to provide feedback on the performance of the scale, the oral language samples of each year level, and the progressions within each level. Each of the facilitated discussions was noted. The descriptions, views, and rater analyses were critical to inform the progressions under development.

As noted above, at Session One of Day 1 Rater Hui 2, 10 year one oral language samples were rated first, followed by facilitated discussion and feedback. At Session Two, 10 year two oral language samples were rated, followed by discussion and feedback. For the next three sessions, the oral language samples were clustered as follows:

- Session Three, 10 oral language samples from year three and year four (5 of each);
- Session Four, 10 oral language samples from year five and year six (5 from each);
- Session Five, 10 oral language samples from year seven and year eight (5 of each).

After the facilitated discussion for session five the ratings for Day 1 were completed.

On Day 2, the raters were divided into five pre-assigned groups to rate a combination of year one to year eight oral language samples. Each set of samples, had a balanced number of oral language samples for each year group from year one to year eight.

The Day 3 and Day 4 cohort of Rater Hui 2 followed the same approach used by the Day 1 and Day 2 cohort. By using this approach the raters were able to rate 270 of the 707 oral language samples of the year one to year eight cohorts. Fifty of these (10 from year one, 10 from Year Two, 10 from year three and year four, 10 from year five and year six, 10 from year seven and year eight) were rated by 47 raters. Each child was rated a minimum of seven times overall.

Table 11 below summarises the year levels and numbers of oral language samples rated at Rater Hui 2. As illustrated, there were 74 year ones, 85 year twos, 94 year threes, 98 year fours, 91 year fives, 108 year sixes, 89 year sevens and 68 year eights, totalling a population of 707 students from level one immersion settings. A 27–28% sample of each year group was randomly selected to be rated at Rater Hui 2 (row three).

Note, that row four of Table 11 indicates the numbers of samples that were rated by each of the 47 raters. Note also, that an extra five oral language samples were added to the 27% random sample for year three, year four, year five, year six, year seven and year eight. Originally, the research team hoped that a minimum of 10 oral language samples could be assessed for each year level. However, the team realised that the raters could not rate 80 samples in one day and participate in the facilitated discussions as well. Therefore, these extra oral language samples were added to the Day 2 pre-assigned groups of raters.

Table 11:   Year levels and numbers in random sample for Rater Hui 2

	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6	Year 7	Year 8	Total	%
Total	74	85	94	98	91	108	89	68	707	100
27-28% random sample	20	23	26	27	25	30	24	19	194	27.4
Random sample Compulsory ratings at Year levels	+10	+10	+5	+5	+5	+5	+5	+5	50	7
*			+5	+5	+5	+5	+5	+5	30	
	30	33	36	37	35	40	34	29-4[7]	270	

The ratings of the oral language samples were completed by the end of Day 4 of Rater Hui 2. At the end of each of the two day rating sessions, each of the raters were asked to respond to a survey regarding their views on the rating sessions. The raters were also informed that the research team would likely invite a smaller group to participate in the development of the progressions from the ratings during the (then) upcoming school holidays. At the end of each two day session the rater participants conducted a hui independent of the research team, as to their views on the development of the oral progressions for Māori immersion settings.

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7   Four soundfiles from Year 8 were unreadable as they were being loaded in preparation for rating.

Rating of student (oral) scripts

The March workshop, to reiterate, rated student scripts recorded as part of the Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001. These scripts consisted of samples of students in years 5 and 8. In the March workshop, 148 scripts were rated. These consisted of 73 year 8 scripts and 75 year 5 scripts. Ten year 8 scripts and 10 year 5 scripts were marked by all raters for statistical purposes. These scripts were deliberately selected to consist of a range of students of varying abilities. The remaining 128 scripts were each rated by a minimum of 10 raters across the March workshop.

The May workshop (Rater Hui 2) rated student scripts recorded in April/May of 2010, ranging from years 0–1 to year 8. In the May workshop 270 scripts were rated, approximately 33–34 per year level (years 1 to 8). Fifty scripts: 10 from years 0–1; 10 from year 2; five from year 3 and five from year 4; five from year 5 and five from year 6; five from year 7 and five from year 8; were marked by all raters (ie, both cohorts) for statistical purposes. The remaining 220 scripts were rated by a minimum of 7 raters per cohort.

Statistics used to examine the rating of scripts.

All data were entered into Microsoft Excel spreadsheets. The data was exported from Excel to SPSS v17 and to Facets [8] software for analysis. Statistics were produced covering the rating of the student scripts, and the rating scale itself. Two families of statistics were used to analyse data, Classical Test Theory (CTT) and Item Response Theory (IRT). The IRT technique used was Many Facet Rasch Analysis.

The CTT statistics generated include descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) of student scripts. Reliability was determined by internal reliability measures such as Point Biserial calculations and comparing inter-rater reliability (ie, correlations) of both the six components of rating scale and overall means scores between raters all having rated a common set of scripts.

IRT, in its simplest form (Rasch Analysis) involves using a logistic model for predicting responses based on both candidate ability (ie, student ability) and item (or task) difficulty. Scores generated by Rasch analysis are given in the form of 'logit' or log odds scale. The scale expresses probabilities of responses as a logarithm of the natural occurring constant *e*. It is an interval scale and allows both items and student responses to be reported both individually and on a common scale. The mean of items (ie, the difficulty) in any given test is arbitrarily set to zero with a standard deviation of 1. The more difficult items and those students of higher ability students receive logits of positive values. Likewise easy items and students of less ability receive negative (logit) scores. In addition to information on student ability and item difficulty Rasch software provides information on person and item 'fit'. Fit describes how well responses to individual items as a whole adhere to an expected pattern of response. Items or persons not fitting are termed 'misfitting' and this usually indicates a poorly written item or something that has attracted a high number of unexpected responses.

Multi Facet Rasch Analysis is described elsewhere (Linacre, 2010). The term facet, here includes observations such as item (rating subscales) and persons (student scores) and judges or raters. In other words, the software allows subscales, students and raters to be located on the same scale. This gives an easy means of detecting whether or not raters are being too lenient or too severe in their rating of students compared to other raters. It is also a means whereby rating subscales difficulty can be easily assessed.

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8   Linacre, J. M. (2010) Facets Rasch measurement computer program, version 3.66.2. Chicago: Winsteps.com.

Figure 8 presents an example of the three facets located on one scale and also represents the ratings of the March workshop.

Figure 8:   March workshop all facet vertical "rulers"

```
+------------------------------------------------------------ +
|Measr  | -raters | +students | -Traits     | Scale    |
|-------- +------- +------------ +------------- +----------|
|  3     +        +           +             + (5)      |
|        |        |           |             | ----------|
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        | *      |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|  2     +        +           +             +          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        | *      | *         |             | 4        |
|        | ***    |           |             |          |
|        | **     | *         |             |          |
|        |        | *         |             |          |
|        | *****  |           |             |          |
|        | *      |           |             |          |
|        | *      |           |             |          |
|  1     + ***    + *         +             +          |
|        | *****  |           |             |          |
|        | ******| *         |             | ----------|
|        | ****   |           |             |          |
|        | ******| ***       |             |          |
|        | *      |           |             |          |
|        | ***    | *         |             |          |
|        |        | *         |             |          |
|        |        | ***       |             |          |
|        | ***    | **        |C D  MD      |          |
|* 0     * *      * **        * G           * 3        *
|        | *      | ***       |OP           |          |
|        |        | **        |V            |          |
|        |        | **        |             |          |
|        | *      | ***       |             |          |
|        |        | **        |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        | ***       |             |          |
|        |        | *         |             |          |
|        |        | *         |             | ----------|
|  -1    +        +           +             +          |
|        |        | *         |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        | *         |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             | 2        |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|        |        |           |             |          |
|  -2    +        +           +             + (1)      |
|-------- +-------- +------------+-------------+----------|
|Measr  | * = 1  | * = 1     |-Traits     |Scale     |
+------------------------------------------------------------+
```
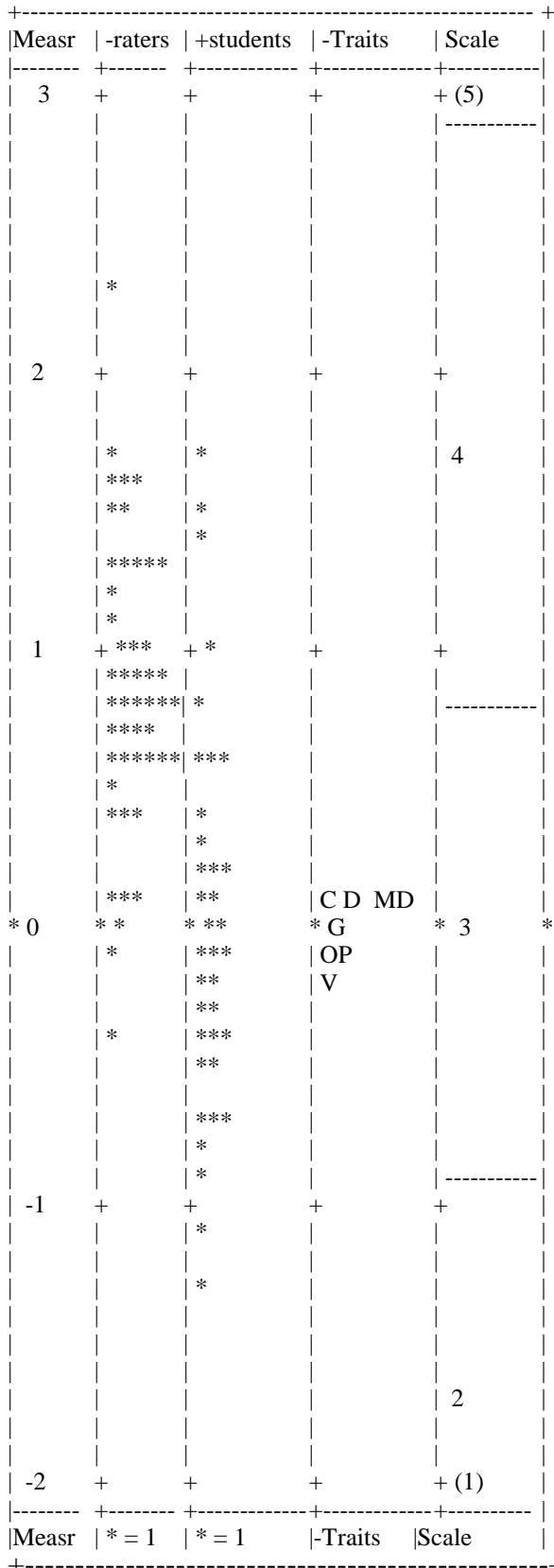
Figure 9 of the May workshop shows a wide range of student abilities, as expected the traits (or subscales) were of very similar difficulty and centred around zero (0). In the subscales none are being marked easier or harder than the others, which is highly desirable. The only concern here, is that too many raters were rating too harshly compared to others. That is, too many had logit scores beyond one. After individual feedback to raters, many were able to adjust their ratings and this resulted in less variation amongst raters in the May workshop as presented in Figure 9. In addition to this, the fit statistics generated in the vast majority of cases on both workshops were well within the recognised criteria. The Facets software also generated some classical measures of reliability, all of which were satisfactory

Figure 9:   May workshop all facet vertical "rulers"

```
+------------------------------------------------------------------ +
| Measr |    -raters    | +students   | -Traits  | Scale   |
|------------ +---------------+-----------------+----------- +----------- |
|  5     +              +             +          + (5)     |
|        |              |             |          |         |
|        |              |             |          |         |
|        |              |             |          |         |
|  4     +              + .           +          +         |
|        |              |             |          |----------- |
|        |              | .           |          |         |
|        |              | *.          |          |         |
|  3     +              + .           +          +         |
|        |              | .           |          |         |
|        |              | *.          |          | 4       |
|        |              | **          |          |         |
|  2     +              + ***.        +          +         |
|        |              |*****.       |          |         |
|        |***           |****  .      |          |         |
|        |*****         |*****  .      |         |----------- |
|  1     + ******       + *****       +          +         |
|        |**            |******.      |          |         |
|        |*****         |******       |MD        |         |
|        |**            |*****  .     |C         |         |
*  0     * ********     * *******.    *D  G      * 3       *
|        |*****         |*****   .    |OP  V     |         |
|        |****          |*.           |          |         |
|        |**            |***  .       |          |         |
| -1     + ***          + **          +          +         |
|        |              |***  .       |          |----------- |
|        |*             |**  .        |          |         |
|        |              |**           |          |         |
| -2     +              + **          +          +         |
|        |              |*.           |          |         |
|        |              |.            |          | 2       |
|        |              |**           |          |         |
| -3     +              + *.          +          +         |
|        |              |*            |          |         |
|        |              |.            |          |         |
|        |              |.            |          |----------- |
| -4     +              +             +          +         |
|        |              |*.           |          |         |
|        |              |.            |          |         |
|        |              |             |          |         |
| -5     +              + *           +          +         |
|        |              |.            |          |         |
|        |              |.            |          |         |
|        |              |.            |          |         |
| -6     +              +             +          + (1)     |
|------------ +--------------- +----------------- +----------- +----------- |
| Measr | * = 1        | * = 3          | -Traits  | Scale   |
+------------------------------------------------------------------ +
```
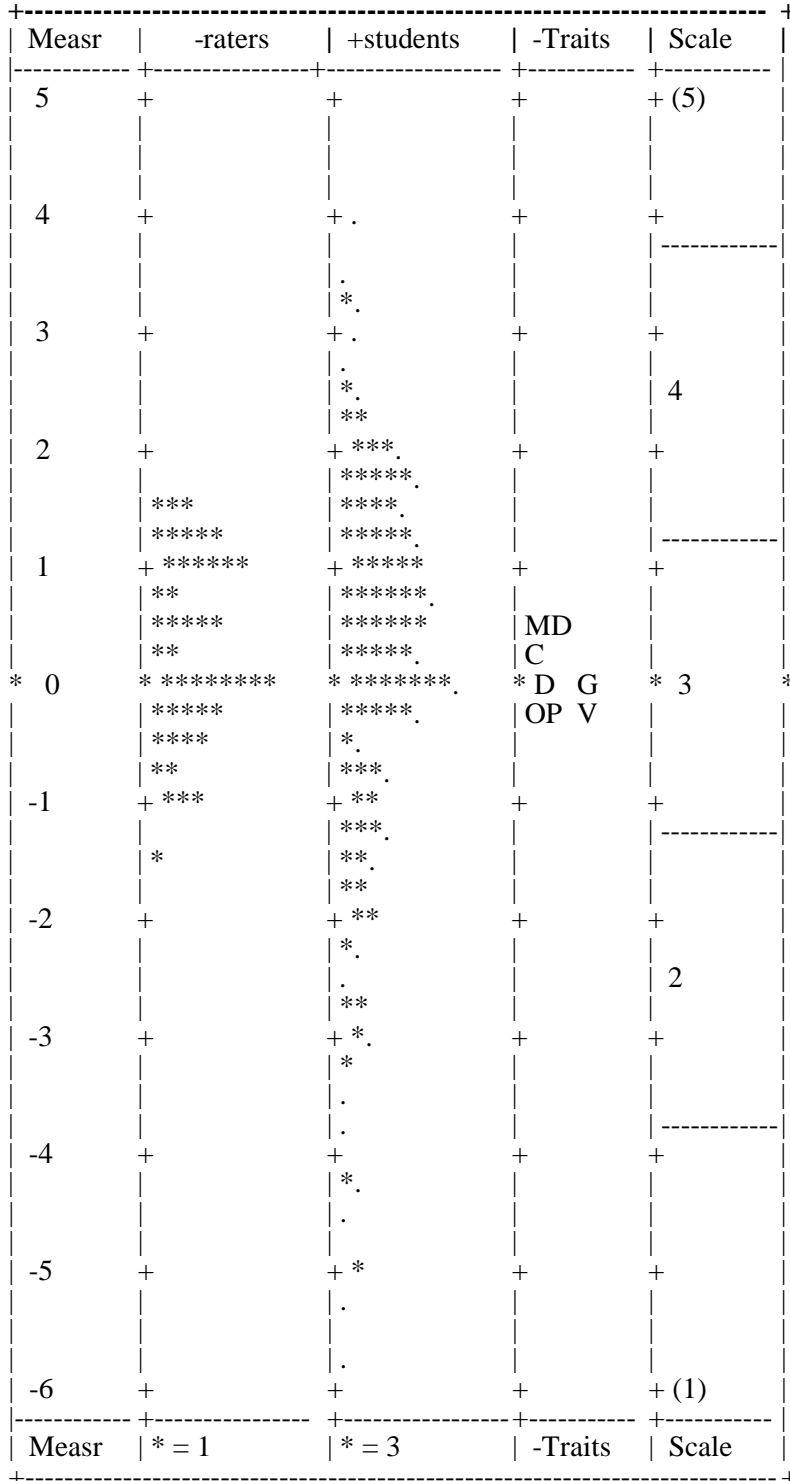
Our initial analyses strongly indicate the rating scale developed is reliable. Further results indicating that the rating scale is sound are derived from the progressions of student scores from years 1 to 8, ie, the overall results of students' scores from the ratings undertaken in the May workshop (Figure 9).

Figure 10:   Boxplots of mean student ratings by year level
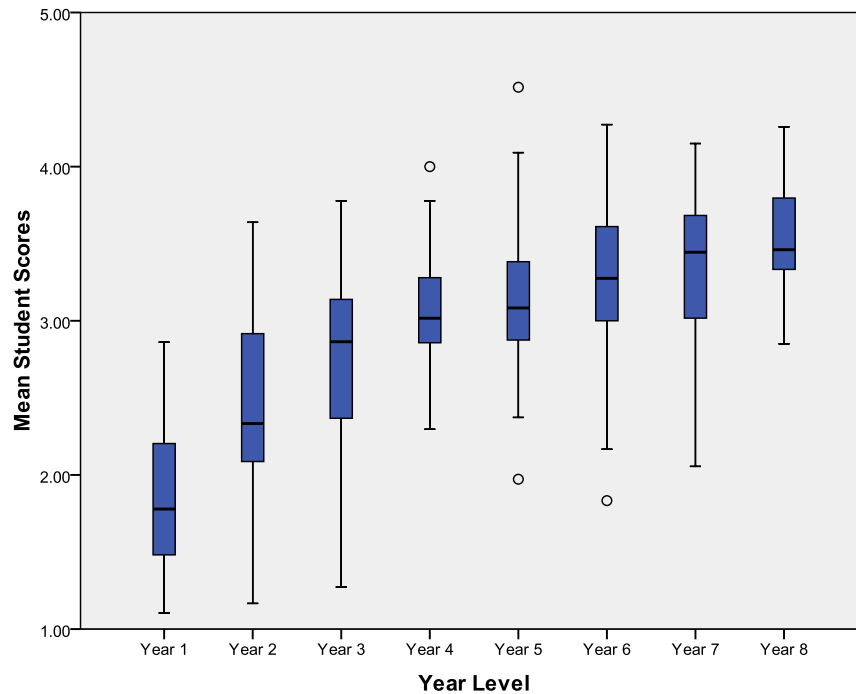
The boxes in Figure 10 are known as box plots. The lines at the top and bottom of each line are known as hinges and represent values up to 1.5 times the Interquartile range, ie, the distance between the top and bottom of each box. The black line in each box is the median value. The top of the box is the upper quartile and the bottom is the lower quartile, ie, the box range covers from the 25th percentile to the 75th percentile. The spots represent "outliers", values beyond 1.5 times the Interquartile range.

