Adult Migrant English Language Education Policy in Aotearoa New Zealand, 2002-2014

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACE	Adult Community Education

AMELE	Adult Migrant English Language Education

CAE	Cambridge Advanced English

CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CPE	(Cambridge) Certificate of Proficiency in English

EAL	English as an Additional Language

ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages

FFTO	Foundation-Focused Training Opportunities

GCE	General Certificate in Education

IB	International Baccalaureate

IELTS	International English Language Testing System

ILN	Intensive Literacy and Numeracy

ITPs	Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics

L1	First Language

L2	Second Language

LLN	Language, Literacy and Numeracy

LPP	Language Policy and Planning

MBIE	Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment

MSD	Ministry of Social Development

NZ	New Zealand

NZCEL	New Zealand Certificates in English Language

NZQA	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
NZQF	New Zealand Qualifications Framework
NZSL	New Zealand Sign Language
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OSX	Operating System Ten (Macintosh)
PDF	Portable Document Format
PTEs	Private Training Establishments
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
REAPs	Rural Educations Activities Programs
RQ	Research Question
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SMC	Skilled Migrant Category
SNAP	Settlement National Action Plan
TEC	Tertiary Education Commission
TES	Tertiary Education Strategy
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
WINZ	Work and Income New Zealand
WLF	Workplace Literacy Fund

ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which, to a substantial extent, has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Yulia Khan

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ABSTRACT

English language education is an important policy issue for New Zealand. According to the 2013 Census, more than 87,000 people are unable to speak English (Statistics New Zealand, 2014). This figure may not include people whose limited proficiency prevents them from adequately functioning and participating in society. New Zealand's relatively open immigration policy and an on-going commitment to refugee resettlement continue to generate demand for quality English language education appropriate to migrants' needs.

This thesis presents an analysis of adult migrant English language education (AMELE) policy in New Zealand from 2002 to 2014. It maps AMELE as a policy field, identifies key stakeholders, and reviews and analyses two key policy documents. Drawing on the methods of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), the thesis investigates assumptions and attitudes that underlie AMELE policy and considers whether migrants' specific learning needs are recognised.

A number of interesting findings emerged from the analysis. AMELE is largely influenced by the policies emanating from the domains of immigration and tertiary education. Immigration New Zealand/Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment and the Tertiary Education Commission enjoy significant institutional power, as manifested in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and the *Tertiary Education Strategy (TES) 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) policy documents.

The analysis indicated a lack of synergy between the immigration and tertiary education policies regarding English language proficiency expectations and the type of English language education which would meet the needs of migrant

learners. While current immigration policy might be purposefully flexible around the entry English language requirements for certain migrants, no justification is given for such flexibility and it can be inequitable for certain groups. The current provision of English language education appears to be insufficient and limited in scope. Moreover, the demand for English language education that immigration policy continues to generate is not reflected in tertiary education policy.

As demonstrated in the CDA of *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b), the tertiary education policy is too generic and AMELE-related policy provisions are silenced. The languages of migrants themselves are absent as English loses its specificity and becomes the unmarked, normative 'language'. Furthermore, the policy does not distinguish between literacy in the first language and literacy in English, nor does it clearly articulate what 'literacy' entails. The thesis suggests that such gaps in immigration and tertiary education policy discourses create obstacles to facilitating acquisition of English language and literacy, which, in turn, may hinder migrants' integration into New Zealand society.

To make AMELE more suitable to requirements, a holistic approach to policy is required. Particular attention should be paid to the immigration–tertiary education policy nexus. For policymakers, this approach will help improve decisions in both fields, and align policy aims and outcomes.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will be useful not only for policy makers, but also educators, migrants who have already settled in New Zealand and the prospective migrants who might call New Zealand home one day.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

In an English-dominant country like New Zealand, the knowledge of English and the ability to use it in everyday life is essential (Peddie, 1997, 2005; Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013; Waite, 1992). For migrants who arrive with limited or no prior knowledge of English, access to English language education is important for their successful re/settlement and integration into New Zealand society. Migrants who arrive with low or no literacy in their first language (henceforth L1) have even more particular educational needs. This thesis addresses this issue by analyzing New Zealand's adult migrant English education (henceforth AMELE) policy drawing on two top-level documents: *Tertiary Education Strategy [TES] 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and *Operational Manual – Residence Section 2014* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c). A discursive approach to analysis is taken in order to examine the attitudes towards and assumptions about 'language' and 'literacy' in the policy documents as far as these relate to adult migrant learners. The analysis will demonstrate that an L2 learner remains marginalised in the (English) 'literacy' education. As Thwaite (2015) explains, this is because the policy makes no distinction between the ESOL and adult literacy sectors, nor L1 and ESOL literacies.

This chapter begins with a review of the history and context of migrants and language education in New Zealand. The next section explains the aims and significance of this study, and the thesis' research questions follow from these. The final section explains how the thesis is structured.

1.2 Background to the study

New Zealand's population is increasingly made up of people from diverse, cultural and linguistic backgrounds (Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013; Statistics New Zealand, 2014). There are two main factors contributing to this diversity:

1) New Zealand has a relatively open immigration policy largely underpinned by the market-based/neoliberal approach (Ongley & Pearson, 1995; Spoonley, 2006; Trlin & Watts, 2004), and

2) New Zealand is committed to refugee resettlement under international humanitarian obligations (Immigration New Zealand, 2013d; Ministry of Social Development, 2008).

In the 20th century New Zealand immigration policy showed a preference toward migrants from the 'traditional source countries', such as Great Britain and Holland (Clydesdale, 2011; Ongley & Pearson, 1995). A lack of low-skilled workers in the 1960s let to an increased acceptance of migrants from the South Pacific (Clydesdale, 2011; Ongley & Pearson, 1995; Spoonley, 2006). From the 1980s on New Zealand has steadily moved away from the country-based approach, which is seen as discriminatory by many scholars (Lyons, Madden, Chamberlain, & Carr, 2011; Spoonley, 2006; Trlin & Watts, 2004). Increasingly, policies are driven by economic rationalism and labour market demands (Kahn, 2004; Ongley & Pearson, 1995; Trlin & Watts, 2004). As a consequence, employability[1] and financial assets have become the main criteria on which migrants have been selected with little emphasis on nationality (Bedford, Ho, & Lidgard, 2000; Coates & Carr, 2005; Immigration New Zealand, 2014c).

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[1] By employability Immigration New Zealand/MBIE means a person's professional experience, qualifications, skills in the identified growth areas and other factors that will help them secure employment (Immigration New Zealand, 2014).

In addition to these changes in the immigration policy, New Zealand's engagement in refugee resettlement has been a contributing factor to population diversity. As noted by the UNHCR (2013) and Immigration New Zealand (2013d), refugees come from various regions and countries. This is clearly demonstrated in the allocation of places in the 2013-2014 annual quota of 750 refugees: Africa (108 persons), Asia and Pacific (375), Middle East and North Africa (107), none from Europe and 160 from the Americas (UNHCR, 2013).

Accepting immigrants and refugees of various nationalities inevitably generates a constant demand for English language education. For many of them, English is a second or additional language and levels of English proficiency vary. The issue of access to English language education for migrants was noted in the two significant language policy initiatives that included consideration of AMELE: *Aoteareo – Speaking for Ourselves* (Waite, 1992) and *Languages in Aotearoa New Zealand* (Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013).

Aoteareo – Speaking for Ourselves (Waite, 1992) is a discussion document that was released under the auspices of Ministry of Education. It stresses two main points: the importance of adequate English language proficiency among all people and the need to create opportunities for new migrants to learn English. Both these are seen as necessary in order for migrants to participate fully in New Zealand society. This entails being able to access information, make use of social services, enter the education system, up-skill oneself, and seek employment (Waite, 1992). *Aoteareo* made two crucial suggestions regarding English for Speakers of Other Languages (henceforth ESOL) education: to recognise the variety of circumstances in which new migrants find themselves, and to offer a range of programs that would suit the needs of all migrants (Waite, 1992).

Languages in Aotearoa New Zealand (Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013) was another attempt to encourage a wider public discussion on a number of issues pertaining to language practices in contemporary New Zealand. The paper reiterated the importance of access to English language tuition and ongoing support for all New Zealanders including new migrants and refugees. It highlighted two observations critical of the current education system. The first concerns the current education system's lack of formal appreciation of students' literacy skills in their L1. The second is the fact that English is solely used as the language of instruction and assessment across the curriculum, and this is accompanied by a lack of adequate English language support for learners who require it (Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013). Such practices, the paper implies, hinder learning processes, and slow down a person's ability to integrate into the new society and utilise their potential.

1.3 Aims and significance of the study

The suggestions from *Aoteareo* (Waite, 1992) and *Languages in Aotearoa New Zealand* (Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013) regarding AMELE and changes in the immigration policy, including the policy relating to refugees, indicate strong interplay between the two policy domains – tertiary/adult education[2] and immigration. To address the issue of English language education, including its adequacy, suitability and access, this thesis engages in the analysis of AMELE policy drawing the main documents from those domains: *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c).

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[2] In New Zealand, tertiary education encompasses all post compulsory education. The terms 'adult' and 'tertiary' education are interchangeable, but for the sake of clarity and consistency the thesis will use the latter.

The thesis' research aim is to investigate how AMELE policy is constructed in the selected policy texts focusing on the underlying assumptions, attitudes to English and English language education and its inclusiveness. This subsumes three specific research questions (RQs):

RQ 1: What assumptions does the policy contain in relation to English and English language education?

RQ 2: Which aspects of AMELE are given a priority and how are other aspects of the immigration and tertiary education policies treated?

RQ 3: To what extent is the AMELE policy inclusive of immigrants and refugees learner needs?

Given the focus of the thesis, and its use of texts for data, the methods of critical discourse analysis (henceforth CDA) will be the key approach. CDA has a number of advantages that are particularly important for this study. Not only will it help interpret and explain the findings, but it will also provide the linguistic evidence that supports this interpretation.

This thesis will show that AMELE requires a holistic view, and that particular attention should be given to the nexus between tertiary education and immigration policies. Of crucial importance in the New Zealand context, is the lack of synergy between the two policies that affect adult migrants. This jeopardizes migrants' settlement and integration into New Zealand society.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will be useful for a broad audience: educators, policy makers, migrants and anyone who identifies themselves as a New Zealander. For educators and administrative staff, who work with learners of immigrant and refugee backgrounds, the thesis will provide a concise outline of the

English language education policies introduced from 2002 to 2014 and highlight issues of critical importance. Although neither educators nor administrators are generally expected to have an in-depth knowledge of the policies, being familiar with the main developments might help them be more critical in their professional activities, able to contribute to policy discussions when necessary and be mindful of an increasing diversity of learners.

For policy makers working in the fields of tertiary education and immigration, the thesis encourages a forward-thinking and pragmatic approach. This involves developing a system that is tailored to cater for the learning needs of <u>all</u> people in a 'super-diverse' New Zealand (Harvey, 2013; Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013; Vertovec, 2007) New Zealand. In particular, this applies to policies that are relevant to prospective migrants, as well as those who have been in New Zealand for quite some time and have not achieved a working proficiency in English. Such an approach will allow for a better understanding of the implications of AMELE policy for migrants, especially prospective ones, and creating a system that would contribute to their successful settlement and integration.

Finally, for migrants and members of the host society, this thesis will serve as a point of reference to English language education policies. By indicating gaps in the immigration policy and the foci of tertiary education policies, the thesis will also remind policy makers of the difficulties in achieving a sound command of English. For the prospective migrants, the findings will help with making more practical decisions regarding English: taking considerations of various immigrant streams/categories and associated English language requirements, as well as issues around eligibility for funded English language courses and their learning foci.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

In addition to the introduction, the thesis contains five chapters:

- Literature Review,

- New Zealand Policy Context,

- Methodology,

- Analysis & Findings, and

- Discussion & Conclusions.

The Literature Review defines and maps AMELE as an academic and policy field. It also provides an overview of relevant studies. The New Zealand Policy Context chapter outlines the content of the relevant AMELE policies adopted from 2001 to 2014 and identifies the key stakeholders and government agencies involved in the development and implementation of AMELE policies. This chapter also explains how the term 'migrants' is defined and used in the thesis. The Methodology chapter outlines approaches to education policy studies, states the principles of CDA, explains its key research tools, and provides a review of the previous studies that have utilised CDA as a method in education policy research. The analytical framework, procedure and the data that the thesis deployed are explained. Following the Methodology chapter, the thesis presents Analysis and Findings. The chapter consists of two main parts. The first part is the analysis and presentation of findings of the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) document. The second part contains the analysis and findings from *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). The final chapter incorporates discussion of the policy implications, recommendations and concluding remarks. It also acknowledges the release of the most recent *TES 2014-*

2019 (Ministry of Education, 2014) and makes a few suggestions for further research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Locating and defining AMELE

Adult migrant English language education (henceforth AMELE) is a broad field that brings together three distinct themes under one umbrella. These are Adult ESOL, adult literacy studies, and literacy in the workplace. The contributions to each theme come from various academic disciplines, such as applied linguistics, including both language teaching and second language acquisition; sociology; education and policy studies. Drawing from these sources makes AMELE a multifaceted and complex field, and in order to define it one needs to unpack and examine each element. Thus, the chapter has three main sections that will discuss each theme. Particular attention will be given to those sources relevant to a New Zealand context.

2.2 Adult ESOL

Adult ESOL, being a subset of AMELE, is quite a broad theme in its own right. Contributions primarily come from applied linguistics and its sub-disciplines: second language acquisition (henceforth SLA), language policy and planning (henceforth LPP), as well as sociolinguistics and adult education. This section will highlight the main findings from research in Adult ESOL and discuss policy issues in Adult ESOL in a New Zealand context.

A key observation of the Adult ESOL field is that it is context-specific, therefore research findings cannot necessarily be generalised from one country to another (Murray, 2005). Nevertheless the overseas research on Adult ESOL is characterised as spasmodic and fragmentary (Burns, 2006; Burns & Roberts, 2010). It is spasmodic because provision for consistently funded research in the

Adult ESOL field is rare. This means that any available funding is usually targeted at short-term projects within a specific localized context. The fragmentary nature of research can be explained by the diversity and transitory English language provision, which is usually dispersed across various agencies and providers (Burns, 2006; Burns & Roberts, 2010).

Murray (2005) and Norton (2006) point out that Adult ESOL as a field of practice and research is affected by perceptions of Adult ESOL learners that vary across English-dominant countries. Within these perceptions, there are two important aspects: learners' characteristics and needs (Murray, 2005; Norton, 2006; Ricento, 2005). SLA research suggests that the second language (L2) learner is a distinct area. SLA researchers and language practitioners note a few other crucial points that need to be considered. Hinkel (2005, p. 3) summarises them as follows:

- Learners in different locations and contexts have different needs and different learning abilities;
- Different learners have different levels of education and literacy;
- Individual learners or groups of learners can be distinct in terms of their age, socioeconomic backgrounds, and sociolinguistic variables.

2.2.1 Adult ESOL as policy in the context of New Zealand

This subsection will first define Adult ESOL policy according to LPP framework, and then report main findings from the literature focused on the Adult ESOL policy issues in New Zealand.