Figure 10 shows the overall performance of each year level from year one to year eight. The median scores (the black bands in the boxes) increase by year levels. As expected, student scores increase by year levels. In other words, generally the older the student, the higher the language proficiency (mean) score.

It can be seen that the maximum score for year 1 students was just below 3. At year 8, the lowest student score is just over 2.5 and the highest score was around 4.2. The most rapid increases in scores are in years 1 to 3. The gains in student scores in years 4 to 8 consistently increase but not as steep or as much as in the earlier years.

Ratings of the oral proficiency task

This section reports the result of the student oral proficiency results based on a trial undertaken in April and early May 2010. Data presented derives from; a student details questionnaire, a teacher questionnaire, and student task feedback questionnaire, and the actual results of the oral proficiency task. Two hundred and seventy student scripts were able to be marked in two workshops held in Auckland in May 2010.

Student numbers by year level and gender

Table 12 presents the 270 students by year level and gender.

Table 12:   Students by year level and gender

Year	Total	Female	Male	Missing Data
1	30	12	16	2
2	38	16	17	5
3	36	21	13	2
4	35	14	20	1
5	36	18	15	3
6	40	15	24	1
7	33	13	18	2
8	24	13	9	2

There were 18 students for which no data on gender was provided. The number of identifiable female students was 122 (48%), and the number of males was 132 (52%).

Student age

Table 13 presents students age in years.

Table 13:   Students age

Age (years)	N
5	30
6	32
7	35
8	30
9	30
10	36
11	31
12	17

There were 29 students with no age data.

Student ethnic identification

Table 14 presents student ethnic identification.

Table 14:   Student ethnic identification

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Missing	15	5.6	5.6	5.6
Māori	214	79.3	79.3	84.8
Māori, Pākehā	18	6.7	6.7	91.5
Maori, Pākehā, Other	5	1.9	1.9	93.3
Māori, Other	16	5.9	5.9	99.3
Pākehā	1	.4	.4	99.6
Other	1	.4	.4	100.0
Total	**270**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

There were only two non-Māori students. Others included Cook Island 7, Samoan 6, Tongan 2, Niuean 2, Japanese 1, Finnish 1, Laotian 1, and two others not stated.

Student Iwi Affiliation

Table 15 presents student primary and secondary iwi affiliation.

Table 15:   Student primary and secondary iwi affiliations

Primary Iwi	N	%	Secondary Iwi	N	%
Ngati Kahungunu	34	12.6	Ngapuhi	26	9.6
Tuhoe	21	7.8	Ngati Kahungunu	16	5.9
Ngati Porou	20	7.4	Ngati Tuwharetoa	14	5.2
Ngapuhi	19	7.0	Te Arawa	11	4.1
Ngati Awa	15	5.6	Ngati Maniapoto	10	3.7
Te Rarawa	15	5.6	Ngati Porou	10	3.7
Tainui	12	4.4	Te Rarawa	9	3.3
Waikato	9	3.3	Tuhoe	9	3.3
Ngati Haua	8	3.0	Tainui	7	2.6
Te Arawa	8	3.0	Te Whanau a Apanui	6	2.2
Ngai Tahu	7	2.6	Te Aupouri	5	1.9
Ngati Tuwharetoa	7	2.6	Ngati Kahu	4	1.5
Ngati Mahanga	5	1.9	Ngati Pikiao	3	1.1
Whakatohea	5	1.9	Ngati Ranginui	3	1.1
Ngati Maniapoto	4	1.5	Ngati Ruanui	3	1.1
Ngati Pukenga	4	1.5	Rangitane	3	1.1
Te Atihau o Paparangi	4	1.5	Waikato	3	1.1
Ngati Kahu	3	1.1	Whakatohea	3	1.1
Ngati Kuri	3	1.1	Ngai Tahu	2	.7
Ngati Pikiao	3	1.1	Ngai Tamanuhiri	2	.7
Ngati Rangiwewehi	3	1.1	Ngati Awa	2	.7
Ngati Raukawa	3	1.1	Ngati Pukenga	2	.7
Rongomaiwahine	3	1.1	Ngati Raukawa	2	.7
Te Aupouri	3	1.1	Ngati Tama	2	.7
Ngati Rongo	2	.7	Ngati Toa	2	.7
Ngati Wai	2	.7	Ngati Wai	2	.7
Ngati Whatua	2	.7	Ngati Whanaunga	2	.7
Tapuika	2	.7	Hauraki	1	.4
Te Patutatahi	2	.7	Hikairo	1	.4
Muriwhenua	1	.4	Marutuahu	1	.4
Ngai Tahunmakakanui	1	.4	Nga Rauru	1	.4
Ngaitakoto	1	.4	Nga Wairiki	1	.4
Ngati Hineuru	1	.4	Ngai Te Rangi	1	.4
Ngati Paoa	1	.4	Ngai Tuhoe	1	.4
Ngati Wairere	1	.4	Ngaiterangi	1	.4
Ngati Whanaunga	1	.4	Ngararanui	1	.4
Rereahu	1	.4	Ngati Apa	1	.4
Rongowhakaaata	1	.4	Ngati Hari	1	.4
Te Aitanga a Hauiti	1	.4	Ngati Hikairo	1	.4
Te Aitanga a Mahaki	1	.4	Ngati Hine	1	.4

Primary Iwi	N	%
Te Paatu	1	.4
Te Whanau a Apanui	1	.4
Waitaha	1	.4
Whanganui	1	.4

Secondary Iwi	N	%
Ngati Hinemanu	1	.4
Ngati Kuri	1	.4
Ngati Manawa	1	.4
Ngati Manu	1	.4
Ngati Maru	1	.4
Ngati Moko	1	.4
Ngati Mutunga	1	.4
Ngati Paoa	1	.4
Ngati Rangitane	1	.4
Ngati Tamatera	1	.4
Ngati Tara	1	.4
Ngati Uenuku	1	.4
Ngati Wairere	1	.4
Ngati Whare	1	.4
Ngati Whatua	1	.4
Pakakohi	1	.4
Rangitihi	1	.4
Ruapani	1	.4
Takatumu (Rarotonga)	1	.4
Te Ati Awa	1	.4
Te Atihau o Paparangi	1	.4

The more numerous iwi including Ngati Kahungunu, Ngati Porou, and Ngapuhi accounted for most student affiliations. Affiliations are mostly based around Northern, Central and East Coast iwi.

Student attendance at Kōhanga Reo

Table 16 presents student attendance at Kōhanga Reo.

Table 16:   Student years at Kōhanga Reo

Attendance	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
did not attend	25	9.7	9.7
0–1 years	15	5.8	15.6
1–2 years	22	8.6	24.1
2–3 years	54	21.0	45.1
3–4 years	46	17.9	63.0
4–5 years	95	37.0	100.0
Total	**257**	**100.0**	

Of the 257 questionnaires, less than 10% of students had not attended a Kōhanga Reo. Over 50% of these students had attended Kōhanga Reo for three years or more. In other words, Kōhanga Reo attendance was high.

Student language use at home

Table 17 presents students' Māori language use at home.

Table 17:   Students' Māori language use at home

Category Speak Māori at home	Child		Whānau	
	N	Per cent	N	Per cent
Yes	96	35.6	86	31.9
No	14	5.2	13	4.8
Use of Māori at home	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Usually	44	16.3	45	16.7
Sometimes	183	67.8	178	65.9

Although a reasonable proportion of students were reported as being able to speak Māori at home (35.6 %), only a small proportion usually spoke Māori at home (16.3%). Whānau use of Māori language at home reflected the students' use of Māori at home.

Whānau first language and Māori language use at home

Table 18 presents first language and Māori language use at home of students' whānau.

Table 18:   First language and whānau Māori language use at home

Person	First language			Use of Māori at home		
	Māori	English	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
Whaea (Mother)	20	223	9	47	176	22
Papa (Father)	16	191	9	28	106	78
Kuia (Grandmother)	60	153	29	47	98	55
Koroua (Grandfather)	58	122	25	38	72	63
Taina (younger sibling)	36	95	13	41	70	26
Tuakana (older sibling)	43	116	7	38	85	41
Tuahine (sister)	34	87	6	28	76	16
Tungane (brother)	26	90	8	25	61	20
Kaitiaki (guardian)	18	179	10	42	149	13

The older generation (kuia/koroua) was reported as having a higher number of first language speakers of Māori and was more likely to use Māori at home always and usually compared to other whānau members. Females in all age groups reported slightly higher numbers of first language speakers of Māori than males.

Student schooling

One hundred and sixty five students were reported as being in immersion. Sixty-one were in bilingual units, 13 were reported as being in English-medium, and 18 were reported as 'other'. It was interesting to note also that sixty two students had at some time attended other schools prior to, and up to the time of the survey.

Student years in school types

Table 19 provides details on the number of years students had attended school types. The table depicts the types of Māori medium schools that the students had participated in during their time at school. The Māori medium column was for those respondents who were unsure of the Māori immersion types that the students had participated in. The '0' under the column Year represents those students who at the time of the survey started school in the second half of the year, and were aged between five and six.

Table 19:   Student years in school types

Years	Type of Schooling				
	KKM	Rumaki	Reorua	Auraki	Māori medium
0	118	195	227	217	3
1	11	3		3	32
2	19	10		4	34
3	18	7	1	3	46
4	14	3			43
5	17	4	1	1	39
6	13	5			34
7	7	2	1		19
8	2	1			5

Students had spent most years at either kura kaupapa Māori or Rumaki (immersion) both of which are forms of Māori medium education. Very few students had spent significant amounts of time at either bilingual schools/units (reorua) or English-medium schools (auraki).

Student Māori language use in class, outside of class, and outside of kura

Table 20 presents student language use in class, outside of class and outside of kura.

Table 20:   Student Māori language use in class, outside of class, and outside of kura

	Tamaiti language use		
	In Class	Outside Class	Outside Kura
Yes	169	125	79
No	3	16	19
Usually	58	49	28
Sometimes	28	65	72
Not known	12	15	72

As expected in class use of Māori language by students was high. The outside of class usage was less, and even less language was used outside of the kura, although there were a large number of students whose language use was not reported.

Student feedback on oral proficiency task

Table 21 provides student feedback on the oral proficiency task.

Table 21:   Student feedback on oral proficiency task

Question	Response		
	Yes (Āe)	Reasonable (Āhua)	No (Kāore)
He pai ngā whakahaere o te whakamātautau/aromatawai	184	58	14
He pai te roa o te whakamātautau/aromatawai	163	67	24
He pai noa ki a au kia hopukina taku reo ki runga i te rorohiko.	188	42	24
He pai noa ki a au te kōrero i ngā pikitia	177	64	11
I mārama ki a au, he whakamātautau/aromatawai tēnei.	192	41	16
I mārama ki a au, he whakamātautau/aromatawai reo-ā-waha tēnei.	197	41	14
I kōrerotia e au ngā pikitia.	212	36	4
I mārama ngā kaupapa kōrero o ngā pikitia.	139	89	24
He mahi pai tēnei hei whakakōrerorero tamariki.	193	52	6
He mahi pai tēnei hei whakamātautau/aromatawai i tōku reo-ā-waha.	198	43	11
He mahi pai tēnei hei whakaatu i tōku reo-ā-waha.	179	55	16

Students mostly agreed that the task was well administered, the length was appropriate, it was fine being recorded, and they thought it was fine to talk about the task pictures. The students mostly understood that this was an oral assessment. They were mostly able to talk about the pictures and generally understood the purpose of the pictures. Students generally agreed that this activity enabled children to talk, was appropriate for assessing oral language and gave them an opportunity to display their oral language skills.

Overall student results

Figure 11 provides a detailed measurement report of the students' ability performances, representing each year level from year one to year eight. Column 1 represents student identity, for example, the highest scoring student at year 1 was student 140. Column 2 presents the differences (measure) in ability, for example, year 1 ranged from to 0.03–5.66 logits (just over 5 logits) and the lowest scoring student at year 1 was student 10. Column 3 shows that the standard error *(S.E.)* at year 1 ranged from 0.09 to 0.76. The infit statistics (columns 4 and 5) indicate the extent to which the data representing the individual responses was not predicted accurately. The infit statistic is weighted and gives more impact to a person's unexpected response to an item that is close to the item or person's measure. The outfit statistic is unweighted and gives more impact to unexpected responses far from a person's or item's measure. The general rule for fit statistics (Bond, 2007) is that the infit and outfit mean squares should be >0.75 and <1.3. Values greater than 1.3 show significant misfit and values lower than 0.75 indicate significant overfit. Year one students' 184 and 186, for example show significant misfit. On the other hand year one students' 183 and 52 show overfit and could possibly, for example, have had prior content knowledge. The standardised *z* scores perform in a similar way to the "infit mean squared" statistics. The measurement for misfit should be <2 and for overfit >-2.

In conclusion, the overall range of students was satisfactory although there were some misfitting students. These were generally earlier year students with low scores or later year level students with low scores. Overall, the fit statistics were within expectations and the reliability was high. It must be emphasised that although each year is presented individually

in Figure 11, the overall statistical analysis is based on the total random sample of 270 students from year one to year eight.

Figure 11: May workshops, Round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num		Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure			*Zstd*		*Zstd*
Students		*S.E*	**MnSq**		**MnSq**	
140 Y1	0.03	0.26	1.64	2.3	1.64	2.3
139 Y1	-0.04	0.26	1.39	1.5	1.39	1.5
183 Y1	-0.97	0.26	0.64	-1.7	0.63	-1.7
2 Y1	-1.04	0.09	0.76	-3.1	0.76	-3.1
141 Y1	-1.19	0.26	1.74	2.7	1.73	2.7
185 Y1	-1.24	0.26	1.35	1.4	1.34	1.4
99 Y1	-1.75	0.21	1.41	2.0	1.42	2.0
95 Y1	-1.94	0.22	1.45	2.2	1.44	2.1
5 Y1	-2.07	0.1	1.04	0.5	1.04	0.5
51 Y1	-2.21	0.21	0.79	-1.2	0.8	-1.2
6 Y1	-2.38	0.1	0.83	-2.2	0.84	-2.0
184 Y1	-2.60	0.26	5.18	9.0	5.08	9.0
3 Y1	-2.70	0.1	0.99	0.0	0.97	-0.3
52 Y1	-2.76	0.22	0.59	-2.8	0.61	-2.6
9 Y1	-2.82	0.1	0.95	-0.5	0.94	-0.7
227 Y1	-2.96	0.21	0.9	-0.5	0.96	-0.2
54 Y1	-3.00	0.22	0.78	-1.3	0.81	-1.1
186 Y1	-3.17	0.27	2.17	4.1	2.15	4.1
229 Y1	-3.37	0.22	1.3	1.7	1.27	1.5
228 Y1	-3.37	0.22	0.84	-0.9	0.86	-0.8
97 Y1	-3.40	0.24	1.72	3.4	1.68	3.2
98 Y1	-3.76	0.25	1.11	0.6	1.15	0.8
8 Y1	-3.81	0.12	0.81	-2.3	0.8	-2.3
3 Y1	-4.16	0.13	1.08	0.8	0.98	-0.1
53 Y1	-4.24	0.27	1.1	0.5	1.01	0.1
1 Y1	-4.30	0.13	1.12	1.2	1.21	1.8
230 Y1	-4.91	0.76	1.11	0.3	1.44	0.8
7 Y1	-5.05	0.16	0.98	-0.1	0.82	-1.1
96 Y1	-5.25	0.37	0.82	-0.5	0.72	-0.7
10 Y1	-5.66	0.24	1.22	1.0	1.33	1.2

Figure 11(continued): May workshops, round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num		Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure			*Zstd*		*Zstd*
Students		*S.E*	MnSq		MnSq	
188 Y2	1.31	0.26	1.1	0.5	1.11	0.5
235 Y2	0.64	0.19	1.21	1.1	1.21	1.1
147 Y2	0.64	0.26	2.82	5.2	2.84	5.3
20 Y2	0.58	0.09	1.05	0.6	1.05	0.6
143 Y2	0.57	0.26	1.86	2.9	1.86	2.9
144 Y2	0.57	0.26	5.86	9.0	5.9	9.0
191 Y2	0.45	0.26	0.86	-0.5	0.86	-0.5
231 Y2	0.35	0.19	1.04	0.2	1.03	0.2
142 Y2	0.30	0.26	3.31	6.2	3.32	6.2
146 Y2	0.23	0.26	2.79	5.2	2.8	5.2
18 Y2	-0.17	0.09	0.94	-0.7	0.94	-0.7
187 Y2	-0.43	0.26	0.75	-1.0	0.75	-1.0
103 Y2	-0.64	0.23	1.98	3.8	1.99	3.8
13 Y2	-0.65	0.09	0.87	-1.6	0.87	-1.6
14 Y2	-0.71	0.09	0.75	-3.1	0.75	-3.1
190 Y2	-0.90	0.26	1.76	2.7	1.77	2.7
145 Y2	-0.98	0.26	1.91	3.2	1.9	3.2
19 Y2	-1.27	0.1	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
17 Y2	-1.34	0.09	0.72	-3.7	0.72	-3.8
55 Y2	-1.41	0.2	0.8	-1.1	0.8	-1.1
102 Y2	-1.51	0.23	1.55	2.4	1.55	2.4
12 Y2	-1.60	0.1	1.1	1.1	1.11	1.2
11 Y2	-1.79	0.1	0.89	-1.3	0.89	-1.3
58 Y2	-1.80	0.22	0.78	-1.2	0.79	-1.1
233 Y2	-1.84	0.2	0.61	-2.6	0.6	-2.7
232 Y2	-1.91	0.2	0.93	-0.3	0.92	-0.4
15 Y2	-1.94	0.1	0.8	-2.6	0.81	-2.5
56 Y2	-1.96	0.21	0.91	-0.4	0.91	-0.4
57 Y2	-2.35	0.21	0.53	-3.3	0.54	-3.2
189 Y2	-2.67	0.27	3.09	6.1	3.05	6.0
16 Y2	-2.70	0.1	0.88	-1.5	0.88	-1.6
100 Y2	-3.07	0.23	1.77	3.6	1.81	3.8
101 Y2	-3.07	0.23	1.55	2.7	1.51	2.6
234 Y2	-4.91	0.76	1.11	0.3	1.44	0.8

Figure 11(continued): May workshops, round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num		Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure			*Zstd*		*Zstd*
Students		*S.E*	MnSq		MnSq	
153 Y3	1.97	0.26	1.71	2.6	1.7	2.6
197 Y3	1.63	0.26	0.6	-2.0	0.61	-1.9
196 Y3	1.44	0.26	0.76	-1.0	0.76	-1.0
59 Y3	1.14	0.2	1.08	0.4	1.06	0.3
148 Y3	1.11	0.26	2.21	3.8	2.21	3.8
64 Y3	0.98	0.2	1.31	1.5	1.29	1.5
152 Y3	0.84	0.26	1.37	1.4	1.37	1.4
25 Y3	0.83	0.09	0.95	-0.5	0.95	-0.5
241 Y3	0.75	0.19	0.87	-0.7	0.87	-0.7
193 Y3	0.52	0.26	0.88	-0.4	0.89	-0.4
236 Y3	0.42	0.19	0.6	-2.6	0.6	-2.6
104 Y3	0.28	0.21	1.93	3.8	1.92	3.8
62 Y3	0.22	0.2	1.1	0.5	1.09	0.5
107 Y3	0.05	0.21	0.56	-2.6	0.56	-2.6
21 Y3	0.04	0.09	0.84	-1.9	0.84	-1.9
195 Y3	-0.02	0.26	0.93	-0.2	0.93	-0.2
61 Y3	-0.02	0.2	0.75	-1.4	0.75	-1.4
194 Y3	-0.22	0.26	1.43	1.6	1.43	1.6
60 Y3	-0.27	0.2	0.94	-0.2	0.94	0-.2
109 Y3	-0.34	0.22	0.92	-0.3	0.92	-0.3
192 Y3	-0.43	0.26	1.71	2.5	1.71	2.4
149 Y3	-0.58	0.26	3.05	5.9	3.05	5.9
22 Y3	-0.71	0.09	0.78	-2.8	0.78	-2.7
24 Y3	-0.96	0.09	0.79	-2.6	0.79	-2.6
239 Y3	-1.16	0.19	0.78	-1.3	0.77	-1.3
238 Y3	-1.20	0.19	0.56	-3.0	0.56	-3.0
237 Y3	-1.25	0.2	0.62	-2.4	0.62	-2.4
150 Y3	-1.33	0.26	1.8	2.9	1.79	2.9
106 Y3	-1.39	0.21	0.89	-0.5	0.89	-0.5
65 Y3	-1.45	0.2	0.59	-2.7	0.59	-2.7
23 Y3	-1.66	0.1	0.88	-1.5	0.88	-1.5
151 Y3	-2.37	0.3	0.44	-2.9	0.48	-2.8
108 Y3	-2.86	0.23	1.29	1.5	1.38	2.0
63 Y3	-3.05	0.22	0.82	-1.0	0.82	-1.0
105 Y3	-4.26	0.28	0.93	-0.3	0.89	-0.4
240 Y3	-4.61	0.28	0.78	-1.0	0.82	-0.6

Figure 11(continued): May workshops, round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num		Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure			*Zstd*		*Zstd*
Students		*S.E*	MnSq		MnSq	
156 Y4	2.24	0.26	2.04	3.6	2.03	3.6
200 Y4	2.16	0.26	0.87	-0.5	0.87	-0.5
157 Y4	2.04	0.26	1.02	0.1	1.03	0.1
247 Y4	1.70	0.19	0.82	-1.1	0.81	-1.1
203 Y4	1.63	0.26	0.75	-1.1	0.75	-1.1
202 Y4	1.24	0.26	0.96	0.0	0.96	0.0
69 Y4	1.18	0.2	0.6	-2.5	0.6	-2.5
70 Y4	1.10	0.2	0.58	-2.7	0.58	-2.7
30 Y4	0.93	0.09	1.25	2.7	1.25	2.7
154 Y4	0.91	0.26	0.71	-1.2	0.71	-1.2
199 Y4	0.79	0.32	1.42	1.4	1.42	1.3
110 Y4	0.59	0.21	0.62	-2.2	0.62	-2.2
244 Y4	0.57	0.19	1.19	1.0	1.19	1.0
159 Y4	0.50	0.26	0.75	-1.0	0.75	-1.0
242 Y4	0.49	0.19	0.92	-0.3	0.92	-0.3
243 Y4	0.46	0.19	0.73	-1.6	0.72	-1.6
67 Y4	0.42	0.2	0.98	0.0	0.98	0.0
112 Y4	0.28	0.22	0.71	-1.5	0.71	-1.5
115 Y4	0.23	0.21	0.88	-0.5	0.88	-0.5
27 Y4	0.20	0.09	0.81	-2.3	0.81	-2.3
246 Y4	0.09	0.19	0.87	-0.6	0.88	-0.6
29 Y4	0.06	0.1	1.11	1.2	1.11	1.2
66 Y4	0.06	0.2	1.15	0.8	1.15	0.8
28 Y4	0.04	0.09	0.83	-2.1	0.83	-2.0
71 Y4	-0.02	0.2	1.66	3.0	1.66	3.0
198 Y4	-0.03	0.37	0.61	-1.2	0.61	-1.2
26 Y4	-0.07	0.1	0.75	-2.9	0.75	-2.9
245 Y4	-0.13	0.19	0.9	-0.5	0.9	-0.5
114 Y4	-0.22	0.21	1.03	0.1	1.03	0.2|
155 Y4	-0.37	0.26	0.48	-2.7	0.48	-2.7
158 Y4	-0.44	0.26	0.69	-1.4	0.69	-1.4
68 Y4	-0.67	0.2	0.71	-1.7	0.71	-1.7
201 Y4	-0.70	0.26	1.77	2.7	1.77	2.7
111 Y4	-0.76	0.21	0.39	-4.1	0.39	-4.1
113 Y4	-1.53	0.21	1.12	0.6	1.12	0.7

Figure 11(continued): May workshops, round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num		Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure			*Zstd*		*Zstd*
Students		*S.E*	**MnSq**		**MnSq**	
253 Y5	2.89	0.2	0.73	-1.8	0.72	-1.8
76 Y5	2.10	0.2	0.81	-1.0	0.81	-1.1
75 Y5	1.82	0.2	0.86	-0.7	0.86	-0.7
248 Y5	1.77	0.19	1.14	0.8	1.13	0.8
77 Y5	1.42	0.2	0.52	-3.1	0.53	-3.1
251 Y5	1.41	0.19	0.91	-0.5	0.91	-0.4
204 Y5	1.18	0.26	0.87	-0.5	0.87	-0.5
206 Y5	1.18	0.31	1.05	0.2	1.06	0.2
73 Y5	1.18	0.2	0.75	-1.4	0.76	-1.4
249 Y5	1.04	0.19	0.88	-0.6	0.88	-0.6
165 Y5	0.98	0.26	1.36	1.4	1.37	1.4
121 Y5	0.82	0.22	0.68	-1.7	0.68	-1.7
116 Y5	0.68	0.21	1.07	0.4	1.06	0.3
118 Y5	0.68	0.21	0.52	-2.9	0.53	-2.8
35 Y5	0.35	0.09	0.87	-1.5	0.87	-1.5
32 Y5	0.30	0.09	0.65	-4.6	0.65	-4.6
74 Y5	0.30	0.2	1.58	2.7	1.58	2.7
209 Y5	0.25	0.26	0.84	-0.6	0.84	-0.6
72 Y5	0.18	0.2	1.25	1.3	1.25	1.3
250 Y5	0.13	0.19	0.71	-1.7	0.71	-1.7
207 Y5	0.12	0.26	1.26	1.0	1.26	1.0
117 Y5	0.05	0.21	0.65	-2.0	0.65	-2.0
119 Y5	0.05	0.21	0.61	-2.2	0.61	-2.0
120 Y5	0.05	0.21	0.6	-2.3	0.59	-2.3
205 Y5	-0.02	0.26	1.2	0.8	1.2	0.8
160 Y5	-0.04	0.26	1.44	1.7	1.43	1.7
31 Y5	-0.14	0.1	0.79	-2.5	0.79	-2.5
161 Y5	-0.17	0.26	1.51	1.9	1.51	1.9
164 Y5	-0.37	0.26	2.46	4.5	2.46	4.5
162 Y5	-0.64	0.26	1.29	1.2	1.29	1.2
33 Y5	-0.71	0.09	0.87	-1.6	0.87	-1.5
34 Y5	-1.23	0.09	0.93	-0.8	0.93	-0.8
208 Y5	-1.44	0.26	4.21	8.1	4.22	8.1
163 Y5	-1.89	0.27	3.45	7.0	3.44	7.0

Figure 11(continued): May workshops, round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num			Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure				Zstd		Zstd
Students		S.E	MnSq			MnSq	
257 Y6	3.38	0.21	0.84	-1.0	0.82	-1.1
83 Y6	2.50	0.2	0.86	-0.8	0.87	-0.7
258 Y6	2.21	0.19	0.81	-1.2	0.8	-1.2
210 Y6	1.96	0.26	0.78	-1.0	0.79	-0.9
36 Y6	1.92	0.09	0.96	-0.4	0.96	-0.4
254 Y6	1.88	0.19	0.79	-1.3	0.79	-1.3
260 Y6	1.84	0.19	0.59	-2.8	0.6	-2.8
259 Y6	1.77	0.19	0.57	-3.0	0.57	-3.0
256 Y6	1.73	0.19	0.65	-2.3	0.65	-2.3
255 Y6	1.66	0.19	0.66	-2.2	0.66	-2.2
126 Y6	1.52	0.21	0.84	-0.8	0.85	-0.8
78 Y6	1.42	0.2	0.49	-3.4	0.5	-3.4
79 Y6	1.42	0.2	1.03	0.2	1.03	0.2
170 Y6	1.38	0.26	1.03	0.1	1.03	0.2
82 Y6	1.37	0.22	1.04	0.2	1.04	0.2
215 Y6	1.24	0.26	2.02	3.5	2.02	3.6
216 Y6	1.24	0.26	3.14	6.2	3.14	6.2
81 Y6	1.10	0.2	0.85	-0.7	0.85	-0.8
128 Y6	0.92	0.22	0.95	-0.1	0.95	-0.1
125 Y6	0.81	0.21	1.11	0.6	1.11	0.5
80 Y6	0.74	0.2	0.65	-2.1	0.65	-2.1
40 Y6	0.69	0.09	0.96	-0.4	0.96	-0.4
127 Y6	0.64	0.21	1.02	0.1	1.01	0.1
169 Y6	0.64	0.26	0.52	-2.3	0.52	-2.3
124 Y6	0.59	0.21	1.36	1.7	1.35	1.6
213 Y6	0.58	0.26	0.92	-0.2	0.92	-0.2
123 Y6	0.55	0.21	0.9	-0.4	0.89	-0.5
84 Y6	0.50	0.21	0.71	-1.6	0.7	-1.6
122 Y6	0.46	0.21	0.91	-0.4	0.9	-0.4
39 Y6	0.09	0.09	0.72	-3.6	0.72	-3.6
38 Y6	0.05	0.09	0.73	-3.4	0.73	-3.4
214 Y6	-0.10	0.37	1.95	2.3	1.94	2.2
37 Y6	-0.22	0.09	0.99	0.0	0.99	0.0
212 Y6	-0.22	0.26	1.92	3.0	1.91	3.0
168 Y6	-0.71	0.26	2.64	5.0	2.63	5.0
171 Y6	-0.98	0.26	2.97	5.8	2.96	5.7
211 Y6	-1.24	0.26	2.84	5.4	2.85	5.5
167 Y6	-1.26	0.26	2.26	4.2	2.28	4.2
166 Y6	-1.39	0.26	2.51	4.8	2.52	4.8
172 Y6	-2.25	0.27	2.3	4.5	2.31	4.6

Figure 11(continued): May workshops, round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num		Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure			*Zstd*		*Zstd*
Students		*S.E*	**MnSq**		**MnSq**	
89 Y7	3.17	0.21	0.94	-0.3	0.94	-0.3
263 Y7	2.81	0.2	0.88	-0.7	0.87	-0.7
134 Y7	2.58	0.23	1.18	0.9	1.16	0.8
86 Y7	2.30	0.2	0.81	-1.1	0.83	-1.0
262 Y7	2.17	0.19	0.81	-1.1	0.81	-1.2
87 Y7	2.02	0.2	0.91	-0.4	0.91	-0.4
88 Y7	1.98	0.2	0.78	-1.2	0.78	-1.3
266 Y7	1.95	0.19	1.01	0.1	1.01	0.1
265 Y7	1.84	0.19	0.68	-2.0	0.68	-2.1
222 Y7	1.83	0.26	1.05	0.2	1.04	0.2
264 Y7	1.73	0.19	0.81	-1.1	0.81	-1.1
85 Y7	1.70	0.2	0.58	-2.7	0.58	-2.7
133 Y7	1.66	0.21	0.89	-0.5	0.89	-0.5
218 Y7	1.44	0.26	2.6	5.1	2.63	5.1
129 Y7	1.43	0.21	0.97	-0.1	0.97	-0.1
131 Y7	1.43	0.21	0.97	0.0	0.97	0.0
132 Y7	1.30	0.21	0.4	-4.0	0.4	-4.1
41 Y7	1.29	0.1	0.99	0.0	0.99	-0.1
176 Y7	1.11	0.26	1.3	1.2	1.28	1.1
130 Y7	1.04	0.21	0.85	-0.7	0.85	-0.7
178 Y7	0.98	0.26	1.33	1.3	1.34	1.3
175 Y7	0.77	0.26	1.11	0.5	1.11	0.5
261 Y7	0.64	0.19	0.72	-1.7	0.72	-1.7
44 Y7	0.36	0.1	1.01	0.1	1.01	0.1
45 Y7	0.31	0.1	0.78	-2.5	0.77	-2.6
42 Y7	0.17	0.1	0.68	-4.0	0.68	-4.0
219 Y7	-0.16	0.26	1.1	0.4	1.1	0.4
174 Y7	-0.17	0.26	1.39	1.5	1.39	1.5
217 Y7	-0.22	0.26	2.77	5.0	2.75	4.9
220 Y7	-0.22	0.26	1.74	2.5	1.74	2.5
43 Y7	-0.30	0.1	0.7	-3.6	0.7	-3.6
177 Y7	-0.44	0.26	0.94	-0.1	0.94	-0.1
173 Y7	-1.67	0.27	1.34	1.4	1.33	1.4
221 Y7	-2.27	0.37	1.43	1.2	1.44	1.3

Figure 11(continued) May workshops, round 1 and 2, student measurement (arranged by n)

Num		Model	Infit		Outfit	
	Measure			*Zstd*		*Zstd*
Students		*S.E*	MnSq		MnSq	
48 Y8	3.36	0.1	1.2	2.2	1.19	2.1
92 Y8	3.30	0.21	0.97	-0.1	0.99	0.0
269 Y8	3.29	0.2	0.85	-0.9	0.9	-0.6
135 Y8	2.64	0.22	1.06	0.3	1.05	0.3
270 Y8	2.62	0.19	0.97	-0.1	0.98	0.0
90 Y8	2.38	0.21	0.59	-2.5	0.58	-2.6
136 Y8	2.14	0.21	0.95	-0.1	0.95	-0.2
268 Y8	1.95	0.19	0.95	-0.2	0.94	-0.2
179 Y8	1.71	0.26	0.8	-0.8	0.8	-0.8
50 Y8	1.67	0.1	1.03	0.3	1.03	0.3
267 Y8	1.59	0.19	0.99	0.0	0.99	0.0
224 Y8	1.57	0.26	1.16	0.7	1.17	0.7
93 Y8	1.46	0.2	0.66	-2.0	0.66	-2.0
182 Y8	1.44	0.26	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6
94 Y8	1.30	0.2	0.49	-3.4	0.49	-3.4
138 Y8	1.29	0.22	0.78	-1.1	0.78	-1.1
91 Y8	1.26	0.2	1.12	0.6	1.12	0.6
137 Y8	1.17	0.21	0.85	-0.7	0.85	-0.7
223 Y8	1.04	0.26	2.89	5.6	2.89	5.6
181 Y8	0.91	0.26	0.79	-0.8	0.8	-0.8
226 Y8	0.91	0.26	0.86	-0.5	0.87	-0.5
47 Y8	0.86	0.1	0.84	-1.8	0.84	-1.8
225 Y8	0.72	0.26	1.28	1.1	1.28	1.1
46 Y8	0.67	0.1	0.93	-0.7	0.93	-0.7
180 Y8	0.50	0.26	0.45	-2.8	0.45	-2.8
49 Y8	-0.08	0.1	0.9	-1.0	0.9	-1.0
Mean	0.00	0.21	1.15	0.08	1.15	0.08

SD =1.75; Reliability =0.98.

Student Results by year level

Figure 12 presents box plots of the student scores by year levels.

Figure 12: Box plots of student scores by year levels
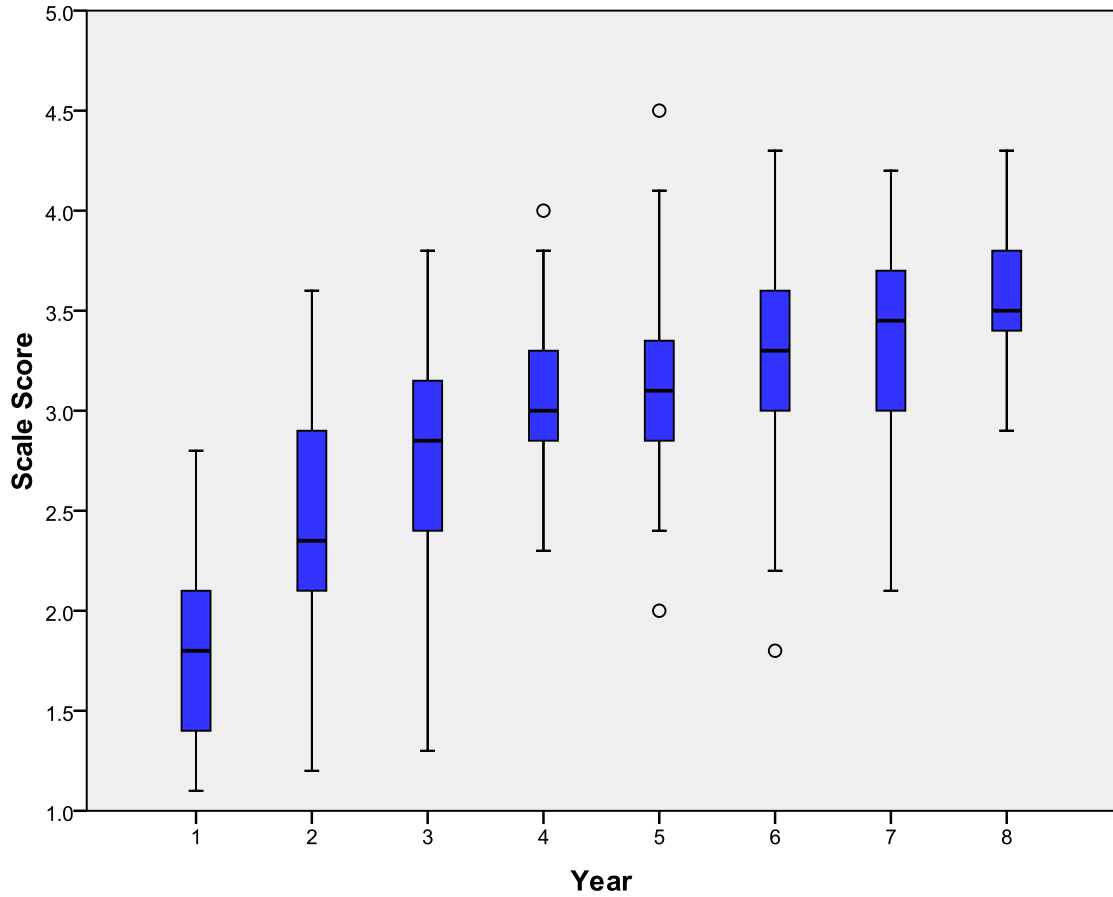
The black line in each box is the median value. The top of the box is the upper quartile and the bottom is the lower quartile, ie, the box range covers from the 25th percentile to the 75th percentile. The spots represent "outliers", values beyond 1.5 x the Interquartile range.