Based on Hornberger's (2006) theoretical framework of LPP, Adult ESOL policy is concerned with acquisition planning. It involves efforts to create

opportunities and incentives to learn languages/literacies, in this case the acquisition of English and English literacy. Within acquisition planning, Hornberger differentiates two approaches: policy and cultivation planning. The former attends to matters of society and nation on a macro level with an emphasis on the formal role of language/s in society. By comparison, the cultivation planning approach, is concerned with language's functional role. In the case of Adult ESOL policy, the goal within a cultivation planning approach is wider distribution of L2 literacy (Hornberger, 2006). Depending on a country, Adult ESOL can either be part of an explicit national languages policy (see Lo Bianco, 1997 for an Australian example) or be treated separately.

In New Zealand, Adult ESOL is nominally a separate policy in the domain of tertiary education. In May 2003 Ministry of Education released *the Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003), which to date remains the only explicit and comprehensive statement on issues around English language education. The content of this strategy is discussed in Chapter 3.

Adult ESOL policy remains problematic due to governmental policy around languages issues. The New Zealand government seems to be disinterested in the development of a comprehensive national languages policy despite language professionals' lobbying for it (Benton, 1996; East, Shackleford, & Spence, 2007; Harvey, 2013; Kaplan, 1994; Roach & Roskvist, 2007; Shackleford, 1997). Peddie (1997, 2005) adds there is a lack of political will to develop and adopt one.

The New Zealand government approach to languages issues inevitably has implications for Adult ESOL and the way ESOL education is delivered and organised. Jeffrey Waite , the author of the *Aoteareo: Speaking for Ourselves* report (Waite, 1992), stressed the importance of ESOL education being available for all

learners, both young and adult. He argued that it should be part of a national language policy. The presence of such a policy would have made ESOL provision more systematic, accessible and better coordinated over the last twenty three years (Benton, 1996; East et al., 2007; Waite, 1992).

The possibility for systematic, accessible and coordinated ESOL provision in New Zealand relates to two critical policy issues: curriculum and funding.

- *Curriculum*

As noted by Roach and Roskvist (2007), there is no national ESOL curriculum for adult learners. This means that ESOL providers have considerable autonomy to design their own programs and therefore standards differ among various institutions that deliver ESOL education (Roach & Roskvist, 2007). The absence of a national Adult ESOL curriculum[3] carries the implication that there is no government oversight of the quality and consistency of the Adult ESOL education, particularly in the private sector.

One important aspect within any curriculum is a mechanism for conceptualising languages-in-education policy. Spence (2004) notes that, in the case of ESOL provision for young learners, this mechanism rests upon the curriculum reforms that are introduced and then monitored by the Ministry of Education (Spence, 2004). For Adult ESOL, however, no such mechanism exists and relevant matters are split between different government agencies or departments (Burns, 2006; Burns & Roberts, 2010; Ker, Adams, & Skyrme, 2013; Roach & Roskvist, 2007). Among these are the Tertiary Education Commission (henceforth

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[3] The New Zealand Certificates in English Language (NZCEL) are relatively new qualifications and are only offered by PTEs and ITPs. NZCEL do not have a set curriculum and delivery is tied to NZQA's unit standards (NZQA, n.d.)

TEC), Ministry of Education, Immigration New Zealand/Department of Labour/ MBIE.

- *Funding*

Funding is an important issue in Adult ESOL policy that has implications for availability and accesibility of ESOL education, as well as research and evaluation of ESOL programs (Burns & Roberts, 2010; Ker et al., 2013; Roach & Roskvist, 2007). Hence there are two elements to consider: funding-for-ESOL provision and funding for research. In terms of the former, access to ESOL education is crucial for migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds. People's ability to use English in a variety of contexts is linked to successful settlement and participation in New Zealand society (Henderson, 2004; White, Watts, & Trlin, 2001, 2002). White, Watts and Trlin (2001, 2002) reported that the main obstacle preventing migrants from accessing ESOL education is tuition cost. Subsidised tuition is then a significant element in the funding policy within Adult ESOL. Reviewing the current state of funding in Adult ESOL is worthwhile as it will allow to identify which English language programs migrants have access to and whether there are any specific requirements for eligibility.

Funding for research is a considerable gap in the New Zealand funding policy. There is no funded national research and evaluation program for Adult ESOL, which Roach and Roskvist (2007) argue New Zealand needs. They suggest referring to the Australian model, where funding for research is organised through the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research based at Macquarie University. The presence of a similar centre in New Zealand would facilitate a consistent and on-going research on the adult ESOL related issues and

also encourage government's oversight of ESOL program evaluations (Burns, 2006; Burns & Roberts, 2010; Murray, 2005).

The issue of funding in Adult ESOL, as Murray (2005) notes, ultimately depends on the approach to adult education at the policy level. She observes that in the countries with a focus on adult literacy, e.g. the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand, ESOL practitioners have to argue that ESOL is a distinct field and that it is different from adult literacy. At the same time, ESOL practitioners advocate for literacy to be included as a language teaching focus in order for ESOL to get recognition and receive funding (Burns, 2006; Hillier, 2009; Murray, 2005; Roach & Roskvist, 2007). So to be able to understand funding policy in Adult ESOL one needs to consider and refer to the adult literacy policy. Of particular focus is an investigation of how literacy and ESOL are addressed and defined in the policy, and if there are any distinctions between these two aspects.

2.2.1.2 Language assessment in Adult ESOL

Language assessment is another area in Adult ESOL research that has to be acknowledged and examined. Language assessment is defined as "an institutional practice that takes form of large-scale proficiency tests or curriculum-related assessment" (McNamara, 2005, p. 775). Examples of large-scale proficiency tests are the International English Language Testing System (henceforth IELTS), the Test of English as a Foreign Language (henceforth TOEFL). The research, as McNamara (2005) observes, has mostly focused on these two tests.

This subsection discusses two factors: language proficiency assessment as a policy tool and test score validation. The review and analysis of the policy documents (see Chapters 3 and 5), will show that in the domain of immigration English language tests, among other requirements, are used to determine

immigrants' eligibility to obtain permanent residence, and what test scores are deemed acceptable.

- *Language proficiency assessment as a policy tool*

Language proficiency assessment is widely used for immigration and citizenship purposes. In English-dominant countries, including New Zealand, English language proficiency assessment has been part of immigration requirements since 1995 (Kunnan, 2005; Ross, 2011). The assessments that were used in the early 20th century, as Kunnan (2005) notes, featured an objective of racial exclusion and served as a gatekeeper. Such practices were then largely underpinned by political considerations. Furthermore, there was a distinct nexus between the governments and agencies that developed those tests at governments' requests (Spolsky, 1995, as cited in Kunnan, 2005).

In New Zealand, English language proficiency assessment has been affected by political and economic interests of the government (Kunnan, 2005). In 1995 it introduced IELTS as a means of assessing immigrants' English proficiency. The New Zealand government also imposed a NZ$20,000 fee that could be refunded on condition that an immigrant achieved the required level of English, i.e. IELTS score 5.0 or higher (Hoffmann, 1998; Kunnan, 2005). In 1998 this deposit was abolished and replaced with a much lower fee that could be spent towards ESOL tuition. The fee varied depending on a person's level of English. In addition, the minimum IELTS score was lowered to 4.0 (Hoffmann, 1998; Kunnan, 2005). It can be inferred that these measures were introduced as part of a solution to limit government responsibility over funded provision of English language. It suggests that responsibility for English language proficiency has to be borne by immigrants themselves and should not be a public charge. A move towards lowering a

minimum IELTS score and a pre-paid ESOL entitlement, can be seen as a strategic policy tool to target specific categories of migrants, such as business people and investors, and ensure these people's entry to New Zealand is not affected by ESOL-related policies.

Hoffman's (1998) and Kunnan's (2005) reviews of language assessment/testing policy in New Zealand need updating. Since 1998 the policy around levels of English proficiency for immigrants has undergone changes: new immigrant categories have been introduced and alternative ways of satisfying English language requirements other than by means of IELTS have become available. The details are discussed in Chapter 3.

Apart from being used for immigration and citizenship purposes, language proficiency assessment is also used by educational institutions to determine students' eligibility and readiness to undertake academic studies. Knowledge of English can be assessed by international large-scale tests like IELTS and TOEFL or university-based tests (Hamp-Lyons, 2011). However, as Hamp-Lyons (2011) observes, assessment of English for academic purposes is a very undeveloped area. Of particular concerns are issues of assessment validity, i.e. whether the required test scores and interpretations of them can serve as indications of particular levels of English proficiency and literacy in English.

- *Test score validation*

Test score validation is a process that involves interpretation of tests scores and an assessment of test-takers' competence (McNamara, 2005). Test score validation is a critical element in language assessment, particularly if language proficiency is determined solely by means of a test. As mentioned earlier, English language tests are used for various purposes. Migrants, many of whom come from

non-English speaking backgrounds, may need to demonstrate their knowledge of English before they enrol in academic study and/or satisfy immigration requirements to obtain a permanent residence status. In New Zealand, academic institutions and immigration authorities rely on the IELTS test.

Given that IELTS is used to test people's English for a variety of purposes, i.e. immigration and settlement, education and work, one should question whether IELTS scores adequately represent people's proficiency in English and ability to use English in the contexts that are relevant for them. Hunter's (2007b) ethnographic study, which investigated migrants' communication in various workplaces around New Zealand, reports that test scores correspond to descriptors of proficiency that are too generic. Her more recent study on employer's perspectives on workplace communication and employment outcomes for migrants in New Zealand found that the required score in the IELTS test, which is currently set at 6.5 average, was not an indicator of 'sufficient' proficiency in English (Hunter, 2012). In the study, migrants who achieve the required minimum score in IELTS quite often found themselves either unable to find skilled employment or ended up having a job that was well below their skill level (Hunter, 2012). Similar results are reported in other studies that investigated the issue of unemployment and/or underemployment due to immigrants' lack of local experience and English language skills (Bedford et al., 2000; Spoonley, 2006; Ward & Masgoret, 2008). These studies, however, do not acknowledge all immigrant categories under which permanent residence status was gained and different minimum scores in IELTS that are dependent on an immigrant category. It should also be noted that not all immigrant categories are subject to English language

criteria, including the minimum IELTS scores. Hence a closer examination and review of English language requirements for each immigrant category is required.

Another critique of English language tests refers to the definition of language proficiency and how the use of English is assessed in standardised tests. Hunter (2007b) notes that IELTS focuses on testing fluency, coherence, accuracy and correct use and comprehension of linguistic forms, but excludes assessment of communicative competences that people have to employ in various settings, particularly in the workplace. Although the employers who participated in her study had a seemingly simple view of what language proficiency entails, it was more aligned with the communicative theory of language use that was developed by Dell Hymes (Hunter, 2007b). Spolsky (1994), too, notes that language proficiency is too complex to be measured by a test, as language knowledge does not comprise of the number of words one knows, nor how quickly someone can respond to questions. Key issues of concern then are: 1) How language ability that underpins the test is understood (Chapelle, 2011) and 2) What the determiners of language proficiency should be.

To address those two issues, one needs to analyse the policy of English language testing for migrants and how development of English language proficiency is addressed in tertiary education and immigration policies. This involves examination of the English language requirements that immigrants have to meet for residence purposes, which subsume work and study, and analysis of policy provisions relating to English language education. This will be addressed in detail in Chapters 3 and 5.

2.3 Adult literacy studies

The second major theme that includes research on English language education is adult literacy in English. Within this theme, tensions arise from various approaches to literacy in general and recognising learner diversity in English literacy education. It is critical to recognise that migrants are a diverse group of learners whose learning needs vary. This section first states the main approaches to literacy and then highlights the issues of literacy education for ESOL/EAL learners, many of whom are migrants.

Approaches to literacy can be grouped into four main categories: functional, socio-cultural, critical, and multiliteracies (Liddicoat, 2007; Zepke, Leach, Gilling, & Slater, 2008). According to the functional approach, literacy involves development of basic skills in the areas of verbal and written communication (Liddicoat, 2007). The rationale behind literacy education is to equip people with skills so they can participate fully in society. A particular focus is often made on the economic benefits. On an individual level, literacy helps people develop thinking skills and improve their chances of finding employment. On a national level, literacy skills are assumed to contribute to a nation's performance in terms of productivity and modernization (Leach & Zepke, 2005; Liddicoat, 2007; St. Clair, 2010; Tett & St. Clair, 2010). Criticism of functional literacy concerns the type of functions and levels that measure literacy. Also, literacy is viewed as a set of universal technical skills without acknowledging different cultures and contexts (St. Clair, 2010).

The second approach is socio-cultural. It offers a broader scope compared to functional, and views literacy as a set of social and cultural practices inferred from events mediated by written texts. According to the socio-cultural approach, there are different literacies associated with various domains of life, for example,

computer, political, academic or workplace literacies (Barton, 2006; Howard, 2006). This suggests that learning takes place in various environments, i.e. home, work, community and educational institutions (Hillier, 2009). Socio-cultural and critical approaches share a similar view on literacy practices being shaped by social institutions and power relations (Auerbach, 2006; Barton, 2006).

The critical approach to literacy is associated with Paolo Freire, Brazilian educator, and his seminal work "Pedagogy of the Oppressed" published in 1972 (Tett & St. Clair, 2010). The pedagogy in critical literacy enables learners to understand the world in terms of power, justice or injustice, and be able to find relevant solutions to these problems (Leach & Zepke, 2005; Tett & St. Clair, 2010). In this approach literacy is viewed as a tool to help learners understand, analyse and critique social structures and practices enabling learners to 'read between the lines' (Liddicoat, 2007; Luke, 2012, 2014).

The fourth approach is multiliteracies. This has emerged from discussions on the social outcomes of language learning, cultural differences and shifting communications media (Liddicoat, 2007; Lo Bianco, 2000; St. Clair, 2010). Multiliteracies can also be viewed as a concept or a sub-field of literacy studies, which, as Fairclough (2000) notes, draws on increasing interactions within and between contemporary societies and the exponential rise in the multimodality of texts. Pedagogy within a multiliteracies approach recognises the aforementioned aspects, as well as the impact of technology on communicative practices (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Liddicoat, 2007).

Having outlined the main approaches to literacy, it is important to note the implications for language education and ESOL in particular. For AMELE there are two issues of concern. The first one is the type/s of literacy approach the

government has adopted. Second is whether the adopted approach recognises the specificity of learning needs that non-native speakers of English may have. Roberts (2006), Roach and Roskvist (2007), Hayward (2007), Benseman (2012) and Ker et al. (2013) have noted that ESOL learners are not a homogenous group and their learning needs vary. These learners range from highly skilled professionals who may lack English language skills to pre-literate learners with no or limited literacy skills in their L1. Therefore it is also necessary to observe how literacy is treated and whether (English) language education is inclusive of the learning needs of all migrants.

Burns and Roberts (2010) note that in English dominant countries English and ESOL education are part of 'language and literacy' provision. The countries where this practice is observed are the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Murray, 2005; Roberts, 2006). The problem with this approach is finding a way to accommodate the needs of learners who require specialised English language/ESOL provision. Roberts (2006) reports that in education policy, language is often conflated with literacy. She further explains, since ESOL learners are considered as a linguistic minority, separating them from literacy, numeracy and (English) language provision will lead to their marginalisation. At the same time, the challenge is not to make ESOL learners invisible if they are to be included in mainstream literacy provision (Roberts, 2006). These observations can also be viewed as potentially negative outcomes if the needs of all learners, especially immigrants and refugees, are not recognised in the adopted approach to adult literacy. To identify whether or not adult literacy provision in New Zealand recognises both immigrants and refugees as distinct learners, a close examination of policy relating to English language and literacy

provision is required. The issues of particular concern are explicit acknowledgement of English being a second/additional language for adult migrants and how the policy defines and treats literacy. These issues will be addressed in Chapter 5 which provides analysis of the key policy documents in AMELE.

2.4 Literacy in the workplace

Literacy in the workplace encompasses a broad range of issues pertaining to the context, i.e. workplace as a site for literacy provision, pedagogy, policy around funding and employers' perceptions of their staff's literacy in English. The relevance of literacy in the workplace to AMELE is two-fold. First, since literacy in the workplace usually involves the development of workers' language skills, in New Zealand and other English dominant countries this means the language of instruction and the language that literacy programs aim to improve is English. Second, given that the current immigration policy of New Zealand targets professionals, business people and investors (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c), English language education for work purposes makes it highly relevant to migrants wanting to enter the workforce, or to improve their English language competence in the workplace if they are already employed.

The rationale behind literacy in the workplace is often tied to economic benefits. A growing interest and support of literacy provision in the workplace is linked to an argument that improving workers' literacy and numeracy skills contributes to economic growth and enhances productivity of the workforce (Benseman, 2013; Leach & Zepke, 2005). In New Zealand, as well as other countries of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD),

literacy is considered vital to the country's economic performance and global competitiveness (Hunter, 2012; Zepke, 2011).

In New Zealand, as Leach and Zepke (2005) note, workplace literacy has a distinct economic focus and an emphasis is put on the development of work-related skills. It is underpinned by a functional approach. In diverse countries where workplaces shift from a monolingual to multilingual communicative environment (Roberts, 2005), the approach to literacy is critical. As mentioned in section 2.3 Adult literacy studies, a functional approach treats literacy as a set of universal skills with little or no recognition of the specific language and cultural aspects of education (St. Clair, 2010). The question, therefore, is whether workplace literacy provision incorporates ESOL and recognises the importance of ESOL for workers who are non-native speakers of English. The analysis of AMELE policy needs to include investigations into different approaches to literacy, to examine how it is defined and whether English is recognised as an additional language for many migrants.

Further to ESOL provision for migrant workers, literacy education in the workplace as practice has a number of challenges. They include logistics and operations of the literacy programs, embedding literacy in the workplace, and companies' ability to access relevant government funding (Guy & Harvey, 2012). Benseman (2013) observes that research on the logistics of literacy education in the workplace, i.e. what kind of programs should be offered and how they should be organised, is limited and lacking detail. Zepke's (2011) study on ways of embedding literacy in the workplace confirms this observation. Research needs to focus on the following issues: delivery methods and teaching techniques, assessment of organisational needs, developing strategies to recruit and retain

learners, obtaining support from companies' management, and identifying policies and practices that contribute to the success of embedding literacy in the workplace (Benseman, 2013; Zepke, 2011).

Given a variety of challenges in the delivery of workplace literacy programs, Zepke (2011) makes an important argument stating there is no blueprint that would be suitable to all workplaces and learners. He suggests that literacy programs should be flexible and be complemented with a critical literacy approach. In addition to availability of learning resources and opportunities for teachers' professional development, he supports a learner-centred pedagogy that reflects employees' backgrounds, experiences and work related requirements (Zepke, 2011). For AMELE this implies recognition of migrant workers' background, their overseas experience and specific learning needs regarding English language.

Policy regarding provision of literacy in the workplace is another significant issue. The two main aspects that have been addressed in the literature are:

- The rationale behind raising literacy levels among workforces, and
- The accessibility of funding.

In terms of the rationale behind literacy, Zepke, Leach, Gilling and Slater (2008), Zepke (2009, 2011), Hunter (2012), and Benseman (2013) in their policy reviews and analyses note that New Zealand's tertiary education system – which entails workplace literacy – is underpinned by a neoliberal discourse that focuses on economic transformation, 'performativity' and growth (Harvey, 2006). As part of this discourse, the purpose of education is characterised as 'learning for earning' (Zepke, 2009; Zepke et al., 2008). While concepts of economic transformation,

growth and the practicality of education may have positive connotations, they can overshadow other educational goals. Social, cultural and community goals of education do not appear to be as important as developing people's professional skills in order to enter the workforce in the New Zealand policy discourses (Zepke et al., 2008).

The second aspect is accessibility of funding. Guy and Harvey (2012) report that most New Zealand companies are not eligible for government funding due to their small size, structure and workplace practices. For companies that participated in Guy and Harvey's (2012) research, the application process associated with accessing funding for workplace literacy was slow and complicated due to various compliance requirements (Guy & Harvey, 2012). For AMELE, the questions are whether ESOL/L2 literacy courses can be delivered in the workplace and if migrants are recognised as one of the target learner groups in the current funding policy. These questions have not been fully addressed in the literature, hence an overview of the available funding for ESOL provision and learner eligibility criteria is required. This involves referring to TEC, a government agency that regulates all post-school education in New Zealand, its strategies and relevant policies emanating from the domain of tertiary education, as well as MBIE.

The final issue that needs to be noted is employers' views on (English) language and literacy that affect employment and employment outcomes. Hunter's (2007a, 2007b, 2012) studies on migrant employment and interactions at work in two English-dominant countries, New Zealand and Canada, found that some employers believed some of their staff were in low-skilled positions due to English literacy deficiency. These assumptions were reflected in the levels of tasks the employees did not perform despite being capable of handling them (Hunter,

2007a). One example that illustrates this finding is migrant workers who participated in Hunter's study and who did not have to file accident reports because it involved writing ability. Their employer assumed they were unable to write because of the low-skilled positions those workers were in (Hunter, 2007a). The implication of such practices relates to inefficient management that fails to utilise staff's skills due to misperceptions associated with literacy, including literacy in English. These practices also suggest many migrants may be underemployed or have considerable difficulties finding employment due to employers' beliefs and assumptions.

In addition to the assumptions about literacy, some workers despite their ability to handle general English may come across as unfriendly, rude and not being able to 'fit in' (Hunter, 2007b, 2012). These findings are similar to an earlier socio-linguistic study conducted by Holmes (2000) on workplace communication in New Zealand companies. Her study suggests in addition to opportunities aimed at developing communication skills in English, both employers and employees need to be aware of cultural differences and appropriateness. This will help improve social relationships at work (Holmes, 2000).

Holmes' (2000) and Hunter's (2007a, 2007b, 2012) findings imply that employees, who are native speakers of English and those for whom it is an L2, will benefit from the workplace literacy programs that incorporate culture and oral communication. For migrant workers these programs will help develop their sociolinguistic and pragmatic competencies as well as general English. And for employees, an awareness of the cultural differences in workplaces will contribute to a greater social cohesion between all staff.

2.5 Conclusion

The chapter has mapped the field of AMELE in the academic literature and provided an overview of the relevant research. Contributions to knowledge on AMELE derive from the themes of adult ESOL, adult literacy studies and literacy in the workplace. The review of literature has identified a number of challenges associated with English language education in English-dominant countries. In New Zealand, the main challenges can be summarised as follows:

- The absence of an overarching national languages policy,

- Inconsistent and limited government funding of ESOL provision,

- The absence of long-term planning for adult ESOL,

- The absence of a centralized curriculum for English/adult ESOL,

- English/ESOL education for non-native speakers being embedded in the mainstream provision of literacy, and

- A narrow view of adult literacy in the policy that is largely based on the functional approach.

Further to the identified challenges, the review also signals the specific research tasks that need to be carried out:

1. A review of the current state of funding in Adult ESOL and identification of the English language programs that migrants have access to and whether there are any specific requirements for eligibility (Chapter 3 and 5).

2. An investigatation of how literacy and ESOL are defined in the adult literacy policy, and the highlighting of any distinctions between them (Chapter 5).

3. An examination and provision of an updated review of English language requirements that immigrants have to meet for residence purposes, including the policy around English language testing (Chapter 3).

4. Identification of whether English is explicitly recognised as a second/additional language for many New Zealanders in relevant policy documents (Chapter 5).

5. And the final task is to establish whether immigrants and refugees are considered as a distinct learner group – distinct from English first language literacy learners (Chapter 5).

These tasks will be carried out as part the policy review (see Chapter 3) and analysis of the policy documents (see Chapter 5) contributing to discussion of the three critical aspects of AMELE policy: assumptions (RQ1), attitudes (RQ2) and inclusiveness (RQ3).

The following chapter outlines the main migrant categories and the English language requirements they have to meet. This involves reviewing the policies arising from the domain of immigration. The chapter will then refer to the domain of tertiary education in order to outline availability of English language education and how it can be accessed. An overview of the AMELE policy framework highlighting the role of various stakeholders will also be provided.

3. THE NEW ZEALAND POLICY CONTEXT

3.1 Introduction

According to Statistics New Zealand (2006, 2014) the majority of people who are unable to speak English are overseas born. The *Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003) reported that around 50,000 adults living in New Zealand did not speak English. In addition, around 200,000-210,000 adults did not speak English as well as they could (Ministry of Education, 2003). It can be inferred that these groups primarily consist of migrants whose mother tongue is not English and/or those who possess low levels of English literacy. It also implies that the demand for ESOL/English as an additional language (henceforth EAL) education is most critical among these people.

This chapter provides an overview of the New Zealand policy context and includes the following:

- a detailed outline of English language requirements for each migrant category (Task 3 – see Chapter 2),

- English language provision that was available since the release of the current *Immigration Act* until February 2015 (Task 1 – see Chapter 2),

- the role of the key stakeholders in the AMELE sector,

- an outline of the content of the key policies from the domains of immigration and tertiary education until end 2014, before the current *Tertiary Education Strategy 2014-2019* (Ministry of Education, 2014) was released.

3.2 English language requirements for migrants

A forward thinking approach in AMELE policy entails a careful consideration of how the demand for English language education among migrants is generated and creating opportunities to learn English that match this demand. An interconnection between immigration and English language/ESOL education policies was noted by Alison Hoffman (1998). Her work, now almost 18 years old, and other accounts of the immigration requirements regarding English language (e.g. Spoonley, Pearson and Macpherson, 2004) urgently require updating. Furthermore, the adoption of the *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009) and ongoing changes in the immigration policy mean that an analysis of AMELE policy needs to take into account policy developments in the domain of immigration.

This section first explains the categorisation of migrants and then provides a detailed outline of the English language requirements for each migrant category. A review of English language requirements will help understand an attitudinal aspect of the immigration policy, and how the policy may affect English language provision and the AMELE sector in the future.

3.2.1 Migrant categories

Migrants cannot be considered and treated as a homogenous group, as reasons to move countries, people's learning needs and agency vary significantly. The term 'migrant' consists of two broad categories: immigrants and refugees with the main difference being voluntary or forced movement from one country to another. From the UNHCR's (2013) view, immigrants are people who voluntarily choose to arrive and settle in New Zealand. Refugees, according to *the Refugee Convention 1951*, are defined as a person who, "owing to a well-founded fear of

being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his (sic) nationality, and is unable to, or owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country" (UNHCR, 2013).

Immigration New Zealand has the following sub-groups/streams within 'immigrants': Skilled Migrant Category (henceforth SMC), Investors, Family, the Samoan Quota and the Pacific Access. Within the refugee category, there are two sub-groups: Refugees and Refugee Family Support. For each immigration stream, the requirements in relation to English language vary (Immigration New Zealand, 2013b, 2014c). Unlike immigrants, refugees and their family are not required to demonstrate knowledge of English prior to arrival.

3.2.2 Immigrants

According to the current *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009), there are immigration streams through which people can enter New Zealand and obtain permanent residence: SMC, Investors, Family and immigrants from the South Pacific islands under the Samoan Quota and Pacific Access categories. The following subsections outline English language requirements, i.e. how well immigrants are expected to speak and understand English in order to apply[4] and qualify for a residence class visa. In the policy, the requirements are referred to as the "minimum standard of English" (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a). This section excludes a review of language requirements for temporary applications for study, work and working holiday purposes.

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[4] There are two types of applicants: principal and secondary. Principal applicant is the main applicant against whom an application is assessed. Secondary are principal applicant's partner and/or any dependent children who are included in the application.

3.2.2.1 Skilled Migrant Category (SMC)

SMC is designed to target migrants who possess the skills, qualifications and experience that can contribute to New Zealand's economic growth (Immigration New Zealand, 2013f). Among the mix of skills is proficiency in English. However, the minimum standard of English for applicants under this category varies (see below Table 1: English language requirements for SMC).

Table 1: English language requirements for SMC*

Applicant	Category	Subject to minimum standard of English?	Minimum required IELTS score
Principal	Skilled migrant	Yes	6.5
Secondary	Skilled migrant	Yes or pre-purchase ESOL tuition depending on the IELTS score	5.0
Principal	Talent (Residence from Work)	No	N/A
Principal	Long Term Shortage Skills (Work to Residence)	No	N/A
Principal	Religious Worker (Residence from Work)	Yes	5.0
Secondary	Religious Worker (Residence from Work)	Yes or pre-purchase ESOL tuition depending on the IELTS score	5.0

* Adapted based on the English language information leaflet – INZ 1060, March 2012.

Source: Immigration New Zealand, 2012a

The principal applicant under SMC has to achieve no less than 6.5 points in either the academic or general module of the IELTS exam. This requirement is waived if an applicant can provide evidence of having studied towards a recognised qualification where the language of instruction was English or having

been in skilled employment in New Zealand for at least a year. Secondary applicants aged 16 or over, are subject to similar English language requirements (Immigration New Zealand, 2013a). The key difference is that the minimum IELTS score for secondary applicants is lower, 5.0. In case secondary applicants are not able to meet this minimum, the policy requires them to pre-purchase a compulsory ESOL tuition from Tertiary Education Commission (henceforth TEC). The amount is dependent on their score (see below Figure 1: ESOL tuition costs).

If overall IELTS band score is...	... then you'll pay
4.5 or more but below 5	NZ$1,735
4 or more but below 4.5	NZ$3,420
3.5 or more but below 4	NZ$5,110
Below 3.5	NZ$6,795

Figure 1: ESOL tuition costs

Source: Immigration New Zealand, 2013a, 2013f

Although the categories Work to Residence and Residence from Work are preliminary pathways to permanent residence under SMC, they need to be taken into consideration for their intent to attract and retain people with extraordinary skills in arts, culture and sport, and those migrants whose occupation is included in the Long Term Skill Shortage List – a list of occupations for which New Zealand has on-going and critical skill shortages, e.g. information and communication technology specialists (Immigration New Zealand, 2014b). English language requirements for this group of immigrants depend on the particular type of visa within those categories: Talent, Religious Worker or Long Term Skill Shortage List, they apply for. Talent and Long Term Skill Shortage Lists visa categories do not require principal applicants to meet the minimum of 6.5 score in IELTS or provide alternative evidence of English proficiency, whereas the Religious Worker scheme

does (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a). Therefore by lifting English language requirement, Immigration policy prioritises skills in arts, culture and sport, as well as those for which the country has on-going and critical shortages as indicated in the Long Term Skill Shortage List (Immigration New Zealand, 2014b).