Figure 12 clearly demonstrates a rapid progression in years 1 to 3, but less so in years 4 to 8.

Student results by year level and gender

Figure 13 presents box plots of the student scores by year levels and gender.

Figure 13:   Box plots of student scores by year levels and gender
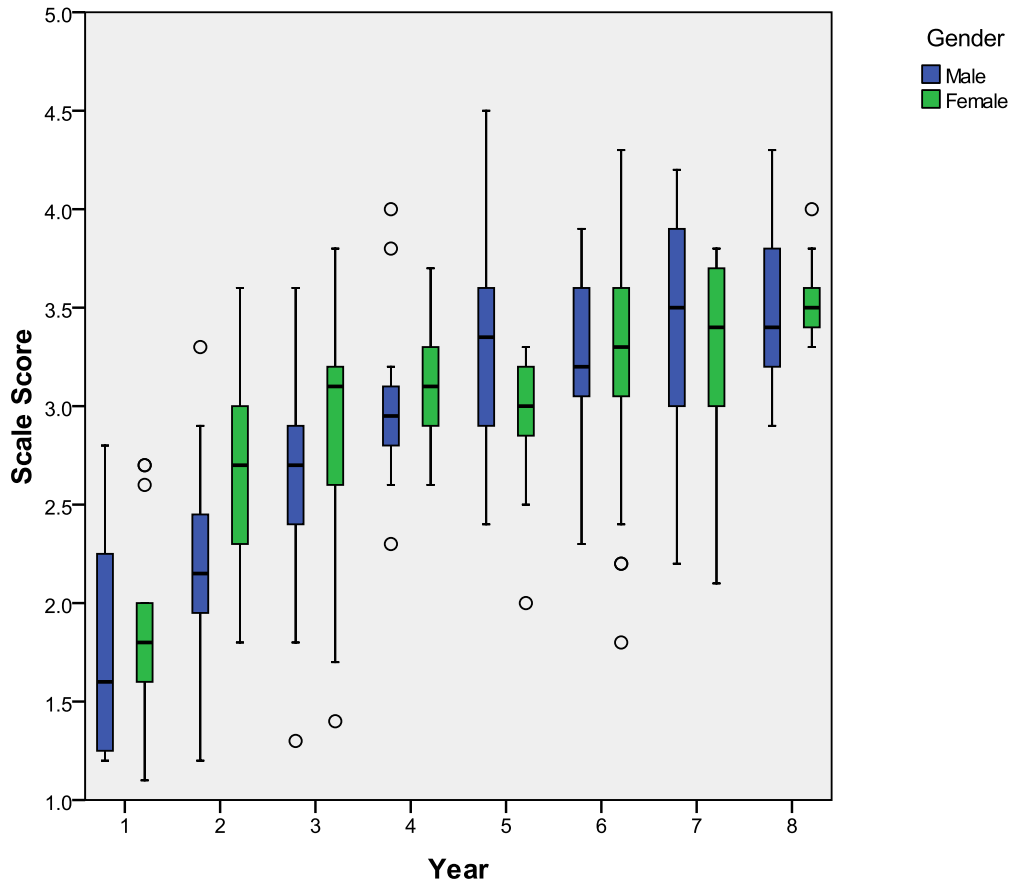
Figure 13 results are similar to figure 10. The year levels are divided by gender and therefore the small number per box plot means that the results needed to be interpreted cautiously.

We would expect females to be slightly ahead of males and that the difference is likely to decrease in the higher year levels. This pattern of females being slightly ahead is consistently found around the world. Females were generally slightly ahead of males in years 1 to 4, although the year 1 males have a wide variance as indicated by the long length of the box plot indicating a high inter-quartile range. Year 5 is the only level that females were below males. This may be simply the result of having a small sample size. In Years 6 to 8 there were little differences between males and females.

Establishing progressions

A two day hui was held on the 12–13 of July 2010 with a group of seven raters who had previously been involved in the two rater hui. Others in attendance and participating in the hui were Tuteira Pohatu (Advisory Committee) and the Reo-ā-Waha research team members. The task over the two days was to analyse in detail the oral language samples identified to represent the year one to year eight levels.

After a brief mihimihi and outline of the aims of the hui analysis began on the sound-files identified by the team's statistician. The examples for analysis were based on a range of student scores and year levels.

The analysis was conducted as a team. The major task was to identify and describe the features of each selection from year one to year eight and demonstrate the proficiency progression within each respective year, and at the different year levels. A difficult task since it was known already that there were likely aspects of language that would appear and/or overlap across the levels. The major challenge would be to demonstrate a difference as a progression.

The twelve member team comprised three kura kaupapa Māori principals, four kura kaupapa teachers, one Whakapiki i te Reo facilitator and five of the Kaiaka Reo: Reo-ā-waha team. Ten of the team were native speakers, the other three had native-like competency. Each of the team was familiar with second language acquisition theory and practice.

The team listened to the sound-files together then discussed the features of each of the oral language samples. The sound-files were replayed as many times as necessary, the descriptions using the scale worked and reworked until consensus was reached by the team to describe each progression. The resources used to support the description of progressions were the rating scale, teacher knowledge and experience, research team knowledge and experience, notes and descriptions of Māori language analysis from the two rater hui.

Results

Table 22 indicates the year levels and scores of the oral language samples whose ratings were chosen to establish each progression. The progression is a general description of a child's general performance. It is quite possible that the child may exhibit lower or higher attributes, within the scale levels but on average sits at the descriptor indicated.

Tables 23–30 profile with examples each year level from year one to year eight. Each year level has three progressions (1, 2 and 3) that illustrate language proficiencies that were demonstrated at the stated proficiency levels. However, the language analyses provided are not exclusive but indicative of each level based on the results of the study.

Table 31 suggests a format for reporting each child's oral language proficiency based on Tables 22–30.

Table 22:   Māori oral language progressions

	Oral production	Grammar	Vocabulary	Discourse	Māori Discourse Socio-linguistic competence SC	Cognition	Proficiency score	Proficiency
Y1P1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1.2	Very Limited
Y1P2	3	2	1	2	2	1	1.8	Limited
Y1P3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	Basic
Y2P1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	Very Limited
Y2P2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	Limited
Y2P3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	Basic
Y3P1	2	3	3	3	2	2	2.5	Limited - Basic
Y3P2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	Basic
Y3P3	4	3	4	4	4	4	3.8	Elementary
Y4P1	2	3	3	3	2	2	2.5	Limited - Basic
Y4P2	3	2	3	3	3	3	2.8	Basic
Y4P3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3.5	Basic - Elementary
Y5P1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	Limited
Y5P2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	Basic
Y5P3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	Basic
Y6P1	2	2	2	2	2	3	2.1	Limited
Y6P2	3	3	3	3	1	1	3.3	Basic
Y6P3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	Elementary
Y7P1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	Limited
Y7P2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	Basic
Y7P3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3.3	Basic
Y8P1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1.8	Limited
Y8P2	3	3	4	3	3	3	3.1	Basic
Y8P3	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	Native-like

Key
Y (Year)
Number (Year Level)
P (Progression)
Number (Progression level)

Table 23:   Year one progressions

Year 1: Progression 1

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Very limited production of language; intonation rise at end of phrase or sentence; some mispronunciation of some vowel blends eg, Mispronunciation of sound: 'eye' for *ai* as in kai; 'o' as in hot for the first syllable & second syllables in *whawhai* resulting in *fofeye*.
Grammar	Very limited	Nominal marker *he* & verbal *ka* evident eg, he ika, he inu, ka kimi.
Vocabulary	Very limited	1-5 five words lexical & linguistic; uses simple one to two word phrases/sentences; constant repetition of words when lacking vocabulary.
Discourse	Very limited	Repetition of simple sequence markers eg, *Ka…ka…ka….*
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Limited	Awareness of dialect eg, *whoatu* for hoatu.
Cognition	Very limited	Code-switches; requires prompting.
Overall Proficiency	Very limited	

Year 1: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Intonation rises at end of sentences; more natural flow; mispronunciation of sound: 'eye' for *ai* as in kai; 'ur' as in purr for *pupuri* resulting in *purrpurri*; mispronunciation of first syllable in *tangata* for *tāngata*.
Grammar	Limited	Tenses - tense development evident *kei te*, *ka*, *i* (can speak in past present, future); beginning to use pronouns although often incorrect eg, *mātou* for *māua*; mispronunciation of first syllable resulting in grammar error singular/plural eg, *tangata* being used for the plural.
Vocabulary	Very limited	Longer sentences; 3-4 ideas in one sentence; verbal phrases.
Discourse	Limited	Sequence markers starting to appear; i.e.; Inferencing eg, mental & experience verbs such as *hiahia*. Socio-linguistic (Māori discourse) awareness eg, *a ia*; beginning to use pronouns although incorrect; starting to sequence.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Limited	Dialectal awareness eg, *a ia*.
Cognition	Very limited	Code-switches
Overall Proficiency	Limited	

Year 1: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Fewer & shorter pauses between sentences; natural flow; mispronunciation occurring: eg, insertion of 'w' after the 't' resulting in twoa for toa; aspirated *t* as in 'ten' results in the mispronunciation of Māori words where the syllable begins with *t* & followed by the vowels or vowel blends starting with *a, e & o* (tātou, te, tēnei tohu).
Grammar	Basic	Longer sentences, use of prepositions; mixing of pronouns eg, *rātou, rāua, ia.*
Vocabulary	Basic	Better variety of vocabulary.
Discourse	Basic	Sets the context; able to sequence.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Basic	Wider use of pronouns eg, *rātou, rāua, ia.*
Cognition	Basic	Starts to self-correct eg, Ka pupuri ia – self corrects to "*ka pupuri rāua*"
Overall Proficiency	Basic	

Table 24:   Year two progressions

Year 2: Progression 1

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Very limited	Mispronunciation occurring: eg, insertion of 'w' after the 't' resulting in twoa for toa; aspirated *t* as in 'ten' eg, towa; omission of vowel/syllable at the end of a word eg, *teta* (weak h) for *tētahi;* assimilation of vowels/syllable eg, where the *a* following the *k* as in *tākaro* is lost.
Grammar	Very limited	Use of the causative *whaka*; use, misuse & omission of preposition *i* prevalent eg, *ki te tiki he;* use of *mō* for *ki*; omission of nominal marker *a* between *ki* & *ia*; Misuse of *me* for 'and' as a conjunction eg, *me he* …; pronoun confusion eg, *rātou/rāua*.
Vocabulary	Very limited	Limited vocabulary (3 nouns, - 10 words including lexical & linguistic).
Discourse	Very limited	Incomplete sentences eg, ideas left up in the air; limitations in the use of tense eg, overuse of *i* to introduce phrase.
Māori Discourse/ Socio linguistic Competence	Very limited	Aware of idiomatic expressions eg, Maramara rīwai.
Cognition	Very limited	Pauses & incomplete ideas – maybe lacking in vocabulary or requires time to think; teacher prompting required.
Overall Proficiency	Very limited	

Year 2: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Limited	Mispronunciation occurring: eg, insertion of 'w' after the 't' resulting in twoa for toa; aspirated *t* as in 'ten' eg, towa; omission of vowel/syllable at the end of a word eg, *teta* (weak h) for *tētahi;* assimilation of vowels/syllable eg, where the *a* following the *k* as in *tākaro* is lost.
Grammar	Limited	Misuse & omission of preposition *i* prevalent eg, *ki te tiki he;* use of *mō* for *ki*; omission of nominal marker *a* between *kia* & *ia*; Misuse of *me* for 'and' as a conjunction eg, *me he* …; pronoun confusion eg, *rātou/rāua*.
Vocabulary	Limited	Mispronunciation of first syllyable resulting in grammar error singular/plural eg, *tangata* being used for the plural *tāngata;* confusion in use of directional verbs homai/hoatu; omission of *ana* after verb.
Discourse	Limited	A variety of sequence & tense markers eg, *kei, i , ka, kei te*; Misuse (overgeneralisation) of *me* for 'and' as a conjunction eg, *me ka*, *me ka haere*, *me kei te haere*.
Māori Discourse/ Socio linguistic Competence	Limited	Although aware of the pronouns rātou/rāua there is confusion & misuse.
Cognition	Limited	Teacher prompting; seeks clarification; asks for vocabulary eg, *He aha te kupu mō te …?*
Overall Proficiency	Limited	

Year 2: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Mispronunciation occurring: eg, insertion of 'w' after the 'h' resulting in *hwoa* for hoa; aspirated *t* as in 'ten'; mispronunciation eg, *rawa* for *rāua*; *raroa* for *raro*.
Grammar	Basic	Omission of *ana* after *e hīkoi* eg, E hīkoi … au me taku hoa; Misuse of possessive markers *ā/ō;* pronoun confusion eg, rāua/rātou.
Vocabulary	Basic	Sentences extended to include negatives eg, *Kāre māua i mōhio, nā te mea kāre māua i mōhio i whea māua*. Generalised use of *haere* for movement eg, i *haere* tētahi ki raroa.
Discourse	Basic	Use of *nā te mea* (as a consequence of); negative *kāre*; Misuse (overgeneralisation) of *me* for 'and' as a conjunction eg, *he inu me he kai, me i*; Unable to frame 'how' questions eg, *pehea i mahi ngā mea*; difficulty explaining processes eg, *i haere tetahi ki raroa.*
Māori Discourse/ Socio linguistic Competence	Basic	Dialectal awareness eg, in use of negative *kāre;* correct repetitive use of pronoun *maua* in one sentence eg, *Kare māua i mōhio, nā te mea kāre māua i mōhio i whea māua*.
Cognition	Basic	Able to personalise by entering self into story eg, *Kare māua i mōhio, nā te mea kāre māua i mōhio i whea māua*.
Overall Proficiency	Basic	

1   More advanced discourse features appearing eg, use of possessives *ā/ō*, negatives *kāre*.
2   Discourse features such as condition-consequence eg, *nā te mea*

Table 25: Year three progressions

Year 3: Progression 1

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Very limited	Speech marked by "mmm" pauses.
Grammar	Basic	Aware of i/ki prepositions; omission of nominal marker *a*; pronoun confusion eg, *rātou* for *rāua*
Vocabulary	Basic	Aware of the use of reduplication in te reo Māori although usage might be inappropriate at times eg, *hokihoki, taputapu*.
Discourse	Basic	Ability to use words such as atu as comparative eg, *He pai ake; tētahi atu*
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Limited	Idiomatic usage eg, *Tētahi atu tama*.
Cognition	Limited	"Mmms" possibly cognitive pauses or due to lack of vocabulary. More creative use of language eg, able to personalise by entering self into story.
Overall Proficiency	Limited	

Year 3: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Requires careful listening; pronunciation variances; indiscriminate use of words such as *papa/pāpā*. Aspirated *t* in *tērā atu*.
Grammar	Basic	Pronoun misuse eg, *rātou* for *rāua*.
Vocabulary	Basic	Using quantifiers such as *tokorua* when counting people.
Discourse	Basic	More complex discourse markers eg, *arā* for exemplification, *engari* for contrast, *tērā atu* & *tētahi atu* to specify.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Basic	Aware of the Māori system of quantifying people, use of the prefix *toko*.
Cognition	Basic	Able to self correct.
Overall Proficiency	Basic	

Year 3: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Elementary	More confident oral production; occasional error *ai*, & aspirated *t*.
Grammar	Basic	Incorrect se of *me i* as a conjunction; self correcting pronouns.
Vocabulary	Elementary	Vocabulary expanding using words such as *ohorere*.
Discourse	Elementary	Awareness of question structuring eg, He aha te mate? Referencing: has difficulty differentiating & specifying people with the use of pronouns.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Elementary	Dialectal usage eg, *kourua*, *tiki*, *nā*; Occasional use of *kīwaha* such as *E hika*.
Cognition	Elementary	Confident in self correction & monitoring *reo*.
Overall Proficiency	Basic- Elementary	

Year 3:
At year 3 learners are heavily into the printed text in schools, consequently less focussed on oral language. Years 3 and 4 were the hardest to evaluate in the area of oral production.

Year 3-4
Becoming aware of the use of reduplication in te reo Māori, although usage might be inappropriate at times

Table 26:   Year four progressions

Year 4: Progression 1

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Limited	Sometimes vowels & consonants are unclear eg, *i* for *e* as in the *mone* instead of *moni;* mispronunciation eg, aspirated *t*, borderline 'ch' for *t* as in the pronunciation of the *t* in *tīkina;*
Grammar	Basic	Incorrect phrase order impacts on correct form in *I haere e rua ngā tamariki;* developing the use of the passive with the directional eg *tīkina atu;* developing the use of the gerund suffix; *mō he* for 'for a'; difficulty quantifying people.
Vocabulary	Basic	Quantifying occurring eg, *ngā tamariki e rua;* building words using gerunds eg, *hīkoi/ hikoinga;* able to use prefix *kai* as in *kairīwhi*.
Discourse	Basic	More complex sequencing indicators eg, *irā, kātahi ka, ka whakaaro, ka tīkina atu.*
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Limited	Spontaneous *mihi* initiated by student. Complex reduplication eg, *irā rā*. Difficulty quantifying evidenced.
Cognition	Limited	Self correction; very good at creating own words.
Overall Proficiency	Limited - Basic	

Year 4: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Aspirated *t* not evident.
Grammar	Limited	Pronoun confusion present.
Vocabulary	Basic	Using passive to create new vocabulary, though errors may occur.
Discourse	Basic	Can sequence using *tērā;* negating eg, *kāore e mōhio;* statement exemplification/ expansion eg, *anō, tētahi atu e pā ana, i te aha.*
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Basic	Knows how to mihi & incorporate into recount of events eg, *e pā ana, tērā, i tētahi wāhi*.
Cognition	Basic	Self correction occurring.
Overall Proficiency	Basic	

Year 4: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Pitch doesn't reflect uncertainty but too high for native-like speech.
Grammar	Elementary	More confident in phrasal structures, however confusion arises, incorrect interpretation of with eg, *me te moni;* pronoun confusion evident in second & third person.
Vocabulary	Elementary	More confident; reduplication eg, *kohi, kohikohi*.
Discourse	Basic	Using questions for sequencing.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Basic	Incorporating a *mihi* into the recount. Frequent use of terms of references related to *whanautanga*.
Cognition	Elementary	Confident proficiency; ability to personalise & step out of the recount situation.
Overall Proficiency	Basic Elementary	

Table 27:   **Year five progressions**

Year 5: Progression 1

Teacher comment: Generally, after Year 4, te reo Māori begins to plateau because the students are being exposed to, are hearing more English. More emphasis on reading and writing. Less emphasis on reading and writing and less on oral production. The children are not compelled to speak Māori more emphasis on reading and writing.

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Limited	Monotone & low pitch evident; aspirated *t,* mispronunciation of *ai* & *oa* as in *toa*.
Grammar	Limited	Omission of *e* after passive eg, *ka tīkina ia*; able to use *mā* & *nā* possessives, however, errors evident.
Vocabulary	Limited	Restricted vocabulary; repetitious content words eg, *tiki, haere.*
Discourse	Limited	Use of 'and *ka*' for sequencing events; overuse of *ka* as a sequence marker.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Limited	Evidence of dialect eg, *rapu.* Use of *mihi* in recount.
Cognition	Limited	Using direct & indirect speech. Long pauses to sort ideas.
Overall Proficiency	Limited	

Year 5: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Mispronunciation: eg, aspirated *t*, *pūpuri*, *ai*; failure to elongate initial vowel in first syllable in *tangata* for the intended plural form *tāngata,* in the sentence *i kimi ngā tangata.*
Grammar	Basic proficiency	Singular plural error eg, *ngā tangata*; pronoun confusion *rāua/tāua*.
Vocabulary	Basic proficiency	Inappropriate choice or lacking appropriate active process verbs eg, *kimi* for *kite*, *tiki*. Able to quantify people eg, using prefix *toko* in *tokorua*.
Discourse	Basic proficiency	A tendency to overuse of *ka* & *kei te* to sequence events; tense confusion in the use of *i* & *ka.* Process words cause difficulty.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Basic proficiency	Dialectal use eg *w'akaaro/whakaaro*; *ētehi/ētahi*. Awareness Māori pronouns eg, *rāua*.
Cognition	Basic proficiency;	Use of direct speech in text add interest. Little or no evidence of codeswitching.
Overall Proficiency	Basic Proficiency	

Year 5: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	Occasional mispronunciation: aspiration of 't' evident; , *maua* for *māua*.
Grammar	Basic	Use of *me* for 'and' as a connective eg, *i kite ahau me* …; attempts translation to convey meaning however the result in form is correct eg, *mō te aha ki te hoko* (what shall we buy).
Vocabulary	Basic	Limited vocabulary for emphasis eg, *hoki*; Confusion in the use of directional verbs *hoatu/homai*.
Discourse	Basic	Exemplification evident eg, use of *arā*. Evident of use of nā te mea.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence		Incorporated of mihi eg, *kia ora, te papai*, & *kua mutu*.
Cognition	Basic	More focus on self correction, difficulty with structuring questions.
Overall Proficiency	Basic	

Table 28: Year six progressions

Year 6: Progression 1

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Limited proficiency	Frequently hesitant, longer pauses.
Grammar	Limited proficiency	The incorrect use of the conjunction *me* for 'and' is still evident eg, *me kei te pīrangi*; Greater awareness of locatives/ prepositions eg, *korā* instead of *reira*; & definitives eg, *ki te tiki i tērā/taua* .., although errors may occur.
Vocabulary	Limited	Increased use of *whanaungatanga* terms eg, *teina, matua, tuakana*. However, limited vocabulary.
Discourse	Limited	More cohesive linking of the sequential events (pictures). Over use of 'kei te' as a tense marker.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Basic	Aware of Māori locatives *korā/reira*, & definitives *tērā/taua*. Whānau concepts used although error occurs eg, *ahau me taku tuakana*.
Cognition	Limited	Creative construction, transliteration of 'swap' i.e. tuapu.
Overall Proficiency	Limited	

Year 6: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic	More natural flow, moving towards native-like. Dialectal elision of *e* in negative *ehara.*
Grammar	Basic	Omission of 'e' after passive; *n* class possessive evident however error occurs as in *nō ia; homai/hoatu* confusion. Use of *ehara* as a negative.
Vocabulary	Basic	More frequent use of the passive, however, structure problems occur.
Discourse	Basic	Idea flow readily because of more effective linking from event to event (picture to picture), cohesive ties evident eg, *arā, ka*.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Elementary	Dialect clearly evident in the use of the negative *ehara,* although the *e* is elided.
Cognition	Elementary	More evidence in the expansion of ideas.
Overall Proficiency	Basic Proficiency	

Year 6: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Elementary confident	Easy flowing fluent production; soft tone; no evidence of the aspirated *t*, no drama.
Grammar	Elementary confident	Passive used more frequently, however, incorrect use of preposition of *i* instead of the agent maker *e* eg, *ka hopungia i tētahi tangata; preposition error i; ki* eg, *i hoatu i a ia,*
Vocabulary	Elementary confident	Increased vocabulary, greater variety of language choice eg, *pūtea, rapu, whiwhi, kohā, amuamu*; use of the negatives *kihai, kāre* & *kāore*.
Discourse	Elementary confident	Greater variety of discourse markers eg, *nā wai, ko te hiahia, ā, engari, anā, nāna, whai muri i tērā, arā*; comparison/contrast features eg, *me tiki atu/ me waiho rānei*.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Elementary confident	Dialectal differences in choice of negative eg, *kīhai, kāore, kāre.*
Cognition	Elementary confident	Evidence of growth in confidence & expression of ideas. More complex sentences.
Overall Proficiency	Elementary	

Table 29:   Year seven progressions

Year 7: Progression 1

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	Proficiency Levels	Language Features
Oral Production	Limited	Short & long pauses interspersed in the language production, lots of "mmms", "ohhs" & "ahhs'; short vowel blends affect meaning eg, *kainga* or *kāinga*.
Grammar	Limited	Omission of *e* after passive eg, *ka tīkina ia*; incorrect word orders at times eg, *i hoatu ki a rāua tētahi taonga*; omission of *e* to mark quantity eg, *rua ngā tama*;. *t* class possessives evident but some misuse eg, omission of *ko* with a definitive *eg, tērā taku moni;* Pronoun error eg, rāua/rātou;
Vocabulary	Limited	Vowel blend/ elongated vowel causing word error eg, kainga/kāinga;
Discourse	Limited	Regular use of *kī* to introduce direct speech eg, *ka kī ia*.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Limited	Overuse of *me* for the conjunction 'and'.
Cognition	Limited	Some evidence of pausing. Possible limitations in the processing of language.
Overall Proficiency	Limited Proficiency	

Year 7: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	Proficiency Levels	Language Features
Oral Production	Basic	Language chunking evident.
Grammar	Basic	Omission of *e* after passive; insertion of nominal marker *a* instead agent marker *e*. Appropriate insertion of nominal maker *a* before personal pronoun eg, *kia a ia*; pronoun confusion eg, *rāua/rātou*. Appropriate use of possessive eg, *ki ōku whakaaro.*
Vocabulary	Basic	A variety of vocabulary emerging eg, pōhēhē, hingareti, taputapu; uses basic adjectival phrases to describe eg, *tama nui/ tama iti*; inappropriate verb eg, *kimi* for *kite*.
Discourse	Basic	Overuse of the conjunction *me & me te* for 'and', including *me i* (incorrect); typical sequence markers include *ka kimi, i te whakaaro, ā ka haere mai*
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Basic	Little evidence of colloquial language.
Cognition	Basic	Demonstrates some understanding of the overall narrative structure.
Overall Proficiency	Basic Proficiency	

Year 7: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	Proficiency Levels	Language Features
Oral Production	Basic proficiency	Mispronunciation of vowels & consonants still evident eg, *pūpuri*; aspirated *t.*
Grammar	Basic proficiency	Pronoun error eg, rāua/rātou; omission of *e* after passive; omission of *ana* in the 'e+verb' eg, e *hīkoi ia*…structure; correct use of *ngā tama e rua*.
Vocabulary	Elementary	Limited growth in vocabulary; confusion with number & amount eg, *kotahi* for *tētahi*.
Discourse	Basic proficiency	Able to contrast eg, *tētahi atu*…; uses *ā & i* sequence markers; specification eg, *tāne anō*.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Basic proficiency	Reference to Māori kai eg, *parāoa parai*.
Cognition	Elementary confident proficiency	Occasionally self corrects eg, *rāua/rātou*.
Overall Proficiency	Basic Proficiency	

Table 30: Year eight progressions

Year 8: Progression 1

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Limited	Mispronunciation occurs eg, the *ai* in *pātai;* long pauses; asking for help.
Grammar	Limited	Incorrect use of *he* as a verbal marker in the verbal sentence eg, he whakaaro te rare (*ko te whakaaro – he rare*); *ā/ō* possessive error eg, *ko tērā tōku moni.*
Vocabulary	Limited	Asking kaiako for word; hoatu/homai confusion; incorrect/overuse of *me* for conjunction & eg, *māua me taku hoa; i/ki* confusion; word order error with negative eg, *kāore pīrangi ngā tamariki ki te.*
Discourse	Limited	Tense markers used sporadically.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic Competence	Limited	Uses whānau terms to claim whanaungatanga & papa before proper nouns as a mark of respect.
Cognition	Very limited	Repeats phrasal markers when uncertain eg, he …he…he….; Seeks clarification in English, asks for help.
Overall Proficiency	Limited	

Year 8: Progression 2

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Basic proficiency	Aspirated t evident.
Grammar	Basic proficiency	Omission of e after passive; Incorrect use of me for the conjunction 'and' eg, me i tiki; ā/ō error eg, nō wai te moni?
Vocabulary	Elementary confident	Using phrases to add information eg, taha o te rori; creative construction of words eg, kuri wera; emotive verb eg, mataku & ohorere.
Discourse	Basic	Still some difficulty in constructing questions eg, me aha ka hoko ia? eg, ka aha ka hoko ia? Incorrect & misuse of me as the conjunction 'and'; incorrect use me ka as a sequence marker; able to indicate reason/result using natemea; uses ā & i tētahi rā as correct discourse markers.
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Basic proficiency	Good use of Māori idiomatic expressions eg, hīkoi haere. arā, rāua ko; some evidence of dialect eg, Tūhoe.
Cognition	Basic proficiency	Evidence of personal responses to situations.
Overall Proficiency	Basic Proficiency	

Year 8: Progression 3

Ingoa:		Rā:
Language Elements	**Proficiency Levels**	**Language Features**
Oral Production	Native-like	Easy listening, fluent language flow, pronunciation errors rare or don't occur.
Grammar	Native-like	Generally error free; correct use of e ana correctly; rāua ko instead of me;
Vocabulary	Native-like	Increased variety eg, tūtaki, rīwai parai, mō māua ko…;
Discourse	Native-like	Question structure more subtle eg, me aha hoki? Use tahi to create a collective non eg, mā rāua tahi; repetition for exemplification eg, ka haere kit e papa tākaro ki te purei, ki te tūtaki i ngā hoa….
Māori Discourse/ Sociolinguistic competence	Native-like	Sophisticated contrast structure eg, me tīkina atu me waihotia rānei (possible dialectal variations); Colloquial expressions eg, "E a" for e hoa, hoi.
Cognition	Native-like	All the characters involved were Māori.
Overall Proficiency	Native-like Proficiency	

Comment

1. The need to use the phonemic alphabet for pronunciation.
2. Aspirated 't'. In Māori when a syllable begins with a 't' followed by vowels/vowel blends beginning with *a, e, & o,* the pronunciation is *alveolar dental*, that is the tongue touches the back of the teeth)*,* when the 't' is followed by the vowels/vowel blends beginning with i or *u,* the pronunciation is (refer to yellow sheet) a soft 't' as *ten.*
3. Transcription of tapes.

Alignment to Whanaketanga Reo and Te Marautanga o Aotearoa

A meeting with the purpose of reviewing and aligning the progressions with the draft national standards Māori; and how best to report the findings against the progressions and draft national standards was held 5–6 August 2010. Te Rōpū Whāiti and the research team were already familiar with the following documents:

1. The newly established progressions;

2. Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (TMOA);

3. Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira (WRHT); and

4. Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa (TRMMoA)*.
   (*TRMMoA is included because of the detail provided on speaking and listening.)

A consultant of services for Te Marautanga o Aotearoa and Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira attended one day of the hui that were set to establish links to the progressions. She provided an overview of Te Marautanga o Aotearoa and Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira and together with the Rōpū Whāiti and research team, worked through the four documents to identify the links, similarities and differences between the progressions, Te Marautanga o Aotearoa, Whanaketanga Reo Māori He Tauira, and Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa.

Table 31 presents the alignment of the curriculum documents with the Kaiaka Reo progressions as determined. The first set of columns under the heading language elements has been sub-divided into: a) elements of oral language and b) a brief explanation of the elements.

The second set of headings, Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (TMOA): Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira (WRHT), demonstrate the features shared by both documents, namely: āheinga reo (language functions), puna reo (vocabulary) and rautaki reo (language strategies). There are also some differences in the two documents. In Te Marautanga o Aotearoa oral language is situated within Te Reo Māori ā-waha, whereas in Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira, oral language is situated within Taha Kōrero. The levels of Te Marautanga o Aotearoa correspond with the Whanaketanga levels 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. At level one of Te Marautanga o Aotearoa there are four sub-levels within Level 1, these are, He Pīpī, He Kaha, He Kaha Ake, and He Pakari.

The third set of columns, refers to the curriculum statement Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa. It represents the features of the strand *Kōrero (speaking),* and the section *Ngā Āpitihanga*, stated as āheinga reo (language functions), ariā reo (language notions), wetewete reo (grammar), kupu (vocabulary) tikanga (Māori language cultural discourse – sociolinguistic competence). Each of these categories reflect or are similar to the language elements of the rating scale.

The fourth column Kaiaka Reo Progressions sets out the progressions that have been established by the research team and Te Rōpū Whāiti, where Y= Year, *n* = Year Level, P = Progression, and *n* = Progression Level. Thus, Y1P1 refers to Year 1 Progression 1 and so forth.

Table 31 refers to the alignment of the language elements of: 1) the rating scale; 2) TMOA and WRHT; 3) Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa: and 4) the Māori oral language progressions for Level 1: Year one and two.

Table 31:   Kaiaka Reo Progressions Alignment: Level 1 – year one and two

Language Elements		Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (TMOA): Reo Māori Ā-waha Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira (WRHT): Taha Kōrero						Te Reo Maori i roto i Te Marautanga o Aotearoa: Ngā Āpitihanga					Kaiaka Reo Māori oral language progressions
		Āheinga Reo		Puna Reo		Rautaki Reo		Āheinga Reo	Ariä Reo	Wetewete Reo	Kupu	Tikanga	
		TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT						
Oral Production	Fluency/language flow Intonation Phonology/pronunciation	He Pīpī 2	W1	He Kaha 2	W1	He Pīpī 3	W1	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y1P1 Y1P2 Y1P3 Y2P1 Y2P2 Y2P3 Y3P1 Y3P2 Y3P3 Y4P1 Y4P2 Y4P3 Y5P1 Y5P2 Y5P3 Y6P1 Y6P2 Y6P3 Y7P1 Y7P2 Y7P3 Y8P1 Y8P2 Y8P3
Grammar	The way in which linguistic units such as words & phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language			He Kaha Ake 3	W1			☺	☺	E.g. ka, he kei te, ka, i räua, rätou	☺	☺	
Vocabulary	Words, the basic building blocks of language. The encounter with words, be it comprehension or production, within the context of discourse.			He Kaha Ake 4 He Pakari 3 He Kaha 2	W1		W1	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	
Discourse	(Language discourse. How language is structured so that it is understood by the listener)	He Pīpī 1 He Pakari	W1			He Kaha Ake 5		☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	
Māori Discourse & Socio-Linguistic Competence	How language is conceptualised in Māori – te reo me ōna tikanga		W1		W1			mihi		☺	☺	☺	
Cognition	Mental processes used by learners in language learning, such as, thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognising or classifying. Strategies used to perceive, interpret and express a language.		W1			He Kaha Ake 6	W1	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	

Table 32 refers to the alignment of the language elements of: 1) the rating scale; 2) TMOA and WRHT; 3) Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa: and 4) the Māori oral language progressions for Level 1: Year three and four.

Table 32:   **Kaiaka Reo Progressions Alignment: Level 2 – year three and four**

Language Elements		Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (TMOA): Reo Māori Ā-waha Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira (WRHT): Taha Kōrero						Te Reo Maori i roto i Te Marautanga o Aotearoa: Ngā Āpitihanga					Kaiaka Reo Māori oral language progressions
		Āheinga Reo		Puna Reo		Rautaki Reo		Āheinga Reo	Ariä Reo	Wetewete Reo	Kupu	Tikanga	
		TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT						
Oral Production	Fluency/language flow Intonation Phonology/pronunciation				W2			☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y1P1 Y1P2 Y1P3
Grammar	The way in which linguistic units such as words & phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language		W2					☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y2P1 Y2P2 Y2P3
Vocabulary	Words, the basic building blocks of language. The encounter with words, be it comprehension or production, within the context of discourse.			Ā-waha 3	W2		W2	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y3P1 Y3P2 Y3P3 Y4P1
Discourse	(Language discourse. How language is structured so that it is understood by the listener)	Ā-waha 2	W2		W2			☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y4P2 Y4P3 Y5P1 Y5P2
Māori Discourse & Socio-Linguistic Competence	How language is conceptualised in Māori – te reo me ōna tikanga		W2		W2		W2	mihi		☺	☺	☺	Y5P3 Y6P1 Y6P2 Y6P3 Y7P1
Cognition	Mental processes used by learners in language learning, such as, thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognising or classifying. Strategies used to perceive, interpret & express a language.		W2			Ā-waha 4	W2	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y7P2 Y7P3 Y8P1 Y8P2 Y8P3

Table 33 refers to the alignment of the language elements of: 1) the rating scale; 2) TMOA and WRHT; 3) Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa: and 4) the Māori oral language progressions for Level 1: Year five and six.

Table 33:   Kaiaka Reo Progressions Alignment: Level 3 – year five and six

Language Elements		Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (TMOA): Reo Māori Ā-waha Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira (WRHT): Taha Kōrero						Te Reo Maori i roto i Te Marautanga o Aotearoa: Ngā Āpitihanga					Kaiaka Reo Māori oral language progressions
		Āheinga Reo		Puna Reo		Rautaki Reo		Āheinga Reo	Ariä Reo	Wetewete Reo	Kupu	Tikanga	
		TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT						
Oral Production	Fluency/language flow Intonation Phonology/pronunciation		W3		W3		W3	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y1P1 Y1P2 Y1P3
Grammar	The way in which linguistic units such as words & phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language						W3	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y2P1 Y2P2 Y2P3
Vocabulary	Words, the basic building blocks of language. The encounter with words, be it comprehension or production, within the context of discourse.		W3	Ā-waha 3	W3			☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y3P1 Y3P2 Y3P3 Y4P1
Discourse	(Language discourse. How language is structured so that it is understood by the listener)	Ā-waha 2	W3					☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y4P2 Y4P3 Y5P1 Y5P2
Māori Discourse & Socio-Linguistic Competence	How language is conceptualised in Māori – te reo me ōna tikanga		W3		W3		W3	mihi		☺	☺	☺	Y5P3 Y6P1 Y6P2 Y6P3 Y7P1
Cognition	Mental processes used by learners in language learning, such as, thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognising or classifying. Strategies used to perceive, interpret and express a language.				W3		W3	☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y7P2 Y7P3 Y8P1 Y8P2 Y8P3

Table 34 refers to the alignment of the language elements of: 1) the rating scale; 2) TMOA and WRHT; 3) Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa: and 4) the Māori oral language progressions for Level 1: Year seven and eight.