3.2.2.2   Investors

Compared to the SMC, investors and their families are not subject to stringent English language requirements (Immigration New Zealand, 2011). Their entrance to New Zealand depends on the amount of funds that immigrants are willing to invest in the New Zealand economy (see below Figure 2: Basic criteria for migrant investment categories).

Key requirements	Investor Plus	Investor
Maximum age	No requirement	65 or younger
Business experience	No requirement	Minimum of three years
Investment funds	NZ$10 million invested in New Zealand for three years	NZ$1.5 million invested in New Zealand for four years
Settlement funds	No requirement	NZ$1 million (transfer not required)
Principal applicant's English language	No requirement	- an English speaking background, or - an International English Language Testing System (IELTS) test report with an overall band score of three or more, or - a competent user of English
Family member's English language	No requirement	Same as principal applicant or pre-purchase ESOL tuition
Minimum time in New Zealand	44 days in New Zealand in each of the last two years of the three-year investment period.	146 days in New Zealand in each of the last three years of the four-year investment period.
Health and character	Applicants under both categories must meet health and character requirements.	

Figure 2: Basic criteria for migrant investment categories

Source: Immigration New Zealand, 2011

Under the Investor categories, the required minimum of IELTS overall band score is 3.0, which is considerably lower than the requirement for SMC applicants. Alternatively, applicants under Investor and Investor Plus categories may provide other evidence demonstrating they are competent users of English (Immigration New Zealand, 2013g) and/or evidence of an English-speaking background (Immigration New Zealand, 2013h) that have been set by the current immigration regulations.

Although English language proficiency does not appear to be a crucial skill for the Investor category, it raises a number of concerns and questions that can help identify gaps in the current Immigration and AMELE policies. Among them is the rationale behind the above criteria and reasons for not requiring this category of migrants to possess high proficiency in English. Another area of concern is who is responsible for English language education and whether investors and their family members should be entitled to be subsidised or have the free ESOL tuition considering the investors' significant contributions into New Zealand economy. And finally, one may question whether an overall band score of 3.0 in IELTS and other types of evidence of language proficiency that Immigration Service accepts are indeed an indicator of sufficient command of English.

3.2.2.3   Family

Immigration instructions under the current *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009) enable people to join their family in New Zealand. According to the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c), a document that serves as a reference guide to both immigrants and immigration officers assessing applications, the Family category has two main objectives:

1. To strengthen families and communities, while reinforcing the Government's overall objectives in immigration instructions that are outlined in the *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009); and

2. To contribute to New Zealand's economic transformation and social development (Immigration New Zealand, 2010c).

Current immigration regulations allow partners, dependent children and parents of New Zealand citizens or residents to apply for permanent residence. Siblings and adult children are excluded from this category (Immigration New Zealand, 2012b). Partners and dependent children are not required to demonstrate their English language competence. The exception is partnership-based applications, where a person could have been included, but was not, as a partner in an earlier successful application under a different category, for example, SMC or Investor (Immigration New Zealand, 2010a). By contrast, parents of New Zealand citizens or residents have to meet the minimum standard of English proficiency – at least level 4.0 in any two out of four competencies in the IELTS test: listening, reading, writing and speaking. Alternatively, these applicants will have to pre-purchase ESOL tuition and agree to undertake an English language course at an approved institution by TEC (Immigration New Zealand, 2012e).

Following this review of the requirements and criteria for immigrants applying for permanent residence under the Family category, there appears to be a gap in the policy regarding access to English language education. The absence of relevant instructions for partners and dependent children of New Zealand citizens and/or residents creates an ambiguity in terms of responsibility for ESOL provision and the extent of government involvement. It also remains unclear whether any agency is nominated to provide assistance and support for all people,

who might need to improve their English when they arrive and settle in New Zealand.

3.2.2.4 Migrants from the South Pacific islands – the Samoan quota and Pacific Access streams

Given New Zealand's historical and cultural ties with the Pacific Island nations (Bedford et al., 2000), current immigration policy allows and welcomes people from Samoa, Tonga, Kiribati and Tuvalu under the Samoan quota and Pacific access streams (Immigration New Zealand, 2013c). Similar to other categories – skilled migrants, secondary applicants included in the SMC applications, parents of New Zealand citizens or residents, and investors – immigrants from the Pacific islands are also required to be competent users of English. However the definition of an acceptable minimum level of English for this category is quite vague. According to the current instructions, this minimum is defined as person's ability to "read English, understand and respond to questions in English, and maintain an English language conversation" about themselves, their family and their background (Immigration New Zealand, 2010b). In lieu of achieving an acceptable score in the IELTS test or providing evidence of an English language background, principal applicants under these two streams have to be interviewed by immigration officers, who then make a decision whether the applicant's level of English meets the required minimum (Immigration New Zealand, 2010b).

The assessments of immigration applicants' English language ability by immigration officers is open to considerable subjectivity given the loose and ambiguous definition of what constitutes an acceptable minimum level. The critique may also extend to concerns over immigration officers' expertise to make

comprehensive assessments of language proficiency. According to the job description of an immigration officer for MBIE's Central Auckland Office, advertised in October 2013 (see Appendix 1) language assessment skills is not listed among the required skills and relevant qualifications for this position. Since the established techniques for interviewing and assessment are not in the public domain, it is not known how long those language interviews are and whether they are indeed a sufficient means to determine a person's English language level or whether the same criteria are applied to every applicant.

In addition to a vague definition of an acceptable command of English ability and an immigration officer's expertise in English language assessments, an important omission in the current immigration policy relates to English language requirements for the secondary applicants, i.e. partners and dependent children, who may be included in the residence applications under the Samoan Quota and Pacific Access category. Secondary applicants are not subject to a minimum standard of English and hence their English language ability does not have to be assessed. The implication of this gap is that the government agencies have no way of knowing English language education requirements.

The absence of a robust English language assessment framework and further instructions for the Samoan quota and Pacific Access category applicants who do not meet the threshold, also create gaps in the education policy. If these learners are not part of policy planning and provision in terms of providing adequate opportunities to acquire English language competence, they become invisible on the policy agenda.

3.2.3   Refugees and refugee family support category

As part of humanitarian obligations under the *UN Convention on the Status of Refugees 1951*, New Zealand accepts around 750 UNHCR refugees each year (New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2011; New Zealand Red Cross Refugee Services, 2009). In order to help refugees living in New Zealand to settle, New Zealand introduced the Refugee Family Support category that allows refugees to sponsor their family members for permanent residence. The number of places available for the sponsored family members is set at 300 people per year (Immigration New Zealand, 2010c). Unlike other migrant categories[5], refugees and their sponsored families are not subject to any English language criteria under the current immigration instructions.

3.2.3   Summary

The review of the English language requirements and criteria that are set by Immigration New Zealand demonstrates the extent to which minimum standards of English differ (see below Table 2: Minimum standards of English for all migrant categories). In addition, an overview of the immigration streams and categories helps us understand migrants' primary goals of settling in New Zealand and identify among which categories the need for ESOL provision might be most critical. These categories are Refugees and Refugees Family Support, migrants from the Pacific islands and Family streams.

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[5] Only skilled migrants and those included as secondary applicants in the SMC applications for permanent residence, Talent and Long Term Skill Shortage Lists visas under Residence from Work and Work to Residence streams, Investor category and parents of the New Zealand citizens or residents.

Table 2: Minimum standards of English for all migrant categories

Stream	Category	Applicant	Has to meet the minimum standard?	Minimum IELTS score
Skilled migrant	Skilled migrant	Principal	Yes	6.5
		Secondary	Yes	5.0
Investor	Investor Plus	Principal	No	N/A
		Secondary	No	N/A
	Investor	Principal	Yes	3.0
		Secondary	Yes	3.0
Family	Partner	Principal	No	N/A
	Parent	Principal	Yes	4.0
Pacific Islands	Samoan Quota	Principal	Yes	N/A*
		Secondary	Unknown	Unknown
	Pacific Access	Principal	Yes	N/A*
		Secondary	Unknown	Unknown
Refugees	Refugee	Principal	No	N/A
	Refugee Family Support	Principal	No	N/A

* Immigrants from the eligible countries of the South Pacific are not required to submit IELTS test score and their English language proficiency is tested at the interview by an immigration officer.

Source: Immigration New Zealand, 2010a, b; 2011; 2012a

The review of the current immigration policy regarding English language requirements has identified a number of gaps. First and foremost, the policy does not provide a rationale behind the different criteria regarding English. It is not clear why some immigrants are expected to provide evidence of English ability, whilst others are not subject to any English language requirements (except for refugees and their families).

Secondly, there are inconsistencies in minimum standards. Having different standards may be a way of designing a flexible policy. If the aim is flexibility, this needs to be explicitly stated and explained why certain immigrants are subject to higher proficiency requirements than others. In the case of the Investor category, this may suggest that by lifting the requirement of high proficiency in English, immigration policy has prioritised immigrants' financial assets and actively facilitates this type of migration. This approach is still current and consistent with what Hoffmann (1998) and Shackleford (1997) noted in their articles published more than a decade ago – that the policy regarding English language requirements is used as one of the mechanisms to manage incoming migration.

The review also demonstrated the absence of a comprehensive framework for assessments of migrants' English language ability. A particular problem is the status of immigration officers who conduct interviews and are probably not qualified to carry out (English) language assessments. As noted in sub-section 3.2.2.4 Migrants from the South Pacific islands – the Samoan quota and Pacific Access streams, these people's English level is tested by immigration officers during interviews. If being able to 'read English, understand and respond to questions in English' is regarded as an indicator of an acceptable 'standard', it is worth asking the extent to which people's English language proficiency can be assessed at an interview. Although the policy requires most immigrants to provide an IELTS certificate, albeit scores vary depending on the immigrant category, there are no clear equivalents of the IELTS score and other means of meeting English language requirements. Examples of other ways demonstrating English language proficiency include having a degree from an institution where English is a medium of instruction or schooling in an English speaking country.

3.3 Provision of English language programs for adult migrants

Having identified migrant groups and the English requirements set for each category, this section will now outline how English language provision can be accessed and what options are currently available for adult migrants: both immigrants and refugees. This entails a review of migrants' eligibility and the types of programs that are being offered. Prior to that, key stakeholders and their roles will be identified.

3.3.1 Key stakeholders in AMELE

All post-secondary school education and training in New Zealand, including English language education for migrants, is managed, and overseen by the Tertiary Education Commission (henceforth TEC). TEC's key functions are control and allocation of funding, establishing assessment criteria for funding approvals, and determining the amount payable to organisations. In addition, it provides advice to the Government on the issues of activity and performance of tertiary education organisations, as well as "the implementation of policy and the operational implications for new policy initiatives" (New Zealand Legislation, 1989 - reprint as at 01 January 2016, p. 252)

The Ministry of Education is the core department and the lead advisor to the Government on the entire education sy stem (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012d). In addition to TEC and the Ministry of Education, AMELE involves other stakeholders and their roles should be acknowledged. The relationship between key AMELE stakeholders and who they are, is demonstrated on a chart (See below Figure 3: Key stakeholders in AMELE policy). A number of education programs for migrants are dependent on the criteria that are set by TEC in conjunction with other government agencies. The agencies that are involved in AMELE policy are:

- The Immigration Service of the Department of Labour or Immigration New Zealand that is now part of Ministry of Business, Innovations and Employment (henceforth MBIE),

- Work and Income New Zealand (henceforth WINZ) – a service of the Ministry of Social Development (henceforth MSD),

- StudyLink – a service of MSD that provides financial assistance to the learners in the form of student loans and allowances, and

- New Zealand Qualifications Authority (henceforth NZQA).

The involvement of Immigration New Zealand, WINZ, StudyLink and NZQA in AMELE implies that provision and focus of English programs are tailored to the aims of those agencies and hence situated in their area of responsibility. Broadly, those aims and responsibilities that focus on migrants' education are the following:

- Access to language courses as part of settlement support for immigrants (Immigration New Zealand, 2013e), and ESOL and adult literacy as part of Refugee Resettlement Strategy (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d);

- Employment, income support helping people get into and stay in work, and training and seminars to build up confidence and skills (Work and Income, n.d.);

- Maintaining the national educational qualification framework, quality assurance across the tertiary sector, "including private providers where the Government has no other levers […] and determine which providers are able to offer which qualifications" (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, n.d.; Tertiary Education Commission, 2012d, p. 28).

Other stakeholders are learners themselves, i.e. immigrants and refugees and course providers. The latter include those that have been approved by and receive funding from TEC, and independent providers: language schools and Private Training Establishments (henceforth PTEs) that offer English language courses on a fee paying basis.
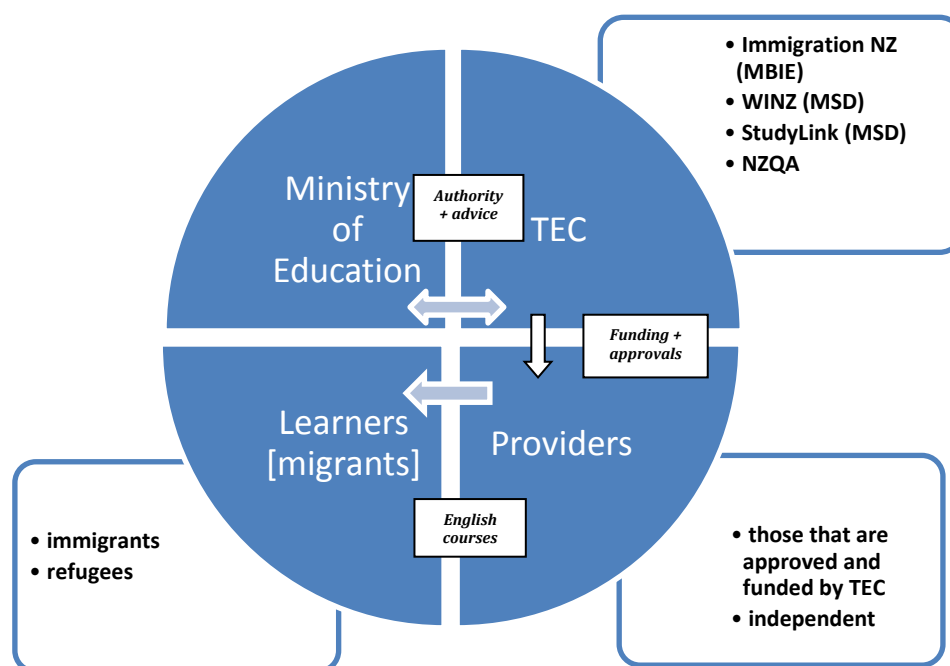
Figure 3: Key stakeholders in AMELE policy

3.3.2 Funded English language provision

Roach and Roskvist's (2007) typology of the ESOL program options[6] available to adult immigrants and refugees is based on providers – community and tertiary, which also includes PTEs. Roach and Roskvist's (2007) approach, however, may be critiqued for not acknowledging the institutional power of TEC that plays a key role in the funding allocation for language education programs, as well as involvement of other government agencies.