Table 34: Kaiaka Reo Progressions Alignment: Level 4 – year seven and eight

Language Elements		Te Marautanga o Aotearoa (TMOA): Reo Māori Ā-waha Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira (WRHT): Taha Kōrero						Te Reo Maori i roto i Te Marautanga o Aotearoa: Ngā Āpitihanga					Kaiaka Reo Māori oral language progressions
		Āheinga Reo		Puna Reo		Rautaki Reo		Āheinga Reo	Ariä Reo	Wetewete Reo	Kupu	Tikanga	
		TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT	TMOA	WRHT						
Oral Production	Fluency/language flow Intonation Phonology/pronunciation							☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y1P1 Y1P2 Y1P3
Grammar	The way in which linguistic units such as words & phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language							☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y2P1 Y2P2 Y2P3
Vocabulary	Words, the basic building blocks of language. The encounter with words, be it comprehension or production, within the context of discourse.							☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y3P1 Y3P2 Y3P3 Y4P1
Discourse	(Language discourse. How language is structured so that it is understood by the listener)							☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y4P2 Y4P3 Y5P1 Y5P2
Māori Discourse & Socio-Linguistic Competence	How language is conceptualised in Māori – te reo me ōna tikanga							mihi		☺	☺	☺	Y5P3 Y6P1 Y6P2 Y6P3 Y7P1
Cognition	Mental processes used by learners in language learning, such as, thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognising or classifying. Strategies used to perceive, interpret & express a language.							☺	☺	☺	☺	☺	Y7P2 Y7P3 Y8P1 Y8P2 Y8P3

Therefore, let us look at Table 31 This tells us that at Level 1, year one and year two:

1.   Elements of oral production are present in:

     a)   Āheinga reo: in TMOA at He Pīpī 2; WRHT at Whanaketanga 1 (W1) and TRMMoA.

     b)   Puna reo of TMOA at He Kaha 2; WRHT at W1

     c)   Rautaki reo at TMOA at He Pīpī 3. WRHT at W1.

     d)   Aria reo, in TRMMoA.

2.   Elements of grammar are present in:

     a)   Puna reo: in TMOA at He Kaha Ake 3; WRHT at W1

     b)   Ariā reo and wetewete reo of TRMMOA

3.   Elements of vocabulary are present in:

     a)   Puna reo: in TMOA at He Kaha Ake 4, He Pakari 3 and He Kaha 2; WRHT at W1

     b)   Āheinga reo, ariā reo, wetewete reo, kupu and tikanga TRMMoA

4.   Elements of discourse are present in:

     a)   Āheinga reo: in TMOA at He Pīpī 1 and He Pakari; WRHT at W1; TRMMoA

     b)   Rautaki Reo: in TMOA at He Kaha Ake 5

     c)   Ariā reo in TRMMoA

     d)   Kupu in TRMMoA

     e)   Tikanga TRMMoA

5.   Elements of Māori discourse and socio-linguistic competence in:

     a)   Āheinga reo: WRHT W1; TRMMoA eg, He mihi

     b)   Puna reo: WRHT W1

     c)   Ariā reo in TRMMoA

     d)   Kupu in TRMMoA

     e)   Tikanga TRMMoA

6.   Elements of cognition in:

     a)   Āheinga Reo: WRHT W1: TRMMoA kōrero.

Alignment and links between the language elements of the rating scale, Te Marautanga o Aotearoa, Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira and Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa, are evident at Level 1 – year one and two, Level 2 – year three and four, Level 3 – year five and six and Level 4 year seven and eight.

It is important to note that the Kaiaka Reo oral language progressions have not been compartmentalised. This is deliberate to reinforce that: te reo Māori (the Māori language) is a language in revitalisation; and that most of the learners in Māori medium are not first language speakers of Māori. Like other language learners, who engage in learning in a language that may not be their first language, they start at different points along the proficiency continuum (see Gottlieb, 2006). It is quite possible, for example, that some year one students who have a rich background and exposure to te reo Māori aspirate the 't' correctly in Māori words, when followed by the vowels *a, e* and *o*. However, it is possible too that a year eight student might not aspirate the 't' correctly because their contact with te reo Māori has only been with second language speakers who mispronounce the 't'.

Discussion

The purpose of developing Māori oral language progressions that make explicit the progress students in Māori settings could be expected to make at the different ages and stages of their reo Māori development and how this could be measured is complex. It is a fact that the Māori language is an endangered language with a diminishing number of native speakers; therefore learners in Māori medium contexts are critical to the survival and maintenance of the language. Moreover, the value of learning in their native indigenous language is vital to their success and wellbeing as Māori (see Ka Hikitia). It is largely unknown whether the learners and their school communities have the language proficiency necessary for successful academic achievement in Māori medium contexts. Yet, Māori medium learners are measured against curriculum objectives with little consideration as to whether the results reflect reliable measures of language proficiency and/ or academic achievement. This was evident in the survey where the teachers inappropriately reported the assessment tools that they were familiar with, as proficiency tools, when in fact they were not proficiency tools.

Therefore, how does one know if the process of assessment is fair, reliable and valid for the learning context that prevails for the Māori medium learner without understanding also their Māori language proficiency? Kaiaka Reo: Reo-ā-waha ki te Motu, the research team believes, has a major contribution to this much needed area of research, in its quest to:

1. Determine what constitutes Māori oral language proficiency in schools at years one to eight

2. Develop and establish a rating scale to measure Māori oral language proficiency at the different ages and stages of reo Māori development from years one to eight

3. Develop and establish Māori oral language proficiency progressions that make explicit the progress of students in Māori medium settings

4. Examine the predictors and indicators of success at each progression.

Specific to the above were the following questions:

1. What are the elements of oral language proficiency?

2. How do we assess and measure Māori oral language proficiency?

3. What oral language elements are appropriate for Māori oral language proficiency progressions?

4. How do we describe Māori oral language proficiency progressions?

5. What literature is relevant and available to inform Māori oral language proficiency progressions for Māori medium?

6. What research on Māori medium assessment is relevant and available to inform Māori oral language proficiency progressions?

Determining Māori oral language proficiency in schools at years one to eight

Kaupapa Māori, the foundation of this research, recognises te reo Māori, as the vehicle of its culture, conveys the beliefs, values, experiences and knowledge of its people and its interconnections with humankind. As a language embedded with a vast array of genetic historical information about its speakers, it was important that the people

involved in the research understood and practised these values so that the authenticity of the language would be embedded within the project. Each individual and group, engaged in the research, 99% of whom are Māori, conducted themselves within a kaupapa Māori paradigm. The researchers, are native or native-like speakers, from primary/tertiary teacher backgrounds, and are currently involved in Māori medium education in tertiary or post-graduate teacher education. The advisory committee are of similar backgrounds, however, they are involved in Māori medium education in different roles, to those of the researchers such as the national review of the Māori language, Ngā Whanaketanga Reo Matatini Pānui and Tuhituhi (National Standards in literacy), the Education Review Office, initial teacher education, each with post-graduate qualifications. Beyond sharing similar characteristics, the researchers and advisory group all share a commitment to the revitalisation of the Māori language and recognise the significance of Māori medium Young Language Learners (MMYLLs) in this process.

The term MMYLL recognises the contexts of learning and the community environs of Māori medium education as sites of Māori language revitalisation where much hope is placed for the survival of te reo Māori. The term also recognises that for the most part, these learners are a unique population for whom Māori may be a first, second, foreign, heritage, indigenous and/or native language, as described by the literature. For 99% of these students in Level 1 immersion (see Table 1) their most defining trait is *Māori* by *whakapapa* (genealogy). The 'YLL' recognises that these are young language learners of year one to year eight status, who are also at varying developmental stages in their human development, language acquisition, and school learning. The team were aware of these characteristics in their efforts to define oral language proficiency that was fair to these MMYLLs.

The inductive approach of listening and analysing authentic samples from Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001, together with the literature helped the researchers make informed decisions about what constituted Māori oral language proficiency. In this performance based way, the research team were able to describe Māori oral language proficiency as oral production, grammar, vocabulary, discourse, Māori discourse (socio –linguistic competence in Māori) and cognition.

Develop and establish a rating scale to measure Māori oral language proficiency in years one to eight

The decision to use the tool, from Kaiaka Reo 2000–2001, a series of nine pictures, depicting the dilemma two boys encounter while out walking served the purpose of a tool to gather authentic oral language data. The analyses generated provided a range of language performances that enabled the research team to create a five point scale, being: very limited (1), limited (2), basic (3) elementary (4) and native-like proficiency (5). This enabled the team to measure each oral language element independently to produce a combined score. The Rasch analysis at Hui 1 (see Figure 8) confirmed that student ability was fairly well distributed, and that each trait or language element was performing in a similar difficulty range near zero (0). This means that all of the sub-categories are of equivalent difficulty (see Figure 9). There was some concern that too many raters were rating too severely, but after feedback rater performance resulted in less variation. Following the analyses of the Rater Hui 1 data the research team were satisfied that our descriptions of language proficiency were reliable and valid, and the team could confidently assess the new year one to year eight cohorts in a similar way.

Rasch analysis, following individual feedback at Rater Hui 2 proved most satisfactory, especially where many of those who rated too severely at Rater Hui 1 were able to adjust their ratings which resulted in less variation amongst the raters (see Figure 9 May workshop). In addition to this, the fit statistics generated in the vast majority of cases on both workshops were well within the recognised criteria. The Facets software also generated some classical measures of reliability, all of which were satisfactory. Further analysis of the data showed the rating scale to be reliable.

Develop and establish Māori oral language proficiency progressions that make explicit the progress students in Māori medium settings make at the different ages and stages of their reo Māori development from years one to eight

Further analyses from the overall ratings at Rater Hui 2 showed an increase in the mean scores at each progressive year level, from year one to year eight (Figure 10). In other words the research team is able to demonstrate distinct oral language progressions at year level by score. Within each year level the research team was able to distinguish three progressive levels for years one, two, three, four, six and eight. However, years five and seven show only two distinct levels. The progressions have been established on the basis of a score, however, each progression at year level and within year levels has been provided with a description or profile.

The aggregate scores of the sample of students from each cohort distinguishes three levels at each year level, although the distinction is not as marked at year five and year seven for progression 3. These were determined by selecting a sample of students whose performances demonstrated a difference in performance on a five point scale with 1 being very limited; 2 being limited; 3 being basic, 4 being elementary and 5 being native or native-like. These have resulted in the following progressions for each year level:

Table 35:   Draft Māori language oral progressions

Year	Progression	Proficiency
Year 1	Progression 1	Very Limited
Year 1	Progression 2	Limited
Year 1	Progression 3	Basic
Year 2	Progression 1	Very Limited
Year 2	Progression 2	Limited
Year 2	Progression 3	Basic
Year 3	Progression 1	Limited - Basic
Year 3	Progression 2	Basic
Year 3	Progression 3	Elementary
Year 4	Progression 1	Limited - Basic
Year 4	Progression 2	Basic
Year 4	Progression 3	Basic - Elementary
Year 5	Progression 1	Limited
Year 5	Progression 2	Basic
Year 5	Progression 3	Basic
Year 6	Progression 1	Limited
Year 6	Progression 2	Basic
Year 6	Progression 3	Elementary
Year 7	Progression 1	Limited
Year 7	Progression 2	Basic
Year 7	Progression 3	Basic
Year 8	Progression 1	Limited
Year 8	Progression 2	Basic
Year 8	Progression 3	Native-like

Although progression 3 is not so distinct at year 5 and year 7, the detailed analysis and descriptors show that basic and elementary features are present, however, the scores were not high enough to make a definite distinction.

Each profile at year level and within year level progressions, include a description of each language element from the rating scale. Language proficiency as can be seen is not static but fluid. The Māori oral language proficiency progressions show that although it is possible to scaffold the language of the year students at year levels, there is variance and movement within the levels, and within the elements of proficiency. Each level is not mutually exclusive, for example, it is quite possible for a student to produce grammatically correct sentences (as was the case in this study) however, their intonation may have been monotonic.

The alignment and links between the progressions, Te Marautanga o Aotearoa, Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira and Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa should be interpreted with caution. Te Marautanga o Aotearoa and Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira Noa are very broad descriptions without the detail provided in the progressions. For example, in the oral progressions, the oral production description of fluency/language flow, intonation, phonology and pronunciation are consistent with: Te Marautanga o Aotearoa Te reo Māori; ā-waha, He Pīpī 2 which says "Ka whakahua tika i ngā oro tae atu ki ngā kupu." These are consistent with Whanaketanga Reo; Whanaketanga 1; Puna Reo which states "Ka whakaatu i tana mōhio ki te mita o te reo," which is also the same statement in Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa Whenu Kōrero; Kōeke Tuatahi.

At Level 1 (see Table 31) — year one and year two, 11 instances of TMOA: one each at He Pīpi 1, He Pīpī 2 and He Pīpī three; two at He Kaha 2; one each at He Kaha Ake 3 and He Kaha Ake 4; one each at He Pakari and He Pakari 3; one each at He Kaha Ake 5 and He Kaha Ake 6; align with the oral language progression language elements. Also, at Level 1 — year one and year two, eleven instances of Whanaketanga 1 align with the oral language progression language elements.

At Level 2 (see Table 32) — year three and year four, three instances of TMOA: one each at Ā-waha 2, Ā-waha 3 and Ā-waha 4, align with the oral language progression language elements. Also, at Level 2 — year three and year four, 11 instances of Whanaketanga 2 align with the oral language progression language elements.

At Level 3 (see Table 33) — year five and year six, two instances of TMOA: one each of Ā-waha 2 and Ā-waha 3, align with the oral language progression language elements. Also, at Level 3 — year five and year six, 12 instances of Whanaketanga 3 align with the oral language progression language elements.

At Level 4 (see Table 34) — year seven and year eight, there are zero instances of TMOA that align with the oral language progression language elements. Also, at Level 4 — year seven and year eight, there are zero instances of Whanaketanga that align with the oral language progression language elements.

The alignment between the oral language progression elements and Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Reo Māori are many. These include the strand on *Kōrero* for eight levels*,* with numerous examples of Māori language in Ngā Āpitihanga (Āheinga Reo, Ariā Reo, Wetewete Reo, Kupu, and Tikanga). In Tables 31, 32, 33 and 34 the links are also clear in the similarity of the elements: grammar with wetewete reo and ariā reo; vocabulary with kupu; discourse with āheinga reo; Māori discourse with ariā reo, āheinga reo and tikanga. The elements of oral production and cognition are situated in the strand of *Kōrero* and its eight levels.

Concluding Statements

Issues

- The recording of the oral language samples was identified as problematic due to outdated recording equipment. There were also issues of compatibility between Macintosh computers and PCs.

- Reduced sample because of the late return of the materials by the participating schools.

- Incomplete data for some students and teachers.

- Parallel professional development — the trialling of Ngā Whanaketanga Rumaki Māori and the development of the Māori oral language progressions. The fact that these occurred at the same time caused difficulties in terms of school and teacher participation, causing confusion.

- Political: The stance of Te Rūnanganui o Ngā Kura Kaupapa Māori on National Standards.

Recommendations

- That the rating scale and progressions be written, and not translated in Māori.

- That data, that arrived after the due date be analysed and included in this analysis.

- That research regarding Māori oral language progressions continue beyond this study.

- That a cohort at each year level be followed in a longitudinal study.

- That professional development is offered to Māori medium teachers on the Māori oral language progressions.

Conclusions

1. Education in New Zealand from the 1840s to the 1970s had a major role in the decline of speakers of the Māori language. Several national movements initiated by Māori, have had some impact on reversing the demise of the Māori language. These initiatives have included WAI 11 which recognised te reo Māori as a taonga under the Treaty of Waitangi, and legislation which enabled Māori medium education such as Kōhanga Reo, kura, and wharekura.

2. The Māori movements have generated a need for curriculum and resources for these forms of schooling, and there is provision for extra funding based on the levels of immersion offered by schools. There is some evidence that Māori language learners do better at NCEA Level 1 than their English-medium counterparts (Ministry of Education, 2010a).

3. Currently, there are no formal oral language proficiency assessments to assess the Māori language of learners learning in and through the medium of Māori. Instead, the materials that are available are for literacy, numeracy and some curriculum areas. The Ministry of Education curricula show little comprehension or need, to recognise the Māori language proficiency needs of Māori medium learners. The arrival of National Standards has prompted this investigation of Māori oral language proficiency to inform the National Standards for Māori Medium, namely, *Ngā Whanaketanga Rumaki Māori.*

4. There are about 10 curriculum documents that showed some relevance to levels of language for te reo Māori. In regard to National standards, *Ngā* Whanaketanga Rumaki Māori made mention of the standards and levels of achievement. Māori medium standards are evident only in the policy documents by reference to the Treaty of Waitangi, and "that the developers of Te Marautanga o Aotearoa would develop their own strategic directions for assessment". There was little more on national standards for indigenous languages. Assessment tools for Māori medium fare a little better than National Standards. The research team identified five formal tools, however, the focus was on achievement in curriculum areas and literacy, albeit, these were for students in Māori medium.

5. There does exist a plethora of literature on the vast expanse of language proficiency, especially for learners of English as a second, foreign and heritage language. The literature includes definitions and theories of language proficiency, establishing reliability and validity, forms of assessment including rating scales, oral language proficiency, oral language proficiency assessment, types of young language learners, and language standards and proficiency.

6. Teachers use assessment tools that were developed for other purposes to assess Māori oral language proficiency.

7. Schools are important domains where te reo Māori is used. Keegan (2003) notes that for many students, school was the only place where significant amounts of spoken Māori was heard. The majority of the student participants in this research reported greater use of Māori language in the classroom than in the playground, with even less outside of school.

8. There are more female first language speakers of Māori than males.

9. Students enjoyed the assessment. They provided positive feedback about the assessment process and generally found that the activity was appropriate to assess and display their oral language.

10. The Māori oral language proficiency of MMYLLs from year one to year eight can be described in terms of oral production, grammar, vocabulary, discourse, Māori discourse/socio-linguistic competence and cognition.

11. There is some alignment between the oral language progression elements, Te Marautanga o Aotearoa, Whanaketanga Reo He Tauira, Te Reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa and the Māori oral language progressions that have been established. The greater alignment being between the language elements, Te reo Māori i roto i te Marautanga o Aotearoa and the oral language progressions.

12. The Māori oral language proficiency of MMYLLs can be measured using the rating scale *Kaiaka Reo: Reo-ā-waha ki te Motu*. The five point scale: 1 being very limited proficiency; 2 being limited proficiency; 3 being basic proficiency, 4 being elementary proficiency, and 5 native-like proficiency. The aggregate score enables us to place the MMYLL on a progression level for their year at school.

13. The Māori oral language proficiency of MMYLLs varies by year progression level and within year levels. It is possible to have a high score on one feature and a low score on a different feature.

14. Levels of progressions from year one to year eight have been established for Māori medium learning contexts. This was achieved by using a rating scale, specifically developed for this purpose. A scale developed from authentic oral language samples of the targeted age groups; and the performance of the learners on a particular oral language performance based task. Based on their performance the learners were assigned a score from one to five, one being the lowest.

15. The results tell us that for this cohort, year one to year eight, the average learner is engaging in their education at a language proficiency level in the range of limited to basic oral language proficiency. Except at year 1, there are no students performing at a very limited proficiency.

16. Year one and two students' oral language proficiency operates in a proficiency range of three levels, from very limited to basic; year three from limited-basic to elementary; year 4 from limited-basic to basic-elementary; year five from limited to basic; year six limited to elementary, year seven limited to basic; and year eight limited to native-like.

17. Specific features of Māori oral language are emerging. Detailed descriptions or profiles of the MMYLLs show that errors identified at year one continue through to year eight. There are points at year levels where MMYLLs demonstrate the ability to self-correct their Māori oral language. Also, at year eight, students at progression 3 are performing at native-like proficiency. The overall low performance is of major concern to the research team.