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[6] Those that were available at the time of publication of their article

Among the distinct features of the currently available programs are crossovers in terms of fund and learner foci (see below Table 3: Funding in AMELE). As Table 3 demonstrates, there are overlaps in most of the current funds that share similar aims and foci. Furthermore, ESOL appears to be embedded in Language, Literacy and Numeracy (LLN) training.

Table 3: Funding in AMELE

Fund	Fund focus	Learner focus	Learner eligibility
Adult & Community Education (ACE)	Foundation skills, Language Literacy & Numeracy (LLN), ESOL	Migrants, refugees + Pacific students, Maori, Adults, and domestic students	NZ citizen or permanent resident, 16 year old or older, not enrolled full time in a secondary school
Intensive Literacy & Numeracy (ILN)	Foundation skills, LLN, ESOL	Migrants, refugees + Pacific students, Maori, Adults, and domestic students	NZ citizen or permanent resident, have low literacy and/or numeracy levels
ILN Targeted ESOL	Foundation skills, LLN, ESOL	Migrants, refugees + Pacific students, Maori, domestic students, Adults and Youth	Refugee, migrant and have English as their L2, NZ citizen or permanent resident, low levels of literacy and/or numeracy, 16 years old or older
English for Migrants	LLN, ESOL	Migrants	NZ permanent residents who were required to pre-purchase ESOL as part of their residence application
Refugee English Fund	LLN, ESOL**	Migrants, refugees + Adults and Youth	NZ citizen or permanent resident AND a refugee, protected persons, or person sponsored by a refugee or protected person
Workplace Literacy	LLN, Workplace training	Migrants, refugees + Pacific students, Maori, Adults and domestic students	NZ citizen or permanent resident, have low literacy and/or numeracy levels AND be in the paid workforce
Migrant Levy*	LLN, ESOL**	Migrants	NZ permanent residents
Foundation-focused Training Opportunities* (FFTO)[7]	Vocational skills	Refugees + domestic students and Youth	NZ citizen or permanent resident AND referral from WINZ

*Fund disestablished
** Not mentioned on TEC website, but could be assumed on the basis of fund description

Sources: TEC (n.d.) Fund Finder; TEC (2013a) FFTO Handbook.

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[7] FFTO was replaced with expanded programs on 01 January 2014. For AMELE sector, this change means 1,420 additional ESOL places and 1,350 additional ILN courses (New Zealand Government, 2013)

The implication of ESOL being embedded in LLN is that migrants who are highly educated and literate in their L1 may not find the current provision suitable to their needs. These migrants do not appear to be the target learner group, therefore their options for funded provision are limited. They may attend courses that cater for a variety of learning needs, i.e. ACE, ILN ESOL, and Literacy in the Workplace in case they are employed. However these courses are primarily for people with low literacy skills.

Another issue that needs to be considered is that each fund has criteria and limitations in terms of number of direct learning hours, program duration and minimum group size. In the case of English for Migrants that is available to those who purchased ESOL tuition (see Figure 1: ESOL tuition costs) as part of their residence application, there is a maximum five-year period within which this tuition must be used (Immigration New Zealand, 2010c). Alternatively, migrants can consider courses that are tailored to their needs, which most likely are outside fully government-funded provision. This implies that migrants will have to either fund their study themselves or apply for student loan on provisos the course meets StudyLink's criteria and learners are eligible for student loans and allowances.

In addition to a somewhat diffused learner focus and limited funded provision, Roach and Roskvist (2007) note another feature relevant to the field of AMELE in New Zealand – a significant autonomy of providers to design English language programs due to the absence of national ESOL curriculum. Providers also determine course content and the use of teaching methods. Although course providers may satisfy accountability procedures and other requirements of funding agencies, the absence of an ESOL curriculum might create difficulties with monitoring programs' efficiency and an independent assessment of learners'

progress and achievements. In order to understand what ideas set the foundation for AMELE as policy and practice, a review of AMELE policy frameworks is required.

3.4 AMELE policy frameworks

This section provides an account of the relevant major policies that were introduced from 2002 to 2014, before the release of the current *TES 2014-2019* (Ministry of Education, 2014). This period is notable for the launch of the *Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003), which to date remains the only explicit statement on ESOL education in New Zealand, although it was never fully implemented and is no longer operative. There have also been numerous TEC strategies and the adoption of the most recent *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009) with its subsequent policies that determine immigrants' English language entry requirements and settlement and resettlement outcomes. In addition to TEC strategies (Ministry of Education, 2002, 2006, 2009b, 2014) and the *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009), another the key document in AMELE is *TEC Report on ESOL: National Gaps and Priorities* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008b). Thus, the documents that constitute AMELE policy framework can be grouped into three domains: Adult ESOL, Immigration, and Tertiary Education Sector.

3.4.1 Adult ESOL

The *Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003) was originally planned to be developed as part of the migrant and refugee re/settlement strategies led by Immigration New Zealand (Ministry of Education, 2001). However, the responsibility for and involvement in adult ESOL policy development seems to have shifted towards the auspices of Ministry of Education and later -

TEC. The Strategy outlines how the government's approach to adult ESOL could be coordinated in accordance with a set vision, principles and targets. It begins with the Minister's foreword that includes statements about New Zealand being a *migrant nation*. The Strategy also acknowledges the dominance of English and argues that because New Zealand is an English-dominant country, lack of English language skills among some New Zealanders is a critical issue.

The rationale for ESOL provision is based on the fact that English is predominant in everyday use among the majority of the New Zealand population. English language proficiency is essential for participation in the society and economy. The Strategy reported around 50,000 adult residents living in New Zealand do not speak English at all. In addition, there were 200,000-210,000 adults who can speak the language, but not as well as they should. The data that the Strategy used were based on the 2001 Census. These are significant figures considering the size of New Zealand population. Due to lack of English language skills, these people – both adult immigrants and refugees – experience hardships in finding and retaining employment, accessing information and services and assisting in their children's educational achievements. This affects the individuals who are unable to participate in a society to their full potential. There are also disadvantages for the society as a whole, as it misses out on the skills brought to the country.

The *Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003, p. 4) offered the following targets that were supposed to serve as a guide to determine success with regard to adult migrants:

1. The population of people with no English language skills (around 50,000) will be reduced by half by 2012;

2. All unemployed job-seekers, with no English language skills will have opportunities to access a place on an adult ESOL program within six weeks of assessment by 2006;

3. Pacific and ethnic communities will be engaged in processes to ensure the needs of ESOL learners from their groups are met effectively;

4. A process for measurement of learner gains is developed and tested, and built into quality processes that allows for expanding high-quality provision by 2006.

The document proposed the following strategies to achieve those targets:

- Better coordination and collaboration among providers, government agencies, communities, NGO's, professional organisations and the business community;

- Enhance access to ESOL programs and their affordability;

- Expand provision and increase quality of the ESOL programs and

- Ensure that learner needs are matched with appropriate provision (Ministry of Education, 2003, p. 8).

Evaluation of results and efficiency of the proposed strategies was halted by two issues. Firstly, it is not clear which government agency or unit was responsible for the implementation and evaluation of targets. And secondly, due the to Christchurch earthquake, the 2011 Census was postponed till March 2013. This, in turn, caused delays as the key modules – NZ Statistics: Culture & Identity and NZ Statistics: Education and Training – required for evaluation of the results were scheduled to be released in May 2014 and June 2015 accordingly (Statistics New Zealand, 2013).

In 2008 TEC released a report on National Gaps and Priorities in ESOL (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008b) which can be treated as an interim assessment of the state of adult ESOL issues. TEC's findings suggested three areas that should be prioritised in engagements with stakeholders and in funding decisions. The first is the need for additional ESOL support for pre-literate learners as the number of places available at this level is insufficient. The second area is demand for industry-specific and work-based ESOL learning opportunities as reported by WINZ. And finally, TEC acknowledged that demand from unfunded learners for ESOL services is high and growing, which implies investing in provision of ESOL for those learners may be justified (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008b).

3.4.2 The domain of immigration

3.4.2.1 Immigration Act 2009 and Operational Manual

As explained earlier in this chapter, Immigration New Zealand, one of MBIE agencies, plays an important role in defining minimum standards of English language proficiency for immigrants, setting up criteria for meeting those standards and determining which immigrant categories will be required to meet English language requirements.

The *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009) came into force in November 2010. It is the most recent Act that defines the purpose, aim and objectives of the current immigration policy. The Act also establishes the system that serves as a framework for development of immigration instructions for temporary and permanent visas, border control management, and implementation of compliance mechanisms in respect of the system. In addition, it establishes the system of checks and balances giving power to a specialist Tribunal to consider

appeals against the decisions made under this Act. And finally, it supports settlement of migrants, refugees and protected persons.

The *Operational Manual* (Immigration New Zealand, 2010c) is a set of practical instructions that outline the requirements that immigrant categories have to meet in order to obtain either a temporary status or permanent residence in New Zealand. For AMELE policy, the most relevant provisions are those that define minimum standards of English ability, and determine which immigrant categories have to meet them and what evidence is being accepted. As noted earlier, this has direct implications on migrants' ability to access ESOL provision, including English literacy programs (see sections 3.2.2, 3.2.3 and 3.3.2 of this chapter).

3.4.2.2 Settlement Strategies

To assist migrants' settlement and integration into New Zealand society, in October 2014 the government released the New Zealand Migrant Settlement and Integration Strategy (MBIE, 2014). As this document falls outside the thesis' timeframe, it is excluded from the review. The review will include previous policy documents that were introduced between 2003 and end of February 2014.

The *Settlement Strategy* (Department of Labour, 2007a) built on the previous Strategy released in 2004 (Department of Labour, 2004). Together with the *Settlement National Action Plan* (henceforth SNAP) (2007b) the *Settlement Strategy* (Department of Labour, 2007a) constituted a government framework aimed at achieving settlement outcomes for migrants, refugees and their families. The *Settlement Strategy* (Department of Labour, 2007a) was implemented through SNAP and identified key outcomes, such as economic transformation, 'families – young and old', and enhancing a sense of national identity by maintaining and

contributing to the country's social and cultural vibrancy (Department of Labour, 2007a).

As part of economic transformation, SNAP suggested improvements in the areas of ESOL provision and work readiness tuition programs to enhance migrants' employment prospects. *Assessment of Gaps in the Provision of ESOL and Work Readiness Programs for Immigrants and Refugees* (Ministry of Social Development, 2007) also families had to be adequately supported to ensure people had equitable access to ESOL education and the opportunity "to reach their full potential in all aspects of social and economic life" (Department of Labour, 2007b, p. 8).

Good quality of adult ESOL provision was seen as one of the ways the Settlement Strategy could assist migrants and their families. SNAP suggested raising the quality of adult ESOL provision via three sub-projects:

- Developing the Language Literacy and Numeracy (henceforth LLN) learning progressions framework by TEC (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) with contributions from the Ministry of Education,

- Developing and introducing screening and assessment tools for LLN by the Ministry of Education and contributing agencies New Zealand Qualifications Authority (henceforth NZQA) and Ministry of Social Development (MSD), and

- Professional development of tutors and managers working in the field of LLN, including ESOL initially led by the Ministry of Education and later overtaken by TEC with contributions from NZQA (Department of Labour, 2007b).

The first two sub-projects were completed in 2008 and 2012 respectively. The analysis will demonstrate that the *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) document does not adequately address learning needs of adult immigrants and refugees, as it was not developed for ESOL learners. The Assessment Tool was not applicable to AMELE until 2015, when ESOL foundation courses under ILN ESOL were included (Tertiary Education Commission, 2015). Its application is still limited as ILN ESOL programs do not target learners with higher proficiencies, e.g. B1 in Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) terms and above.

The Settlement Strategy and SNAP were supported by Regional Settlement Strategies for Auckland and Wellington and Action Plans for these two regions (Department of Labour, 2007b). Among other initiatives was *the Resettlement Strategy for Refugees* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d) that has been implemented from July 2013. Since it has been positioned as a 'new way of working to achieve improved resettlement', *the Resettlement Strategy* has to be considered integral to the AMELE policy framework.

3.4.2.3 Resettlement Strategy and its implementation

The *New Zealand Refugee Resettlement Strategy* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d) was introduced by Immigration New Zealand in 2012. It set five areas crucial to successful settlement, such as self-sufficiency, housing, education, participation, and health & well-being (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d). The Strategy stated that English language skills help refugees participate in education and daily life.

The Strategy explicitly stated the six-week reception program has to have a a focus on employment (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d). Although the

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Resettlement Strategy (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d) is being implemented progressively and hence other policies may later be introduced, the shift in priorities causes a number of concerns. The focus on employment will likely have negative effects on older people and mothers with children, for whom employment is not viable without acquisition of English literacy. The *New Land, New Life: Long-Term Settlement of Refugees in New Zealand* report (MBIE, 2012) stated that these people experience considerable hardships in accessing ESOL education. The main barriers to learning English for them are cost, transport, childcare and the location of ESOL education providers (MBIE, 2012). Another concern is whether a focus on employment, particularly, at the introductory stage during the six-week reception program, is relevant and appropriate considering many refugees arrive with a severe post-traumatic stress disorder (henceforth PTSD) (Hayward, 2007).

A lack of more careful planning regarding ESOL education for refugees is also evident in MBIE's Request for Tender for National Refugee Resettlement Planning and Support Services. MBIE stated that the duration of early resettlement support would be limited to twelve months, after which refugees were expected to access mainstream services (MBIE, 2013). Furthermore, the successful 'vendor' is not required to monitor refugees' progress in ESOL education or collect this information from a course provider (MBIE, 2013). One should question whether twelve months is a reasonable period for refugees to acquire sufficient levels of English proficiency and especially literacy in order to be able to communicate with social services representatives and understand relevant regulations around the types of support that refugees are entitled to. Without collecting the information about the refugees' progress in ESOL, it would be difficult for MBIE to assess 'vendor's' performance in provision of the early resettlement services and

incorporate any relevant changes that would ensure an adequate support for all refugees that New Zealand accepts.

A crucial element for AMELE is a recognition of MBIE and Immigration New Zealand in particular, as a lead agency that manages policies in the resettlement of an annual refugee quota. It is also responsible for the "operational coordination of refugee-specific services and for leading the implementation of the Strategy" (MBIE, 2013, p. 2). It is therefore necessary to monitor how the *Refugee Resettlement Strategy* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d) is implemented on an on-going basis, especially observe any changes that relate to ESOL provision and associated funding. This reaffirms that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE continues to be one of the key stakeholders in the AMELE policy, and initiatives arising from the domain of immigration need to be taken into account.

3.4.3 Tertiary education sector

As a result of a number of education reforms under the Labour-led coalition elected in 1999, all funded and accredited post compulsory education since 2000 has come under the auspices of TEC. Hence the term 'adult education', as Zepke, Leach, Gilling and Slater (2002) note, has been superseded by 'tertiary education'. This suggests that most of the AMELE policy developments are located in this domain. Specifically, they arise from TEC Strategies (Ministry of Education, 2002, 2006, 2009b, 2014), which, according to tertiary education policy, serve as an overarching vision of adult education, and as well as its sub-sectors: adult literacy and literacy in the workplace.