18. Clear predictors and indicators of success at each progression are not clear. The scale enables measurement of student performance on a 1–5 point scale for each element, and allows for description at the point of performance which may or may not display features from other levels. It would be wrong to generalise the development of Māori language on the features described here alone. This would require further analysis of the data, in particular, the data that was received too late to be considered in the analysis.

19. The team advise caution in the interpretation and application of the progressions beyond the purpose of what the scale was designed and intended for. The sample size was small and require further research to strengthen the findings.

20. There is limited research on Māori oral language proficiency assessment and National Standards.

Limitations

The study has its limitations. Firstly, the participation numbers were restricted to 707 from a possible 9,857. Secondly, the detailed analyses and descriptions of the MMYLLs language were conducted by a team of native or native-like speakers and teachers whose teaching backgrounds included knowledge of second language acquisition theory and applied linguistics. Therefore, while the final rating scale is reliable and valid, the results of the teacher survey are inconclusive as to whether teachers alone could provide such detailed descriptions of the Māori oral language proficiency of their students.

Implications

The research has achieved its objective of establishing Māori oral language proficiency progressions for MMYLLs from year one to year eight students in Māori medium settings.

The research team is confident that the scale is a reliable and valid tool to assess Māori oral language proficiency for MMYLLs in Māori medium. However, the research team is aware that teachers of MMYLLs have varied Māori language proficiency, teaching experiences and understanding of learners who engage in learning in and through te reo Māori; the research team is therefore concerned that teachers may not be able to provide the kind of description without professional development. The descriptions provided are not finite, and are only a snapshot of the Māori oral language proficiency of the students who represented their year level and progression level on the day of assessment. These should be taken as examples of and not fixed descriptions for the year levels.

The research has provided an instrument and process of development that other indigenous groups have expressed interest in and may wish to adopt for their own indigenous language and cultural revitalisation purposes.

Māori language proficiency is critical to successful academic achievement in Māori medium education. Proficiency pinpoints the learner's place on a language acquisition continuum while academic achievement reflects conceptual development with respect to curriculum. Māori oral language proficiency is key to Māori language proficiency, literacy and academic achievement. It develops our understanding of the Māori worldview and how that worldview constructs a particular field of knowledge. Kaiaka Reo: Reo-ā-waha ki te Motu has a major contribution to the goals of academic achievement in te reo Māori and Māori language revitalisation.

Appendices

Appendix A

Kaiako Questionnaire on Oral Proficiency in Māori

This research has been commissioned by the Ministry of Education. It will be used to assist the development of Māori oral proficiency tools for students in years 1 to 8. Participation is voluntary. Please note all information given is strictly confidential. No individual's name or details will appear in any report or document resulting from this research project.

1)   Name _____

2)   Please indicate your age:

      ☐ Less than 30   ☐ 30–40   ☐ 41–50   ☐ 51–60   ☐ 61+

3)   Gender

      ☐ Female   ☐ Male

4)   Please indicate the ethnic group(s) which you belong to: (tick one or more)

      ☐Pākehā/European   ☐ Māori   ☐ c) Other **(please describe)** _____

5)   If you are Māori please indicate the iwi to which you belong or affiliate ?
      _____

6)   What is your current position (job) ? _____

7)   What is your highest educational qualification(s) ?

      _____

8)   Are you a registered teacher ?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

9)   If you are registered how many years have you been registered ? _____

10)   Where did you receive your teaching training (ie, at which institution(s)) ?
      _____

11)   Were you trained in a bilingual/immersion programme, if so which one ?
      _____

12)   How long have you taught in Māori medium education at the following levels?

      ☐ Junior Primary   ☐ Mid Primary   ☐ Upper Primary   ☐ Intermediate   ☐ High School

      _____ years   _____ years   _____ years   _____ years   _____ years

13)   Which year (or years) are your current students ?
      _____

14) What is your level of oral proficiency in the Māori language ?

☐ Very high fluency/native speaker of Māori (can almost discuss anything in Māori with ease)

☐ High fluency/native speaker of Māori (can discuss most topics in Māori with relative ease)

☐ Medium fluency (can hold conversations in Māori about most topics)

☐ Medium to low fluency (can hold conversations in Māori some topics in which I know the appropriate Māori words)

☐ Low fluency/learning to speak Māori (can understand and use basic orders and instructions)

15) How important is it that teachers are very proficient speakers of Māori ?

☐ Extremely important   ☐ Very important   ☐ Important   ☐ Not that important

16) How important is it that teachers be given the opportunity to improve their own proficiency in Māori ?

☐ Extremely important   ☐ Very important   ☐ Important   ☐ Not that important

17) How well did your training institute prepare you as a teacher for assessing the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students ?

☐ Very well   ☐ Well   ☐ Adequately   ☐ Not that well

18) How important is it that teachers know the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students ?

☐ Extremely important   ☐ Very important   ☐ Important   ☐ Not that important

19) How confident are you as a teacher in assessing the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students ?

☐ Extremely confident   ☐ Very Confident   ☐ Confident   ☐ Not that confident

20) How confident are you as a teacher in reporting the oral proficiency (in Māori) of your students against curriculum outcomes ?

☐ Extremely confident   ☐ Very Confident   ☐ Confident   ☐ Not that confident

21) How important is it that teachers report the oral proficiency (in Māori) of their students to parents/whānau?

☐ Extremely Important   ☐ Very Important   ☐ Important   ☐ Not that important

22) When is the correct time for teachers to assess the oral proficiency (in Māori) of theirstudents ? (tick one or more)

☐ Beginning of year   ☐ End of year   ☐ End of term   ☐ Any time

23) What tools, methods or criteria are you using to assess the oral proficiency of your students?

_____

_____

_____

24) Please describe in your own words what oral proficiency in Māori means ?

_____

_____

_____

Thanks for your time. If you have any questions on this project please contact me
Katarina Edmonds, Hākoni Ltd, katarina.edmonds@xtra.co.nz 027 4752800

Appendix B

Hākoni Limited

53 Awatere Avenue   Phone: 07 8342082
Hamilton   Fax: 07 8342085
New Zealand 3200   027 4752800
Email:
hakoni@xtra.co.nz

June 27, 2013

E te tumuaki

Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: reta/pukatono whakaae a ngā mātua/kaitiaki-ā-ture

Tēnā koe, otirā, koutou kua whakaae mai nei ki te kaupapa Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu. Ka nui rawa atu te mihi.

Hei te wiki kua pahure ake nei i tū te Hui Kaiwhakarite (1) ki te Puna Wānanga o Te Whare Wānanga o Tāmaki. Tata rima tekau ngā kaiako, i haere mai ki taua hui. I whakangungua rātou ki ngā āhuatanga o te reo-ā-waha: te pūnaha ororeo (phonology), te wetereo (grammar), te whakatakotoranga kōrero (discourse), te whakatakotoranga kōrero Māori (Māori discourse), te kupu (vocabulary), me te whakaputa hinengaro mā te reo (intelligibility). I whakangungua hoki ki te whakaritenga tauine (rating scale) i hangaia i runga i ngā āhuatanga reo-ā-waha o ngā tamariki i whakauru mai ki te Kaiaka Reo i te tau 2000-2001. Kātahi rātou, ngā kaiako, ka noho ki te whakarongo ki te reo o ngā tamariki i whakamātautia rā (Kaiaka Reo 2000-2001). E toru ngā āhuatanga i whakamātautia e rātou: (1) ko te whakaritenga tauine; (2) ko te reo-ā-waha; (3) ko rātou tonu ko ngā kaiwhakarite. Nā, i runga i ngā whakatau, a te hunga kaiako o runga ake nei, kua whakatauria te whakaritenga tauine. Ko tēnei te tauine, ka whakamahia hei whakatau i te reo-ā-waha, ka puta i ngā aromatawai/ whakamātautau, ka whakahaeretia hei ngā rā 26, 27, 28 o Paenga-whāwhā (Aperira) 2010.

I mua i te aromatawaitanga/whakamātautanga i ā koutou tamariki, tau tuatahi ki te tau tauwaru, me whakaae mai ngā mātua/kaitiaki-ā-ture (guardian). He pai tonu hoki kia whakaae mai ngā tamariki. Kei konei he reta whakamārama i te kaupapa, mō ngā mātua/ kaitiaki-ā-ture; te pukatono whakaae me te pukatono tāhuhu reo (biographical information) mā ngā mātua/ kaitiaki-ā-ture tonu e whakakī. Kei konei hoki ngā pepa hei whakakītanga mā te kaiako, hei haina hoki mā te tumuaki.

E tono atu ana kia whakahokia mai ngā pukatono ki te kura hei te rā tuawhā tonu a muri i ngā hararei. Arā, te 22 o Paenga-whāwhā (Aperira) 2010, kia taea ai e koutou te whaiwhai atu i mua i te aromatawaitanga/whakamātautanga i te wiki o muri mai (26, 27, 28 Paenga-whāwhā 2010). Mā koutou e pupuri, ka whakahoki mai ai hei muri i ngā whakamātautau. Nā reira, kei konei e tāpiri mai ana:

1. He reta ki ngā mātua/kaitiaki-ā-ture;
2. Te pukatono whakaae: Tā te tamaiti, tā te matua/kaitiaki-a-ture (guardian), tā te kaiako;
3. Te pukatono mā ngā mātua/kaitiaki-ā-ture e whakakī;
4. Te pukatono: Te tāhuhu reo o te tamaiti, mā te kaiako o te tamaiti e whakakī;
5. Te pukatono whakaae: Tā te tumuaki.

Hei muri mai nei au tuku kōrero atu anō ai mō te whakahaere i ngā whakamātautau. Hei tēnei wā, ko te mea nui ko te whiwhi i ngā pepa, kua tāpiritia atu ki konei.

Noho ora mai koutou i runga i ngā manaakitanga a te Runga Rawa. Ko te tumanako ka hoki hīkaka atu koutou ki te kura hei te wāhanga tuarua.

Nāku noa

Katarina Edmonds
Hākoni Limited

Appendix C

June 27, 2013

Tēnā koutou e ngā mātua o ā tātou tamariki e ako nei mā te reo Māori

<u>Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu</u>

Name of School### has agreed to participate in the research project: Te Reo Māori: Reo Ā-Waha ki te Motu - 2010, conducted by Hākoni Limited for the Ministry of Education. The research will examine the oral Māori language proficiency of year one to year eight students in Māori medium (immersion) settings. The purpose of the research is to identify and make explicit progressions of oral Māori language proficiency for students in Māori medium settings and see how these align with Te Marautanga o Aotearoa. We believe that the research is important because the reo Māori, of our students will inform the development of proficiency progressions in oral language.

Participation involves an assessment task, administered by the school, whereby a recording is made of your child's oral Māori language. The recordings will then be returned to Hākoni Limited for analysis.

Attached here is the consent form and questionnaire that we would like you to complete should you agree to your child's participation. If you have more than one child a separate form must be completed for each child. It is important that your child's name is clear on the consent form. Your child is also invited to give their consent. Please be assured that his/her identity will remain completely confidential during the research process. Note the small table at the top right hand corner of each page of the consent form and questionnaire. This is where your child's teacher will enter the unique number that has been assigned to the school and the individual child. This provides further assurance of confidentiality.

Please complete the form as soon as possible and return to the school by Thursday 22 April 2010.

Nāku noa

<u>Katarina Edmonds</u>
Hākoni Limited

Appendix D

Reo Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Pukatono Whakaae: Tā te **TUMUAKI**

Ki ngā kairangahau (Hākoni Limited) o te kaupapa Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Kei te whakaae atu ki ngā tamariki kua whakaae mai ō rātou mātua.

(To the researchers (Hākoni Limited) of the project Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu (National Māori language proficiency progressions): Consent has been given for those children whose parents have agreed to their participation.)

Kura:_____
(School)

Ingoa o te Tumuaki:
(Principal's name): _____

Tāmoko: _____   Rā:_____

(Signature)	*(Date)*

Reo Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Puka Tono whakaae:
Tā te TAMAITI, tā te MATUA/ KAITIAKI Ā-TURE: Tā te KAIAKO

Ki ngā kairangahau (Hākoni Limited) o te kaupapa Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: E whakaae ana mātou, kua haina ki raro nei, kia whakauru atu a:

Ingoa o te tamaiti_____
ki te rangahau Reo Ā-Waha ki te Motu, i runga i te mōhio ka noho muna tōna tuakiri.

(To the researchers (Hākoni Limited) of the project Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu (National Māori language proficiency progressions): we, the undersigned agree that:

Name of the child _____
participate in the research Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu, on the understanding that his/her identity remains confidential.)

Ingoa o te Tamaiti:
Child's name: _____

Tāmoko: _____   Rā:_____

Signature:	*Date:*

Ingoa o te Matua - Kaitiaki ā-ture:
Parent/ Legal guardian's name: _____

Tāmoko: _____   Rā:_____

Signature	*Date*

Ingoa o te Kaiako:
Teacher's name: _____

Tāmoko: _____   Rā:_____

Signature	*Date*

Reo Ā-Waha ki te Motu: <u>Te Tāhuhu Reo o te Tamaiti me tōna kura</u>

(Nātional Māori medium Oral Language Proficiency Progressions:

Background information of the child and his/her school)

Mā te kaiako o te tamaiti tēnei wāhanga e whakakī *(Teacher of the child to complete this section)*	Tohua ngā whakautu tika mā te ✔ ki roto i ngā pouaka, mā te tuhi kōrero rānei. *(Indicate with a ✔ in the box, or write as appropriate)*

Te Kaiako

He tāne ☐ *(Male)* He wahine ☐ *(Female)*	E hia ōu tau? ☐ *(How old are you?)* Kei a koe mehemea ka whakautu koe. *(Optional)*

I te kura, kōrero Māori ai au, te kaiako a) I ngā wā katoa (*Always*) ☐ b) I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*) ☐ c) I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*) ☐ d) Kāo (*Never*) ☐	Ko te reo Māori taku reo tuatahi ☐ *(Māori is my first language)* Ko te reo Māori taku reo tuarua ☐ *(Māori is my second language)* _____ Ko te reo Pākehā taku reo tuatahi ☐ *(English is my first language)* Ko te reo Pākehā taku reo tuarua ☐ *(English is my second language)*

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	25-30+
E hia <u>tau</u> koe e whakaako ana? *(How many years have you been teaching?)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
E hia <u>tau</u> koe e whakaako ana ki tēnei kura? *(How many years have you taught at this school?)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

He aha te akomanga e whakaako ana koe i tēnei wā?

(What type of class are you teaching at this time?)

Rumaki/kkm/mana motuhake ☐ *(Total immersion: Level 1 81-100%)*	Reo-rua ☐ *(Bilingual: Level 2 51-80%)*	Auraki ☐ *(Mainstream: Level 3 & 4 <50%)*

Kua whakaako koe ki **ētahi atu kura** i mua?

(Have you taught at other schools in the past?)   Āe *(Yes)* ☐   Kāo *(No)* ☐

He aha aua kura? *What were those other schools?*

Tohua mā te tuhi i ngā tau ki te pouaka i te taha o te momo kura

(Indicate by writing the number of years by the type of school)

E hia <u>tau</u> ki te… *(How many years at …)*	Kura kaupapa Māori ☐ Kura mana motuhake	Rumaki ☐ *(Immersion)*	Reo-rua ☐ *(Bilingual)*	Auraki ☐ *(Mainstream)*

Mā te **KAIAKO** o te tamaiti tēnei wāhanga e whakakī

(Teacher of the child to complete this section)

Te Tamaiti (*The child)*

He tāne *(Male)*	☐	E hia ōna tau? *(What is the child's age?)*	☐
He kōtiro *(Female)*	☐		

He aha te tau (T) o te tamaiti ki te kura? *(What school year is the child?)* *Hei tauira (eg,) T1= Y1*	T1 *(Y1)* ☐	T2 *(Y2)* ☐	T3 *(Y3)* ☐	T4 *(Y4)* ☐	T5 *(Y5)* ☐	T6 *(Y6)* ☐	T7 *(Y7)* ☐	T8 *(Y8)* ☐

Te/ngā Kura o te Tamaiti *(Schools attended by the child)*

He aha te kura o te tamaiti <u>i tēnei wā</u>? *(What type of School does the child attend now?)* Kura Kaupapa Māori ☐ Kura Rumaki *(Immersion school)* ☐ Kura Reo-rua *(Bilingual school)* ☐ Kura Auraki *(Mainstream school)* ☐	

	0-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5
E hia <u>tau</u> te tamaiti ki tēnei kura? *(How many years has this child attended this school?)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

He aha te akomanga o te tamaiti i tēnei wā? *(What type of class is the child in now?)*   Rumaki *(Immersion)* ☐   Reo-rua *(Bilingual)* ☐   Auraki *(Mainstream)* ☐

I haere te tamaiti ki **ētahi atu kura** i mua?   *(Did the child attend other schools in the past)*   Āe *(Yes)* ☐   Kāo *(No)* ☐   He aha aua kura? *(What were those other schools?)*   Tohua mā te tuhi i ngā tau, ki te pouaka i te taha o te momo kura.   *(Indicate by writing the number of years in the box by the type of school)*

E hia <u>tau ki</u> … *(How many years at …)*	Kura Kaupapa Māori	☐	Rumaki *(Immersion)*	☐	Reo-rua *(Bilingual)*	☐	Auraki *(Mainstream)* ☐

Te ako o te tamaiti mā te reo Māori *(The **Child's Learning in the Medium of Māori**)*

Ki tōu whakaaro, e hia tau te tamaiti **e ako ana mā** te reo Māori i te kura tuatahi? *(How many years do you think the child has been learning through the medium of Māori at primary school?)*			
0-1 tau *0-1 (Years)* ☐	1-2 tau *1-2 (Years)* ☐	2-3 tau *2-3 (Years)* ☐	3-4 tau *3-4 (Years)* ☐
4-5 tau *4-5 (Years)* ☐	6-7 tau *6-7 (Years)* ☐	7-8 tau *7-8 (Years)* ☐	

Te kōrero Māori o te tamaiti *(The child's use of te reo Māori)*

	Kōrerotia ai e te tamaiti te reo Māori <u>ki roto i te akomanga</u>? *(Does the child use Māori Language in the classroom?)* Āe ☐ Kāo ☐ I te nuinga o te wā ☐ I ētahi wā ☐ *(Yes)* *(No)* *(Most of the time)* *(Sometimes)*
	Kōrerotia ai e te tamaiti te reo Māori <u>ki waho i te akomanga</u>? *Does the child use Māori language outside the classroom?* Āe ☐ Kāo ☐ I te nuinga o te wā ☐ I ētahi wā ☐ E aua ☐ *(Yes)* *(No)* *(Most of the time)* *(Sometimes)* *(Don't know)*
	Kōrerotia ai e te tamaiti te reo Māori <u>ki waho i te kura</u>? *Does the child use Māori language outside the school?* Āe ☐ Kāo ☐ I te nuinga o te wā ☐ I ētahi wā ☐ E aua ☐ *(Yes)* *(No)* *(Most of the time)* *(Sometimes)* *(Don't know)*

Mā ngā **MĀTUA/ KAITIAKI Ā**-TURE tēnei wāhanga e whakakī

(Parent/s - Legal guardian of the child to complete this section)

Mātāwaka *(Ethnicity)*

Mātāwaka o te tamaiti *(Child's ethnicity)*	Māori ☐	Pākehā ☐	Atu i ēnei ☐ *(Other)* _____
Ngā iwi matua e rua *(Two main iwi)*	1. _____		2. _____

Te Kōhanga Reo

I haere te tamaiti ki Te Kōhanga Reo? *(Did he/she attend Kohanga Reo?)* Āe (Yes) ☐ Kāo (No) ☐					
E hia <u>tau</u> ia ki Te Kōhanga Reo? *(How many years at Kohanga Reo?)*	0-1 ☐	1-2 ☐	2-3 ☐	3-4 ☐	4-5 ☐

Te reo Māori i te kāinga *(Māori language in the home)*

Kōrero Māori ai <u>te tamaiti **i te kāinga**</u>? (*Does the child speak Māori at home?*)
Āe ☐ *(Yes)* Kāo ☐ *(No)* I te nuinga o te wā ☐ *(Most of the time)* I ētahi wā ☐ *(Sometimes)*
Kōrerotia ai te reo Māori **i te kāinga**? (Is Māori spoken at home?)
Āe ☐ *(Yes)* Kāo ☐ *(No)* I te nuinga o te wā ☐ *(Most of the time)* I ētahi wā ☐ *(Sometimes)*

• Tohua ko wāi ngā tāngata kōrero Māori
  (Indicate the people who speak Māori in the home).
 	