3.4.3.1 TEC Strategies

The Tertiary Education Strategy (henceforth TES) presents a five year vision for tertiary education. This section reviews three successive documents: the

TES 2002-2007 (Ministry of Education, 2002), *TES 2007-2012* (Ministry of Education, 2006) and *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b), focusing on the set priorities and noting any significant shifts in subsequent strategies. Since TEC is responsible for funding allocation, the identified priorities indicate which sectors within tertiary education (i.e. workplace literacy, ACE, etc.), learners and providers will be eligible for this funding.

The first strategy, the *TES 2002-2007* (Ministry of Education, 2002), identified six strategic elements. As Zepke (2009) notes, three of them were aimed at achieving equity for Māori and Pasifika peoples, and raising social and foundation skills to foster participation in a knowledge society. The remaining three elements focused on economic efficiency that the *TES 2002-2007* (Ministry of Education, 2002) proposed to achieve by building system capability and quality, strengthening research and innovation for competition in a global economy and developing the skills that New Zealanders need to meet the requirements of a knowledge society (McLaughlin, 2003; Ministry of Education, 2002; Narayan, 2012; Zepke, 2009).

In relation to AMELE, the *TES 2002-2007* (Ministry of Education, 2002) overlooked one critical aspect that concerns migrants whose L1 is a language other than English. The Strategy did not explicitly recognise ESOL/English as an additional language (henceforth EAL) being part of foundation skills. Foundation skills were defined as "literacy, numeracy, technological literacy, communication skills, teamwork, 'learning to learn' and self-confidence" (Ministry of Education, 2002, p. 36). When addressing 'literacy' and 'communication skills' the document did not specify the language/s it referred to. Unlike Māori and Pasifika, neither immigrants nor refugees were recognised as a distinct learner group, whose

learning needs vary significantly and for whom the demand for foundation skills may be strong.

The *TES 2007-2012 (Ministry of Education, 2006)*, compared to the previous Strategy, had a clear focus on economic transformation and meeting the demands of a 'global market place'. The Strategy set three main priorities that the tertiary education system was expected to contribute to: "success for all New Zealanders through lifelong learning; creating and applying knowledge to drive innovation; and strong connections between tertiary education organisations and the communities they serve" (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3). In addition to the priorities, the *TES 2007-2012* (Ministry of Education, 2006) included four priority outcomes in order to achieve shifts in the system. Those outcomes were "increasing success of young New Zealanders achieving qualifications at NZQA levels four and above; increasing literacy, numeracy and language levels in the workforce; increasing the achievement of advanced trade, technical and professional qualifications to meet regional and national industry needs; and improving research connections and linkages to create economic opportunities" (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3; 2009a). As Zepke (2009) fairly notes, social, cultural and environmental outcomes appeared as afterthoughts. Furthermore, the *TES 2007-2012* (Ministry of Education, 2006) did not include separate strategies for Māori and Pasifika people, nor did it acknowledge migrants as a group with specific learning needs. Similar to the previous Strategy, provision of 'language' education and ESOL fell under adult foundation skills, but was limited and focused primarily on workplace contexts and community education (Roach & Roskvist, 2007).

The *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) was released under the National-led coalition in 2009. As Zepke (2011) notes, it placed a strong emphasis on New Zealand's economic performance. This Strategy contained an expanded list of outcomes and focused on achievement in degree programs, purporting to support Māori and Pasifika success at higher levels, improving LLN, as well as providers' performance and strengthening research outcomes (Ministry of Education, 2009b). As Guy and Harvey (2012) and Zepke (2011) observe, LLN training with an emphasis on employment and workforce productivity, under which AMELE including adult ESOL falls, was one of seven priority outcomes compared to the *TES 2007-2012* (Ministry of Education, 2006) that had four.

Given a tight fiscal environment and more priorities that the government identified for this second Strategy, it can be inferred that funding for LLN is limited and more stringent criteria are in place for both learners and providers to access it. Guy and Harvey (2012) report a number of challenges that New Zealand companies face in order to qualify for funding. Furthermore, as they note, the Workplace Literacy Fund (henceforth WLF) through which LLN training can be provided has been gradually reducing since 2010. This creates further difficulties with accessing English language provision as adult migrants will have to consider other options. Those options are programs delivered by English Language Partners (formerly ESOL Home Tutors) and ILN ESOL programs that are funded separately from WLF.

3.4.3.2 Literacy in the Workplace

Improving workplace literacy skills, as Zepke (2011) notes, is the main focus of New Zealand's tertiary education policy. 'Literacy'[8] skills are linked to

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[8] Presumably English in the context of New Zealand.

economic performance and growth, productivity of the workforce and employment that in turn, appear as distinct drivers that shape New Zealand tertiary education (Ministry of Education, 2002, 2006, 2009b). The main policy document that facilitated workplace literacy to be included in Tertiary Education Strategies as a priority was *More Than Words: The New Zealand Adult Literacy Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2001) released in 2001 (Guy & Harvey, 2012; Leach & Zepke, 2005). It was developed as a response to results of the International Adult Literacy Survey conducted in 1996 that stated "one in five adult New Zealanders have very poor literacy skills" (Ministry of Education, 2001, p. 2).

Following the release of the *New Zealand Adult Literacy Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2001), TEC was given responsibility to raise the literacy skills of the New Zealand workforce, and therefore established WLF. This fund is aimed at helping employees with low levels of literacy to participate in workplace learning and gain work-related literacy skills (Guy & Harvey, 2012; Leach & Zepke, 2005; Tertiary Education Commission, 2013b).

WLF has a number of constraints relating to eligibility of learners (see Table 3: Funding in AMELE) and employers. Findings from Guy and Harvey's (2012) study suggest there is a mismatch between the eligibility requirements for funding and the size, structure and workplace practices of New Zealand companies, many of which are small and medium enterprises. In addition, a reduction of the WLF provides challenges to access funding. Furthermore, employers' concerns over formal training required by TEC imply that LLN training in workplace may not be efficient and worthy of employers' effort (Guy & Harvey, 2012). Apart from these challenges, it needs to be noted that training under WLF does not address the needs of migrants who are literate in their L1 and require ESOL/EAL education.

This observation is echoed in Benseman's (2013) findings suggesting that recruiting appropriate learners in workplace literacy courses is a "fundamental pre-condition to ensuring that these programs achieve the intended positive impact" (p. 19). Therefore, one can conclude that the available ESOL opportunities through WLF are limited and require a consideration of employees' diverse learning needs in New Zealand workplaces.

3.4.3.3 Foundation literacy/LLN

Foundation literacy, which is also addressed as "literacy, language and numeracy" (LLN) in the *TES 2007-2012* (Ministry of Education, 2006) and the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b), is one of the priorities in New Zealand's education policy (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a). Apart from workplace, LLN is available through the ACE fund. LLN was also accessible via the FFTO fund until it ceased in January 2014.

ACE primarily targets those whose initial learning at school was unsuccessful. ACE courses are supposed to help people raise their foundation skills. Similar to other funds, ACE sets criteria for both learners (see Table 3: Funding in AMELE) and providers. The ACE sector is quite diverse and provides programs in adult LLN, ESOL, revitalisation of te reo Māori, promotes culture, social and environmental justice, and facilitates group and community development (Adult and Community Education Aotearoa, n.d.). According to the funding determination for the year 2013, ACE 'language' education appeared to be a priority at some state schools and state integrated schools, as well as in rural education activities programs (henceforth REAPs), PTEs and community organisations (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012a). The funding document stated that in deciding funding allocations, TEC must prioritise ACE programs that focus

on literacy, digital literacy, and numeracy, English language, including ESOL, New Zealand sign language and te reo Māori (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012b). However, due to significant cuts in ACE funding over four years, from 2010 to 2014, one may question whether provision of English language in the ACE sector is sufficient and accessible despite the Government's statement of support for adult education (New Zealand Government, 2009).

The FFTO fund, through which foundation literacy/LLN programs were available until January 2014, was established to reduce risk of people's long-term dependence on social welfare benefits (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012c). The Government planned to raise people's foundation skills at level 1 and 2 on the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (henceforth NZQF) so they could either move to sustainable employment or enrol in higher levels of tertiary education (Tertiary Education Commission, 2013a). However, as it was announced, FFTO did not meet the expected targets and as a result the fund was disestablished (New Zealand Government, 2013).

From January 2014, FFTO programs were replaced with 1,420 additional ESOL places, 1,350 additional ILN courses, 2,000-4,000 additional short duration industry training, fees-free foundation education at levels 1 and 2 for 20-24 year olds and extension of Youth Guarantee. The latter is the government initiative aimed at helping 16-19 year old people to gain foundation and vocational skills (New Zealand Government, 2013). The Govenrment also stated that TEC and MSD would be working together with the providers managing transition of the expanded foundation programs and making them more flexible and effective to the needs of all learners. It can be inferred that both TEC and MSD will be determining

new requirements for those programs, along with learners' eligibility and thus continue to be important stakeholders in AMELE.

3.5 Conclusion

This review of the policy context has demonstrated that AMELE in New Zealand as a sector and policy domain is largely affected by two major stakeholders: Immigration New Zealand that sets entry criteria for immigrants' English language proficiency and minimum standards, and TEC that determines funding, learners' eligibility, and approves and nominates course providers.

3.5.1 The domain of immigration

As it has been noted in the first two sections of this chapter, there are inconsistencies in the English language requirements for various migrant categories. These inconsistencies are reinforced by a vague definition of an acceptable minimum standard of English language proficiency in the current immigration policy.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from the review of English language requirements for immigrants, is that immigration policy pre-determines the demand for ESOL provision. By setting lower thresholds or eliminating English language requirements for certain categories, the policy facilitates entry of migrants who, upon arrival, are most likely going to require and depend on government-funded provision of English language programs.

Incorporation of English language provision in LLN/foundation skills programs poses the question as to whether LLN/foundation literacy programs cater for L2 speakers. In addition, migrants who possess high literacy skills in their L1, but do not speak English well enough, may not find the available programs

suitable to their needs. This suggests these learners, like the immigrants with a pre-paid ESOL tuition, are also excluded from the current provision.

The review of policies relating to refugee resettlement indicated a lack of careful planning for ESOL and English literacy education for this group of learners. A focus on employment in the introductory program as well as changes in the early resettlement services have caused a number of concerns. Those concerns are refugees' lack of readiness to access mainstream education and mainstream social services after 12 months, the appropriacy of an immediate employment focus for the elderly, mothers with young children as well as refugees who arrive in New Zealand from war-torn countries with considerable trauma and physical disabilities.

3.5.2. Tertiary education sector

The reviews of tertiary education strategies and other documents that have arisen from the tertiary sector demonstrate there is a strong focus on developing adult literacy and foundation/LLN skills without specifying English language skills for migrants. The rationale behind the support for LLN is based on the idea that raising adult literacy and equipping people with foundation skills will improve their chances of getting into employment. As a result, we have seen the establishment of specialised funds that support gaining literacy and foundation skills, such as WLF, FFTO (until 2014) and ACE. Similar to the domain of immigration where a vague definition of a minimum standard of English has been identified, Tertiary Education Strategies do not seem to provide a clear definition of 'literacy' (supposedly literacy in English) and how English literacy is addressed in the development of foundation skills. Furthermore, an omission of 'English' in

the available definitions may result in a number of possible policy interpretations and indicate what motivations lie behind the language of the policy texts.

Thus, the involvement of various government agencies in AMELE suggests their institutional power and policies need to be taken into account and further analysis of the policy texts is required in order to gain a more detailed understanding of AMELE.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter defines policy and describes multiple ways of conducting a policy analysis. This is particularly important as policy analysis is a multi-faceted academic field that has various methodological approaches. Following this, the chapter explains CDA and how it can be applied in research with a particular focus on the domains of language policy and adult education policy. Having outlined what CDA is, its principles and how they can be operationalised in a study of policy, the chapter goes on to provide an explanation of the research design. It states how and which texts have been selected for analysis, how the analytical framework has been designed and also acknowledges the limitations of the study.

4.2 An overview of approaches to policy study

To highlight the multidimensional and complex nature of policy studies, one needs to consider how policy is regarded, various approaches to methodology, as well as specific research aims and questions that underpin a study. These three aspects inextricably have implications on a selected methodological framework.

Policy can be viewed in various ways, and the way in which it is viewed determines the research method (Bell & Stevenson, 2006; Blackmore & Lauder, 2011). For example, policy can be considered as 'text', 'process', 'discourse', 'political decision', 'program' or 'an outcome' (Blackmore & Lauder, 2011; Olssen, Codd, & O'Neill, 2004). With a particular reference to policy in the field of education, Ball (1993) adds that policy may be defined as a form of intended social action, which results in a subsequent practice (Bell & Stevenson, 2006). In this thesis, policy is treated as discourse, which includes an intended social action with

subsequent practices. As Olssen et al. (2004) suggest, treating policy as discourse will help conceptualise and understand the "relations between the individual policy text and the wider relations of the social structure and political system" (p. 71).

Policy study is a contested field in terms of approaches, i.e. how a policy should be understood and what methods are to be used to analyse and evaluate it (Jones, 2013; Ozga, Seddon, & Popkewitz, 2006). There are various models and theories that can be applied in the study of policy. For example, cost-benefit analysis, risk assessment, rational choice theory, public choice theory, agency theory, as a communications model, discourse theory, including CDA, critical social science and others (Fischer, 2003; Harvey, 2006; Mills, 2004). Broadly, those models and theories fall under two major types of research orientations, i.e. quantitative and qualitative, and sometimes a combination of them, known as mixed method. A research orientation will determine the type of data that are collected and what tools to use for data analysis (Angouri, 2010; Bryman, 2012; Dornyei, 2007).

Until the 1970s, policy studies primarily relied on quantitative research methods underpinned by a positivist paradigm (Blackmore & Lauder, 2011). Quantitative methods involve collection of numerical data, usually large population samples, which are then analysed by means of statistical procedures (Bryman, 2012; Dornyei, 2007). This rational and technocratic approach to policy study, as Fischer (2003) and Blackmore and Lauder (2011) characterise it, has been favourable among many governments due to perceived 'generalisability' and 'objectivity', and for offering simple ways of understanding a problem (Blackmore & Lauder, 2011; Fischer, 2003). The contribution of the discipline of economics to

the field of policy studies is also noted, particularly for its models of cost-benefit analysis and risk assessment that are used to make 'rational' policy decisions and calculate efficiency and effectiveness of all other options (Fischer, 2003).

The superiority of technocratic approaches to policy studies based on quantitative methods has been challenged by researchers working within other paradigms, such as interpretivism, critical theory and postmodernism (Blackmore & Lauder, 2011; Fischer, 2003; P. Taylor & Medina, 2013). The critique primarily relates to methodological considerations that allowed for a number of gaps to be identified. With the rise of critical theory and feminism, in the 1970s, rational models were challenged by the questions of social class, gender and ethnicity. For policy studies this suggested that there had been a lack of consideration and impact of those questions on the study of policy (Blackmore & Lauder, 2011). Qualitative researchers were also sceptical about the supposed neutrality of quantitative methods used in policy studies (Blackmore & Lauder, 2011). Specifically, the question of neutrality may refer to the role of researcher and their impact on a study in terms of bias and assumptions a researcher may make (Bryman, 2012; Dornyei, 2007; Jones, 2013). Another challenge comes from considerations of power and an acknowledgement that power is hardly ever equally shared between all stakeholders. The proponents of the critical traditions argue that it is the power of stakeholders that determines how much social control they get and whose primary interests a policy will then contain (Blackmore & Lauder, 2011). This short critique suggests ways in which the above methodological criticism addresses issues that rational and technocratic models seem to overlook. On the other hand, it suggests ways in which a qualitative

research orientation may complement and enrich policy studies providing a more balanced and comprehensive account.

In addition to methodological tensions and various ways of defining a policy, any methodological framework should also be shaped by the research question/s that a study seeks to answer and the aims the study is pursuing (Ricento, 2006; Sunderland, 2010). The way research questions are worded also has implications for an approach that will be utilised in a study, i.e. the type and methods of data collection and how these data are then going to be analysed (Sunderland, 2010). In other words, it is through the research questions a researcher is able to connect what it is they wish to research and how they go about doing it (Mason, 2002, as cited in Sunderland, 2010).

Having discussed the above three aspects, it should also be noted that preferences toward a particular methodology over others, ways of defining a policy and the research questions and aims the study has, are interconnected and are mutualy reinforced. The methodological framework of the thesis reflects this relationship by explicitly adopting the view of policy being a '**D**iscourse' with a big D (Gee, 2011a, 2011b, 2012), and investigating the construction of New Zealand's adult migrant English language education (AMELE) policy. Viewing AMELE policy as **D**iscourse and language learning, literacy and education as socially constructed phenomena, justifies the use of discourse theory in the thesis' methodology. In addition, the critical stance of the thesis' author and a view that the language plays a key role in producing and reproducing discourses makes the analytical approach critical. Hence the overall framework will be based on the methods of CDA. Prior to operationalising the research question, aims and tools, it is necessary to explain what CDA is and the principles it holds. The next section will outline its main

features followed by description of how CDA is applied in research. Where appropriate, relevant examples of utilising the discourse theory and methods of CDA in educational and language policy research will be provided.

4.3 CDA and its principles

Broadly, CDA can be defined as a type of discourse analysis that explores the "connection between language use and the social and political contexts in which it occurs" (Paltridge, 2006, p. 179). It can also be defined as a transdisciplinary theoretical framework, a form of critical social science (Alba-Juez, 2009; Fairclough, 1992a, 1992b, 1995, 2010). It provides a critical perspective on scholarship that focuses on how domination, power and power abuse are produced and reproduced (van Dijk, 2001, 2008). The thesis views CDA as methodology – a system of methods, which are underpinned by critical theory in terms of the epistemological and ontological bases. These bases are principles that distinguish CDA from other types of discourse analyses.

The principles of CDA can be grouped into five categories. They concern social order, power, subjectivity, reality and the role of language. The principles are summarised as follows:

1. *Social order:*

   a. Is historically situated, socially constructed and changeable (Fairclough, 1992b; Locke, 2004);

   b. Is largely influenced by particular discourses rather than the will of individuals (Locke, 2004);

2. *Power:*

   a. Power in society is everywhere and is inevitable, and its effect on particular discursive arrangements privileges the status and

positions of some people over others (Blommaert, 2005; Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000; Fairclough, 1992a; Locke, 2004);

3. *Subjectivity:*

    a. Human subjectivity is in part constructed by discourse (Locke, 2004);

    b. Unlike other research methods and frameworks, CDA does not conceal its subjectivity and bias. It makes them explicit by defining and defending its 'socio-political' position (van Dijk, 2001);

4. *Reality:*

    a. 'Reality' is viewed as textually and intertextually mediated by means of verbal and non-verbal language systems (Locke, 2004);

5. *Language:*

    a. CDA regards the use of language as discourse and a social practice (Fairclough, 1989; Olssen et al., 2004; Paltridge, 2006; Wodak, 2001);

    b. Systematic analysis of the language used in texts and interpretation of those texts help reveal discourses that consolidate power and the relationship between texts and discursive and social practices (Fairclough, 1989; Locke, 2004; Olssen et al., 2004). Hence an understanding of social matters can be gained through analysis of language;

    c. Language serves as a device to constitute and transmit knowledge in social institutions and challenge power (Fernandez Martinez, 2007).

Having outlined the main principles of CDA, it is necessary to demonstrate how they can be operationalised into research. The following subsection will explain approaches to conducting CDA-based studies and provide overview of tools that can be used. The examples of application of CDA in the fields similar to the domain of AMELE will help the discussion.

4.3.1 Application of CDA in research

How the principles of CDA are translated into a research framework depends on the adopted analytical approach and the proposed study. It needs to be noted that there are various approaches within CDA itself (Rogers, 2011). Examples, according to Rogers (2011) include the following:

- Discourse-historical method developed by Ruth Wodak,

- Michael Halliday's systemic functional linguistics (henceforth SFL) that has been incorporated in Norman Fairclough's version of CDA, particularly textual analysis,

- Socio-cognitive studies of Teun van Dijk,

- French discourse analysis of Michel Foucault and Michel Pêcheux,

- Social semiotics developed by Gunther Kress, Robert Hodge and Theo van Leeuwen, and

- Critical ethnography of communication adopted by Jan Blommaert.

(Rogers, 2011)

Procedures and tools vary depending on a research topic, questions and theories that are used in a study (Meyer, 2001; Paltridge, 2006; Rogers, 2011). This observation is consistent with an an earlier statement about the key elements that comprise a methodological approach to a study of policy. As noted previously, the approach is usually determined by the definition of policy, a chosen research orientation (quantitative, qualitative or a combination of both) and tools of enquiry, as well as research aims and question/s (see section 4.2 An overview of approaches to policy study).

Another aspect that needs to be noted is that methodolocially CDA is quite diverse as it can combine the above approaches and utilise various tools of analysis and data collection (Fairclough, 2003; Rogers, 2011). In addition, CDA may be part of a framework that combines it with other theories. This suggests that CDA is also methodologically hybrid (Rogers, 2011). For example, Phillips and Oswick (2012) and Phllips, Lawrence and Hardy (2004) combine CDA with institutional theory and develop a form of CDA that highlights a relationship between texts, discourse, institutions or organisations and action.

In terms of methodological approaches, some analysts, as Rogers (2011) notes, draw on extensive fieldwork that involves observations and interviews. For example, Johnson (2011) combines CDA with ethnography and explores how macro-level language policy impacts bilingual education in the United States. He focuses on the discourse practices analysing intertextual and interdiscursive links between the policy texts and the discourses. Another example is Hunter's (2012) study of employers' perspectives on migrant workers and connecting them with the dominant policy discourses of language and literacy in New Zealand. She also observes that for studies that view workplace language and literacy as social practice it is common to take an ethnographic approach. These studies entail an analysis of the context and how the context and social practices shape the meaning of texts (Hunter, 2012).

To study changes in a policy discourse and its continuity over time, one can utilise the discourse historical approach. Hamilton and Pitt (2011) apply it in their study of adult education policy in the United Kingdom. Using the discourse historical approach, they observe changes in the policy discourse of literacy inequality over time and how two policy documents: *The Right to Read* (British

Association of Settlements, 1974) and *Skills For Life* (Department for Education and Skills, 2001), construct various social groups with regard to their literacy needs. The study serves as an example of conducting a CDA based on the discourse-historical approach and using policy documents as data.

Other examples of CDA-based studies are 'more textually oriented', as Rogers (2011) characterises them. They may utilise corpus tools, i.e. concordancers, and other software that have built-in word collocation and frequency functions, and SFL. Corpus-based approaches may be useful as they enable investigation of particular linguistic features in the selected texts, where and how they occur in discourse and how often (Paltridge, 2006). Apart from corpus-based approaches, CDA favours Halliday's (2013) SFL in terms of the tools of enquiry and regards language as a set of resources (Machin & Mayr, 2012). A functional view of language then helps explore how meaning is created using various grammatical features that serve as tools in CDA. Examples of those tools include the examination of agent, time, tense, modality, as well as choices of mood, cohesion devices and others (Fernandez Martinez, 2007; Janks, 1997). By means of SFL and its tools, one can explore linguistic strategies that are being used to communicate and construct meaning in written and spoken texts. It is important to note that these strategies are linked to the practices at discourse and social practice levels. Hence this can explain why certain ideas are communicated in a particular way (Paltridge, 2006). A close examination of linguistic strategies then can explain hidden agendas, underlying beliefs, and may be indicative of power

relations between the stakeholders (Alba-Juez, 2009; Paltridge, 2006; van Dijk, 2001). Machin and Mayr (2012) summarise the key strategies[9] as follows:

- **Concealment** is a strategy that is mainly achieved by nominalisation, passive voice and using metonymy. Nominalisation is a process of replacing verbs by nouns. It creates an effect of supressing information about what exactly has been done, who has done it, who is affected by this action and when it took place (Machin & Mayr, 2012). To conceal an agent, an author of a text can also use a passive voice. Another way of concealing a social actor and their actions is by means of metonymy. Machin and Mayr (2012) provide the examples of metonymy that refer to public officials and governments, such as 'Downing Street' and 'The Kremlin' instead of the British and Russian government respectively. In the New Zealand context, a similar example would be the Beehive instead of the New Zealand government.

- **Taking things for granted and presupposition**. This strategy allows one to present contestable things as stable and given without an explanation of meaning. At the heart of this strategy lies an ideological assumption that people will be able to elicit meaning drawing on 'shared beliefs' (Machin & Mayr, 2012). Meanings that are assumed as given in texts are also known as 'pre-constructed elements' (Fairclough, 1995) . In the policy studies that adopt CDA as an approach, examining taken for granted assumptions and presuppositions enable enquiries into the underlying issues of power that are embedded in a 'perceived' problem and solution (Gibb, 2008; Woodside-Jiron, 2011). This suggests that examining the strategy of taken for granted statements and presuppositions will help reveal what motivations lie behind a policy and what

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[9] Since the thesis focuses on the textual analysis, I am excluding strategies that are used in a multumodal CDA.

implications or material effects the policy has on stakeholders, particularly those that are not equal in their social power with the government agencies. In the analysis of adult education policy in the United Kingdom, Oughton (2007) demonstrates how the analysis of presuppositions reveals the presence of assumptions in the discourse of *Skills for Life* (Department for Education and Skills, 2001) document that have become accepted and internalised.

- ***Commitment to/evading 'truth'*** strategies indicate either a commitment to what is being said or the opposite. Both outcomes are achieved using the system of modality and hedging. Modality, according to Fairclough (1992a), includes any unit of language that expresses authors' personal opinion of and commitment to what they say. This is expressed by means of modal verbs, modal adjectives and their adverbial equivalents that indicate judgement of probability, obligation, signal factuality, certainty and doubt (Machin & Mayr, 2012). Hedging is a tool that is used to signal the level of commitment within authors' claims. It can also be used to distance oneself from what is being said and weaken the force of the statements. Apart from modal verbs that indicate ambiguity and vagueness, hedging can be expressed by other means. It can include long noun phrases; modal adverbs (e.g. 'perhaps'); auxiliary adverbs (e.g. 'especially'); approximators (e.g. 'some', 'somewhat'); non-factive verbs (e.g. 'suggest'); comparative forms (e.g. 'more […] than' or 'less […] than') and connectors expressing alternative explanations and arguments (e.g. 'although') (Machin & Mayr, 2012). Thus, analysis of the system of modality, can help highlight patterns of power and authority, whereas hedging can be used to identify the presence of hidden agendas by strategically creating ambiguities (Machin & Mayr, 2012).

- *Representational strategies*

  These strategies may be divided into two groups: representing people as social actors and representing action. The strategy of representation of social actors refers to describing and defining those actors. How social actors are represented in a text can be examined with the help of van Leeuwen's (1996) inventory of referential choices. The inventory consists of the following tools: personalisation or impersonalisation, individualisation versus collectivisation, specification or genericisation, nomination or functionalisation, aggregation, and 'us' and 'them division. An analysis based on these tools can highlight crucial aspects of the social actors' identities linking them to certain kinds of discourse that carry social, psychological and political purposes (Machin & Mayr, 2012). Apart from social actors, representation strategies also concern action. The way action is represented can be studied by means of transitivity. Machin and Mayr (2012) explain transitivity as a study of 'who does what to whom, and how' (p. 105). The foci of representational strategies of action concern participants, processes and circumstances (Machin & Mayr, 2012).

- *Metaphoric tropes.* Metaphors are a linguistic tool or device that is used to demonstrate "a way by which we understand and experience one thing in terms of another" (N. Taylor, 2008, p. 133). Due to their diverse application in various linguistic strategies, one may view metaphors as a versatile tool that can help achieve a number of outcomes. As Fairclough (1995) suggests, metaphors can conceal and shape understandings and at the same time give an impression that they reveal hidden ideologies. Thus, metaphors can be used in the strategies representing a social actor or an action, and also to express commitment to 'truth' and presuppositions. In the analysis of *Skills for Life*

Strategy (Department for Education and Skills, 2001), which is one of the key documents of the adult literacy policy in the United Kingdom, Taylor (2008) demonstrates how it can incorporate metaphoric tropes in a policy study. She examines this document through the presence of metaphors and how their use contributes to framing a lack of literacy as 'a problem' and constructing the learners as the cause of economic problems. Similar to Hamilton and Pitt (2011), who also referred to the *Skills for Life* Strategy, Taylor's (2008) study demonstrates how language of the policy texts reinforces discourses based on assumptions and beliefs, and contributes to power inequalities among the stakeholders.

To summarise, this sub-section has examined the methodological diversity and hybridity of CDA suggesting that a study may combine various methods of data collection and analysis. It has outlined the key linguistic strategies and research tools that are helpful in textual analyses and demonstrated how they have been applied in similar policy studies. It is evident that each study's framework is tailored to specific research questions and aims. The next section explains how this thesis utilises CDA in a study of AMELE policy, what data and tools it employs and how the analysis is conducted.

4.4 Research design

In this section the thesis operationalises the principles of CDA and its tools and outlines how the study is conducted. It consists of three sub-sections. The first one explains which policy texts have been selected for the study. The second sub-section presents the analytical framework and procedure, and also includes some practical considerations relating to presentation of the results and utilising

software. An acknowledgement of limitations and explanation of how they are managed and minimised are provided in the last sub-section.

4.4.1 Selection of texts

This sub-section explains the rationale for using the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) as data for analysis. As discussed in the previous chapter, AMELE is a broad sector and is spread across various policy domains, such as tertiary education, immigration and social development. In the absence of an overarching policy regarding languages and/or language education in New Zealand, one needs to refer to the key documents of those domains to review the policies. The review of the AMELE policy context suggests that key policy documents are the *Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003), *Tertiary Education Strategies* (Ministry of Education, 2002, 2006, 2009b, 2014) and the *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009), which is being implemented through the *Operational Manual* (Immigration New Zealand, 2010c).

Because the nexus between immigration and tertiary education policies is critical for AMELE, the texts that will be used in the analysis are the top level policy documents from those two domains. Both the *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009) and *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) were released in the same year. However since the policy regarding English language for immigrants and refugees is contained in the Residence section of the Operational Manual, the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) has been selected instead of the *Immigration Act 2009.*

The *Adult ESOL Strategy* is not included in the analysis for a number of reasons. Although it is the only document that managed to bring together all issues

pertinent to AMELE, it has never been thoroughly reviewed and evaluated in terms of the results that it aimed to achieve. It is inoperative and is not explicitly linked to the Tertiary Education Strategies, nor does it contain any references to immigration policy.