• Tohua mehemea ko te Reo Tuatahi, Reo Tuarua rānei
  (Indicate if this is the person's first language or second language)
 	
• Ki te kore e mōhiotia, kaua e whakakīia
  If not applicable, ignore

Kōrero Māori ai te **whaea/kōkā/māmā**?	Kōrero Māori ai te **matua/pāpā**?
(Does the mother speak Māori?)	*(Does the father speak Māori)*
i. I ngā wā katoa (*Always*) ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*) iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*) iv. Kāo (*Never*)	i. I ngā wā katoa (*Always*) ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*) iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*) iv. Kāo (*Never*)
Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi	Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi
(Māori is their first language)	*(Māori is their first language)*
Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua	Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua
(Māori is their second language)	*(Māori is their second language)*
_____	_____
Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi	Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi
(English is their first language)	*(English is their first language)*
Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua	Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua
(English is their second language)	*(English is their second language)*

Kōrero Māori ai te **tipuna kuia?**

(Does the grandmother speak Māori?)

  i.   I ngā wā katoa (*Always*)
  ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*)
  iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*)
  iv. Kāo (*Never*)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi

(Māori is their first language)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua

(Māori is their second language)

_____

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi

(English is their first language)

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua

(English is their second language)

Kōrero Māori ai te **tipuna koroua?**

(Does the grandfather speak Māori?)

  i.   I ngā wā katoa (*Always*)
  ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*)
  iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*)
  iv. Kāo (*Never*)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi

(Māori is their first language)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua

(Māori is their second language)

_____

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi

(English is their first language)

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua

(English is their second language)

Kōrero Māori ai tētahi/ētahi o ngā **tāina?**

(Do the younger siblings of the same sex speak Māori?)

  i.   I ngā wā katoa (*Always*)
  ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*)
  iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*)
  iv. Kāo (*Never*)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi

(Māori is their first language)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua

(Māori is their second language)

_____

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi

(English is their first language)

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua

(English is their second language)

Kōrero Māori ai tētahi/ētahi o ngā tuākana?

(Do the older siblings of the same sex speak Māori?)

  i.   I ngā wā katoa (*Always*)
  ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*)
  iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*)
  iv. Kāo (*Never*)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi

(Māori is their first language)

Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua

(Māori is their second language)

_____

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi

(English is their first language)

Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua

(English is their second language)

Kōrero Māori ai tētahi/ētahi o ngā **tuāhine**?	Kōrero Māori ai tētahi/ētahi o ngā **tungāne**?
(If the child is a male, do the sister(s) *speak Māori?)*	*(If the child is a female, do the brother(s)* *speak Māori?)*
i. I ngā wā katoa (*Always*) ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*) iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*) iv. Kāo (*Never*)	i. I ngā wā katoa (*Always*) ii. I te nuinga o te wā (*Most of the time*) iii. I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*) iv. Kāo (*Never*)
Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi *(Māori is their first language)*	Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi *(Māori is their first language)*
Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua *(Māori is their second language)*	Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua *(Māori is their second language)*
Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi *(English is their first language)*	Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi *(English is their first language)*
Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua *(English is their second language)*	Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua *(English is their second language)*

Kōrero Māori ai te Matua - Kaitiaki ā-ture *(Does the parent/legal guardian speak Māori?)* i. I ngā wā katoa (*Always*) ii. I te nuinga o te wā *(Most of the time)* *iii.* I ētahi wā (*Sometimes*) iv. Kāo (*Never*) ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	Atu i ēnei i runga ake nei? *(Other)* _____	
Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi ☐ *(Māori is their first language)*		
Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua ☐ *(Māori is their second language)* _____ _	Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuatahi *(Māori is their first language)*	☐
Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi *(English is their first language)* ☐	Ko te reo Māori tōna reo tuarua *(Māori is their second language)* _____	☐
Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua ☐ *(English is their second language)*	Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuatahi *(English is their first language)* ☐ Ko te reo Pākehā tōna reo tuarua ☐ *(English is their second language)*	

Appendix E

Tēnā koutou

Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Te Whakahaere i te Whakamātautau

Tēnā koutou e hāpai tonu nei i tō tātou reo rangatira mā te whakaako i ā tātou tamariki mā te reo Māori. E kore e mutu ngā mihi ki a koutou kua whakaae kia aromatawaia/ whakamātautia te reo-ā-waha o ā tātou tamariki kei te tau tuatahi, tau tuarua, tau tuatoru, tau tuawhā, tau tuarima, tau tuaono, tau tuawhitu me te tau tuawaru. Hei aha? Kia taea ai e tātou tonu me ā tātou tamariki te whakatau i ngā whanaketanga reo-ā-waha mō ngā reanga kei ngā kura e ako ana mā te reo Māori.

Kei konei ngā whakamātautau, ngā taputapu me ngā rauemi hei whakahaere i te mahi whakamātautau. Ehia kē nei te roa o mātou e whakaaro ana me pēhea rā te hopu i ngā kōrero a ngā tamariki. I te mutunga ka whakatau, ko te mea ngāwari ake ko te hopu i ngā kōrero mā tētahi mīhini hopuoro (microphone) ka taea te whakamāu atu ki a koutou rorohiko.

Kotahi noa te hopuoro kei roto i te pouaka rawa/rauemi. Kei te tatari atu kia tae mai ētahi at.
- Mehemea <50 ngā tamariki o te kura, kāore e tukua atu tētahi anō
- Mehemea 50-100 ka tukua atu tētahi anō
- Mehemea >100 ka tukua atu e rua anō.

E pā ana ki te rākau USB:
- Ka taea te whakamau atu i te 455 meneti kōrero
- Mehemea nui ake i te 150 e rua ngā rākau USB.

Tēparatia ngā pepa katoa a ia tamaiti ki te pepa:

> Kaiaka Reo 2010
> Reo-ā-waha-ki te Motu
> Tā te Tamaiti
> Tau__Kura__Tamaiti__Rā_____

Hei āwhina ake i te whakahaere o te whakamātautau :
- Mātakihia te whakaaturanga rorohiko (Powerpoint) me te ataata (DVD)
- Āta tirohia ngā tohutohu o te whakahaere i te whakamātau.
- **Tino** parakitihitia te hopu kōrero i mua i te whakahaerenga i te whakamātautau.

Āta tirohia te rārangi tohu (checklist) kia mōhio ai koutou he aha i tukuna atu, ā, he aha hoki hei whakahoki mai.

Whakahaeretia te whakamātautau i ngā rā o te **26, 27, 28 o Paenga-whāwhā/Aperira**. Oti ana i a koutou, tukua mai mā NZ Post i mua i te 10 karaka o te ata o te Taite, te 29 o Aperira, kia tae mai ai i mua i te 3 o Haratua/May. Mā NZ Post anake, nā rātou te tīkiti tuku kei roto i ngā pouaka.

E āhei ana au ki te āwhina atu i te whakahaere o ngā whakamātautau mā te whakawhiwhi i te $250.00 ki ia kura kua whakauru mai ki te kaupapa. Ki te hiahia tō kura kia whai wāhi ki tēnei

pūtea āwhina, imēra mai mō te pukatono *Whakawhanake Pūkenga Ngaio -Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu (Professional Development - Reo-ā-Waha ki te Motu).* Tukua mai tō tono ki: kaimahi.hakoni@xtra.co.nz. I runga anō i ngā tono, tērā pea ka taea te whakarahi ake i te pūtea āwhina mō ngā kura he nui ake i te 100 ngā tamariki.

Kia kaha koutou ki te whakatutuki mai i te kaupapa i roto i ngā rā kua whakaritea.

Nāku, me ngā mihi nui ki a koutou katoa.

Katarina Edmonds

Appendix F

Kura: (Kura Ingoa)			
Ingoa o te Tamaiti (Childs Name):	Nga tau ki te kura (Year (e.g 08)	Nama o te Kura (school number)	Nama o te tamaiti (child number)
	01	##	01
	02	##	02
	03	##	03
	04	##	04
	05	##	05
	06	##	06
	07	##	07
	08	##	08

Appendix G

Ingoa Kaiako	Kura Number	Teacher Number
(Kura Name)	01	
	01	01
	01	02
	01	03
	01	04
	01	05
	01	06
	01	07
	01	08

Appendix H

Kaiaka Reo 2010

Reo Ā-Waha ki te Motu

Tā te Kaiako - Ngā Tohutohu

Tau o ngā tamariki		Kura		Kaiako		Rā	

Te Whakahaere i te Whakamātautau Kōrero

<u>I mua i te tīmatatanga me reri mai ēnei:</u>

1. He rūma wātea e pai ana te mārama.

2. He wāhi pai hei kōrerorero mō te kaiako me te tamaiti.

3. Te rārangi ingoa o ngā tamariki me ō rātou nama (tau, kura, tamaiti).

4. Te pukatono *Kaiaka Reo 2010; Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Tā te Tamaiti* kua oti kē te whakauru atu:

   • i te Tau o te tamaiti ki te kura (Year level of the child eg, Yr 1);

   • i te nama o te kura;

   • i te nama o te tamaiti.

5. Te pukatono *Kaiaka Reo 2010; Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Tā te Kaiako.*

6. Te pukatono, he rorohiko me te hopuoro (microphone).

7. He pene/pene rākau.

8. Te pepa whakahoki kōrero: Reo-ā- Waha ki te Motu: Tā te tamaiti.

9. Te pepa whakahoki kōrero: Reo-ā- Waha ki te Motu: Tā te kaiako.

10. Te rangahau whānui hei whakakītanga mā te kaiako, e pā ana ki te kaiaka reo (language proficiency).

11. Kia mahara ki te āta whakaingoa i te kōnae tatangi mā te whakauru atu:

    • i te Tau o te tamaiti ki te kura (Year level of the child eg, Yr 1);

    • i te nama o te kura;

    • i te nama o te tamaiti.

12. Te rākau USB hei uta atu i ngā ngā kōnae tatangi o ia reanga tau ki te kura: Tau tuatahi, tau tuarua, tau tuatoru, tau tuawhā, tau tuarima, tau tuaono, tau tuawhitu, tau tuawaru.

I ngā kōrero e whai mai nei, mehemea kua tītahatia ngā kupu, he tohu tēnei; he kupu hei āta kōrerotanga mā ngā kaiako/kaiwhakahaere.

He whakamārama: ki ngā tamariki

1. *He kaupapa whakahirahira tā te kura. He kaupapa hei āwhina i te ako mā te reo Māori. Ā, e hiahiatia ana, kia rangona, kia rangahaua te reo-ā-waha o te tamariki mai i te tau tuatahi, tae noa ki te tau tuawaru. He tūmomo whakamātautau, otirā, ko tā koutou mahi, he whakaputa whakaaro mō ētahi pikitia.*

2. *Ka haere koutou ki te taha o ### mahi ai, ki te rūma ###.*

3. *Ka whiwhi koutou:*
   - *i tētahi tauira kōrero (he rārangi pikitia) hei kōrerotanga*
   - *i tē pikitia whakamātautau hei kōrerotanga.*

4. *Ka hopukina ngā kōrero ki runga i te rorohiko mā te hopuoro.*

5. *Ka noho tonu kia tukua rawa e te kaiako kia haere.*

6. *Whakarongo, mahia ngā tohutohu a te kaiako.*

7. *Kāore e taea e te kaiako koutou te āwhina.*

Te Tauira Kōrero

Te whakatau i te tamaiti

Mihi atu ki te tamaiti. Ko koe kei te mōhio ki a ia. Māu ia e whakatau kia reri ai ia ki te mahi. Kia reri ia, tīmataria ngā mahi.

Kaiako: *Tēnā koe ###. He kaupapa whakahirahira tā tāua i te rangi nei. Hei āwhina i te kaupapa ako mā te reo Māori. E hiahiatia ana, kia rangona koe e kōrero ana i tō tātou reo rangatira, arā, te reo Māori. He tūmomo whakamātautau tēnei, engari ko tāu noa, he whakaputa i ōu whakaaro mō ngā pikitia ka whakaaturia e au ki a koe. Tērā pea kua haina/tāmoko koe i te pepa whakaae.*

Tuatahi, me āta titiro tāua mehemea kei te tika taku whakakī i te pukatono mōu. Titiro mai: Tau ## koe; Nama ## te kura; Nama ## koe. Kei te ōrite tēnei ki te rārangi ingoa?

Tamaiti: Ka titiro, ka whakaae atu.

Whakaaturia te puka whakamātautau ki te ākonga, kia kite ai ia i te wāhi kua tuhia tōna Tau ki te kura, te nama o te kura, tōna nama me te rā i whakahaeretia te whakamātautau. (Kia mahara ki te whakahāngai i te nama o te pukatono ki tō te tamaiti nama).

Te Whakahaere i te Tauira Kōrero

Whakaaturia te **Tauira Kōrero** ki te ākonga:

Kaiako: *Anei tētahi raupapa pikitia. Hei parakitihi i te whakamātautau, kei te pīrangi au kia āta whakaarotia e koe ia pikitia mō te kotahi meneti. Kia reri koe kōrerotia he pakiwaitara mō te raupapa pikitia, mai i te pikitia tuatahi tae noa ki te pikitia tuatoru. Me haere whakapae.*

Whakaaturia te haere whakapae. Tukua kia whakaarotia e ia ngā pikitia o te **Tauira Kōrero** mō te kotahi meneti.

Kaiako: *He pātai āu?*

Tukua te tamaiti kia ui pātai.

Kaiako: *Tēnā, kōrerotia mai te raupapa pikitia mai i te pikitia tuatahi ki te pikitia tuatoru.*

Tukua kia kōrerotia ngā pikitia e toru.

Kia mutu te kōrero a te tamaiti, mihi atu ki a ia ka tuku ai kia whai wāhi ia ki te ui pātai, me te whakaputa whakaaro.

Kaiako: *He pātai, he kōrero rānei āu mō te mahi kua mahia e koe?*

(Tukua kia kōrero, whakautua hoki ana pātai.)

Te Whakamātautau

Kaiako: *Kia huri ake tāua ki te whakamātautau. I tēnei wā, kei te pīrangi au kia kōrerotia e koe ētahi atu pikitia. He rite tonu te whakahaere ki te Tauira Kōrero. Engari i tēnei wā, e iwa kē ngā pikitia. Me hanga koe i tētahi kōrero/pakiwaitara/pūrākau mō te raupapa pikitia.*

Kaiako: *Anei te rārangi pikitia hei kōrerotanga māu.*

   (Whakaaturia ki te tamaiti.)

Kaiako: *Āta whakaarotia ngā pikitia katoa.*

   (Tukua kia whakaarotia e te tamaiti ngā pikitia o te Te Whakamātautau mō te 1-2 meneti.)

   He pātai āu?

   (Tukua te tamaiti kia ui pātai, kia kōrero hoki.)

Kaiako: *Tēnā, mehemea kua reri koe, me kōrero mai koe i tō kōrero/ pakiwaitara/ pūrākau mō te raupapa pikitia: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Me haere whakapae. Tohua mai te haere whakapae mā tō matimati.*

   Kia reri koe, ka whakamahi au i tēnei hopuoro kua honoa ki te rorohiko hei hopu i āu kōrero. Kua reri koe?

   (Kia tohu te tamaiti kua reri ia, kī atu:)

Kaiako: *Nā reira, tīmata …*

(Ki konei hoki koe e tīmata ai ki te hopu i ngā kōrero a te tamaiti.

Hopukina ngā kōrero mō te 3 meneti. (Ki te hiahia te tamaiti kia roa ake ana kōrero, tukua ia kia kōrero tonu.)

Kaiako: *Kia paku whakarongo noa tāua ki ō kōrero, kia mōhio ai tāua kua āta mau ki runga i te rorohiko. Māku hoki e patopato atu i ō tau ki te kura, te nama o te kura, me tōu anō nama ki runga i te rorohiko. Mā tēnei ka mōhiotia ko ēhea āu ake kōrero. Kei te pai?*

Whakahoki Kōrero

Kaiako: *Tēnā koe ###. Kei te hiahia hoki ahau kia whakakiia mai e koe tēnei pepa.*

(Whakaaturia te pepa: Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Pukatono whakahoki kōrero o te whakahaere: Tā te tamaiti).

I tēnei pepa ka whakaatu mai koe i ōu whakaaro mō te mahi kua oti nei i a koe. Māku e pānui, ko tāu noa he tohu, "Āe, āhua, kāo" rānei, mō te nuinga. Kōtahi noa te wāhi he āhua roa ake te whakautu.

Kaiako: *Tēnā koe ###. Nā kia hoki atu koe ki te akomanga, tono atu ki te kaiako kia tukua mai a ### ki a au nē.*

Tamaiti: Āe, Kia ora.

Kaiako: Kia ora.

Kia wehe atu te tamaiti

1. Āta titiro anō mehemea e hāngai ana ngā taipitopito o te pukatono o te tamaiti ki te kōnae tatangi (sound file). arā:

   - te Tau o te tamaiti ki te kura (Year level of the child eg, Yr 1);
   - te nama o te kura;
   - te nama o te tamaiti.

2. Kia oti katoa ngā tamariki o ia reanga tau utaina atu/ kapehia atu ki runga i te USB (kua tukuna atu). Kia mahara ki te āta whakaingoa, kia mōhiotia ai ko wai ngā tau tuatahi, ngā tau tuarua, tau tuatoru, tau tuawhā, tau tuarima, tau tuaono, tau tuawhitu, tau tuawaru.

3. Whakakīia mai te pukatono: *Reo-Ā-Waha ki te Motu: Pukatono whakahoki kōrero o te whakahaere: Tā te Kaiako*. Āta whakauru noatia ko te nama o tō kura, me te nama mōu te kaiako. Kaua kō tō ingoa.

4. Whakakīa mai hoki te pepa rangahau whānui e pa ana ki te *Kaiaka Reo (proficiency).*

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Tēnā rawa atu koutou, kua whakapau kaha nei.

Me kore ake koutou, e kore te kaupapa e tutuki.

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