Thus, the analysis of AMELE policy will be based on a CDA of the two texts: *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). The following sub-section outlines how these texts are analysed and how the study is organised.

4.4.2 Analytical framework and procedure

This sub-section provides a framework for analysis of the selected texts based on CDA. It explains how the framework is devised, considerations taken and other practicalities, such as the rationale for an audit trail, the use of NVivo and Adobe Reader for OSX and OS Windows softwares, adding italics in excerpts where appropriate, and presenting results using screenshots from NVivo instead of conventional tables.

As mentioned earlier (see section 4.3 CDA and its principles), the thesis regards CDA as a system of linguistic tools that helps analyse policy. The emphasis here is on the systematic features that allow the researcher to explore the relationship between texts, and discursive and social practices using Fairclough's (1992a, 1995, 2003) model. This relationship is demonstrated in the diagram below (see Figure 4: Three-dimensional concept of discourse). The model illustrates how discourse works on three levels: textual, discursive and social practices. Written and/or spoken texts reflect, produce and reinforce those practices. At the same time, texts are shaped by practices at the two other levels.

Similarly, discourse practices are influenced by social practices and vice versa (Fairclough, 1992a, 1995).
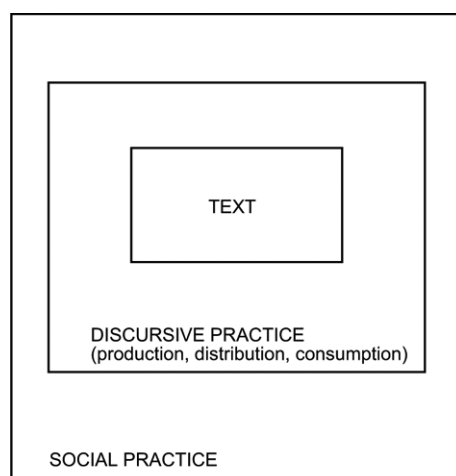
Figure 4: Three-dimensional concept of discourse

Source: Fairclough (1992a, p. 73)

Although the selected texts are of the same genre, both of which are policy documents, the thesis does not engage in a comparative analysis as they belong to different domains and serve different purposes. Rather, these texts are viewed as complements.

The analytical framework of the thesis is based on the above model. Hence the CDA of AMELE policy will include the following:

- textual analyses of the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b),

- analysis of the AMELE policy is distribution[10], and

- analysis of the social practices and their effects.

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[10] The analysis of discursive practices is limited due to data that are limited to the two policy texts. No interviews with the experts in the field or stakeholders' representatives were conducted as part of this study. Therefore the thesis excludes the analysis of production of the policy and how it was received.

Analysis at each level and the tools that will be be used are tailored to the study's specific research questions (RQs). This will help us understand how AMELE policy is constructed:

RQ 1: What assumptions do immigration and tertiary education policies have in relation to English and English language education?

RQ 2: What attitude does the AMELE policy instantiate in relation to English and English language education?

RQ 3: To what extent is AMELE policy inclusive of immigrants and refugees learner needs?

At the textual level, the analysis employs the tools of SFL and closely examines two linguistic strategies that both documents use to refer to English language education and English literacy for migrants: taken for grantedness and commitment/evading 'truth'. The first strategy allows to observe any omissions that can help identify the policy's assumptions (RQ1), attitudes towards English and English language education (RQ2) and the degrees of AMELE's inclusiveness (RQ3). The key omissions that the thesis draws attention to are inconsistency of references to the key words: 'English' language, 'English' literacy, 'ESOL', 'English as a second language', as well as 'migrants', 'immigrants' and 'refugees'. This enquiry will examine whether or not the policies recognise that English may not be a native language for all people that live in New Zealand, especially migrants and how the policies aims to address the issue of raising English language proficiency and English literacy.

To proceed with the textual analysis, the thesis employs NVivo software, word search in PDF and Adobe for OSX. Nvivo's Query Wizard enables the

identification of frequently occurring terms in a text and where they occur. Its built-in word search function has options of finding the exact matches (for e.g. talk), matches with stemmed words (e.g. talking), synonyms (e.g. speak), with specialisations (e.g. whisper) and with generalisations (e.g. communicate). Since the thesis is interested in quite specific omissions, the search will be performed for the exact matches of the word 'English' and 'ESOL'. Following this, another word search query will be run to see how many times the words 'language' and 'literacy' appear in the texts without being collocated with 'English' or 'ESOL'. This will increase validity of results interpretation relating to omissions and strengthen the thesis' claim about English becoming the 'unmarked' taken for granted normative language that continues to dominate over other spoken and written languages in New Zealand. A word search for 'migrants', 'immigrants' and 'refugees' will also be conducted. This will demonstrate whether both immigration and tertiary education recognise migrants as a distinct group who may have very specific learning needs and require considerable help to achieve English language literacy or improve proficiency in English.

In addition to the taken for grantedness that addresseses RQ1, the thesis will also examine the commitment to/evading 'truth' strategy in the texts. This inquiry involves utilising the tools of modality and hedging in order to highlight aspects of English language education that are deemed compulsory or complementary. Both tools (as explained in sub-section 4.3.1 Application of CDA in research), are employed to observe and analyse how modal verbs, modal adjectives and their adverbial equivalents, as well as approximators, non-factive verbs and connectors are being used in the texts when referring to English language education and English literacy. Since the modality and hedging are

analysed to highlight attitudes to English language education (RQ2), NVivo will help identify paragraphs and parts of the document, where references are made to the English language education. Previously run text search queries for the word 'English' will be particularly useful as they will help locate parts of the documents where modality and hedging are used in relation to English language education and English literacy. Where there is a designated section on policy relating to English, the analysis will focus on that part of the document.

At the discursive practice level, the study will be limited to distribution of policy only. This limitation is due to the data that have been selected for analysis. Since the dataset consists of the policy texts only, the analysis of discourse practices will exclude two elements, i.e. production and consumption.

The analysis of policy distribution in AMELE involves two steps. The first step is an outline of the domain where the text can be found and whether it is easily accessible. The second step involves intertextual analysis, i.e. identifying any links of the selected texts to other policy documents and other policy domains.

Intertextuality is a relationship that a text has with other written or spoken texts in the form of links, citations and references. These are considered central to the analysis of discourse practices (Fairclough, 1992b). According to Lemke (1992), there are three principles that help explore a relationship between texts, such as thematic, orientational and organisational. These principles are grounded in Halliday's semantic grammar and refer to ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of meaning. In a nutshell, these principles explore what is being talked about and semantic similarities [thematic], a point of view and attitude of an author toward audience and content [orientational], and genre structure [organisational] in the texts (Lemke, 1992). The rationale behind the analysis of

intertextuality relates to the aim of mapping the field of AMELE and observing how the policy is distributed across various domains. The foci of this analysis are explicit and implicit links to other documents and policy domains, which provides a pathway to the analysis of social practices.

At the social practice level, the thesis engages in the analysis of social effects of the policy. According to Fairclough (2003), social practices are "ways of controlling the selection of certain structural possibilities and the exclusion of others, retention of these selections over time, in particular areas of social life" (p. 23-24). Applying the method of CDA in public policy studies, Woodside-Jiron (2011) suggests that at this level discourse can be viewed as both a site of power struggle and a stake in that struggle.

Following the textual analysis of the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and AMELE policy distribution, the analysis of social practices focuses on how the key stakeholders in AMELE policy exercise their power. The links to other documents that have been identified at the discourse practice level and the distribution of the policy across various domains is going to be closely examined. Specifically, the analysis at this level looks at what has been excluded in the selected texts and where the excluded information appears, i.e. other policy documents that the two policy texts are linked to and under whose auspices the other policy documents have been produced. It reveals how the control and hence power is exercised and which aspects of the AMELE policy are controlled by agencies other than TEC and the Department of Labour/MBIE. It needs to be acknowledged that similar to the analysis of discourse practices, the analysis of social practices is also limited for methodological reasons, i.e. the data that have

been utilised in this study. Therefore the thesis limits the analysis of social practices to the effects of that distribution and the findings from the textual analysis. There are a few technicalities that have been employed to devise this framework. They are explained below.

4.4.2.1 Practical considerations

These considerations relate to the technical aspects of presentation of the results and utilising software to conduct the analysis. Both policy documents are available in a digital PDF format, which enables the use of text analysis software. This option would not be available if the files were image-based PDFs. A software program has been been utilised for the following two reasons. Firstly, it makes the study more feasible as conducting the entire analysis manually can be time consuming. And secondly, it significantly minimises the risk of overlooking important data.

Although there are many text analysis software programs available, the thesis utilises NVivo. It is one of the most popular programs used in qualitative research, particularly thematic analysis. It does not offer an extensive range of text analysis options like specialised corpus software, however for this thesis NVivo Query Wizard's functionality is sufficient to conduct the required analysis.

In terms of presentation of the results, where appropriate and possible, they will be presented in the form of screen shots taken from NVivo. Not only will it minimise potential errors, but also leave an audit trail for the readers particularly those who might replicate the study or use the same procedures. As part of the audit trail, it is also necessary to include full texts of the selected documents in case they are not accessible from the TEC and Immigration New Zealand websites in the future. As the *TES 2010-2015* has been removed from

TEC's website, this document is included in Appendix 2. The *Operational Manual –*
Residence Section can be downloaded from the Immigration New Zealand website.
For the sake of improved visibility of the key textual structures, bold font and/or
italics will be applied.

4.4.3 Limitations

Following an outline of the analytical framework and procedure, the thesis
needs to acknowledge a few limitations and explain what steps have been taken to
reduce their impact. Primarily the limitations relate to methodological
considerations, the choice of CDA as a research method and what has been
excluded from the scope.

One of the key criticisms of CDA is its tendency to interpret texts without
considering the intentions of text producers (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000; Machin
& Mayr, 2012; Paltridge, 2006). Widdowson (1998, as cited in Paltridge, 2006)
argues that the analysis should not solely rest upon the analyst's view of what a
text might mean, but consider authors' intentions and the role of readers in
consumption and interpretation of the text. Indeed, both production and reception
are important elements of discourse and social practices. To be able to analyse
production and reception of policy, as well as how these discursive elements
translate into the effects of policy, the data should include interviews with the key
stakeholders and observations. Without the analysis of these elements, CDA will
not reveal the material effects of discourses contained in the policy texts. As
suggested by Fairclough (2003), Gibb (2008) and Johnson (2011), CDA can be
combined with ethnography to provide an understanding of the discursive effects.
Since the data that this thesis utilises are comprised of the two policy documents,
production and reception of the policy are excluded from the analysis and are

considered to be outside the scope of this study, as mentioned in the previous sub-section (see 4.4.2 Analytical framework and procedure).

Similar to other qualitative studies, the thesis may be critiqued for a subjective interpretation and the author's bias. In terms of subjectivity of interpretation in CDA based studies, Widdowson (1998, as cited in Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000) argues that a text can be read in many ways suggesting the results of the study are biased and based on the analyst's view. It needs to be acknowledged therefore that the author of the thesis is an immigrant herself for whom English is a second language. The analytical framework has taken the author's positionality into account by choosing the SFL tools in textual analysis. The systematic analysis and interpretation of the results based on linguistic evidence will help ensure that the author's subjectivity and bias are minimised. In addition, CDA as a research method and methodology has a capacity of employing various analytical tools that can help provide a credible and reliable account. As explained earlier (see sub-section 4.3.1 Application of CDA in research), CDA is a diverse and hybrid scholarship in terms of its methodology. The analytical framework of the thesis is based on Norman Fairclough's three-dimensional model at the heart of which is textual analysis grounded in SFL. The textual analysis also includes elements of corpus-based tools, such as word frequency and text search. Utilising text-analysis software and running text search queries in NVivo help make the results of the study more credible and reliable.

Finally, since the data consist of the two policy documents the thesis does not claim the results of the study can be generalised. The thesis also acknowledges that the extent of the analysis of discourse and social practices has not been exhausted. As will be demonstrated in the analysis of distribution of the AMELE

policy, more documents can be considered for inclusion as well as other sources of data, such as interviews, observations and learning journal in case of incorporating (auto)ethnography in CDA.

4.5. Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the approaches to policy analysis and acknowledged the main tensions between qualitative and quantitative research orientations and multiple definitions of policy. Since the thesis employs CDA as a methodology, an explanation of CDA and its principles has been included as well as examples of how CDA is applied in similar research. Following this, the chapter has explained which texts were selected for analysis and how the analytical framework has been deduced, including considerations of some technical aspects that were taken into account. Finally, the thesis noted methodological limitations that relate to CDA as a research method and considerations in order to make this study more feasible by selecting only two texts for analysis and those that are available in the public domain.

The next chapter is devoted to the analysis of *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) Both documents are analysed by means of the framework that has been explained.

5. ANALYSIS & FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and findings from the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). Each document is analysed by means of a CDA-based framework (see Chapter 4: section 4.4.2 Analytical framework and procedure). The textual analysis involves examination of the two strategies: taken for grantedness and commitment/evading 'truth', which will help identify the assumptions that underlie AMELE (RQ1), the attitudes to English and English language education (RQ2) and examine how inclusive of immigrants and refugees' learning needs AMELE is (RQ3). The textual analyses of both texts are conducted with the help of NVivo software and word search in Adobe Reader for OS Windows and OSX. RQ1 and RQ2 are also addressed in the analysis of discourse practices that focusses on policy distribution. The analysis of social practices involves examination of how TEC's and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's power is exercised and what it means for other stakeholders, especially migrants, which partly addresses RQ3. Each subsection of this chapter will outline the findings, the implications of which will be discussed in the final chapter.

5.2 Operational Manual – Residence Section

As noted in Chapters Three and Four, the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) presents the requirements that immigrants have to meet as part of their application for permanent residence. Provisions regarding English are included in this document. The *Operational*

Manual – Residence Section (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) is issued and authored by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE.

5.2.1 Textual analysis

5.2.1.1 Taken for grantedness

The focus of investigation is whether the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) explicitly mentions English, attitudes to English and English language proficiency, or whether the policy treats English as the unmarked norm. The analysis will employ word searches for 'English', 'ESOL', and 'language', as well as 'migrant', 'immigrant', and 'refugee' in order to highlight assumptions that are presented as given (RQ1).

The word search for 'English' using both NVivo Query Wizard and a built-in search in PDF has resulted in 280 references (see below Figure 5: 'English' in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*, results from NVivo and Figure 6: 'English' in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*, word search in PDF).

Queries				
Name		Created On	Created By	Modified On
English in Ops Manual 05.02.2 [x]				

Name	In Folder	References	Coverage
Residence-Ops Manual-2014	Internals\Immigration	280	0.15%

Figure 5: 'English' in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*, results from NVivo

The word search for 'ESOL' has given 119 references in NVivo (see Figure 7:

'ESOL' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, results from NVivo)

Although the search in PDF resulted in 124 instances, the last five entries can be

excluded from the count as PDF was unable to distinguish ESOL as a whole word as

opposed to a combination of letters (see Figure 8: 'ESOL' in the *Operational Manual*

- Residence Section, word search in PDF).
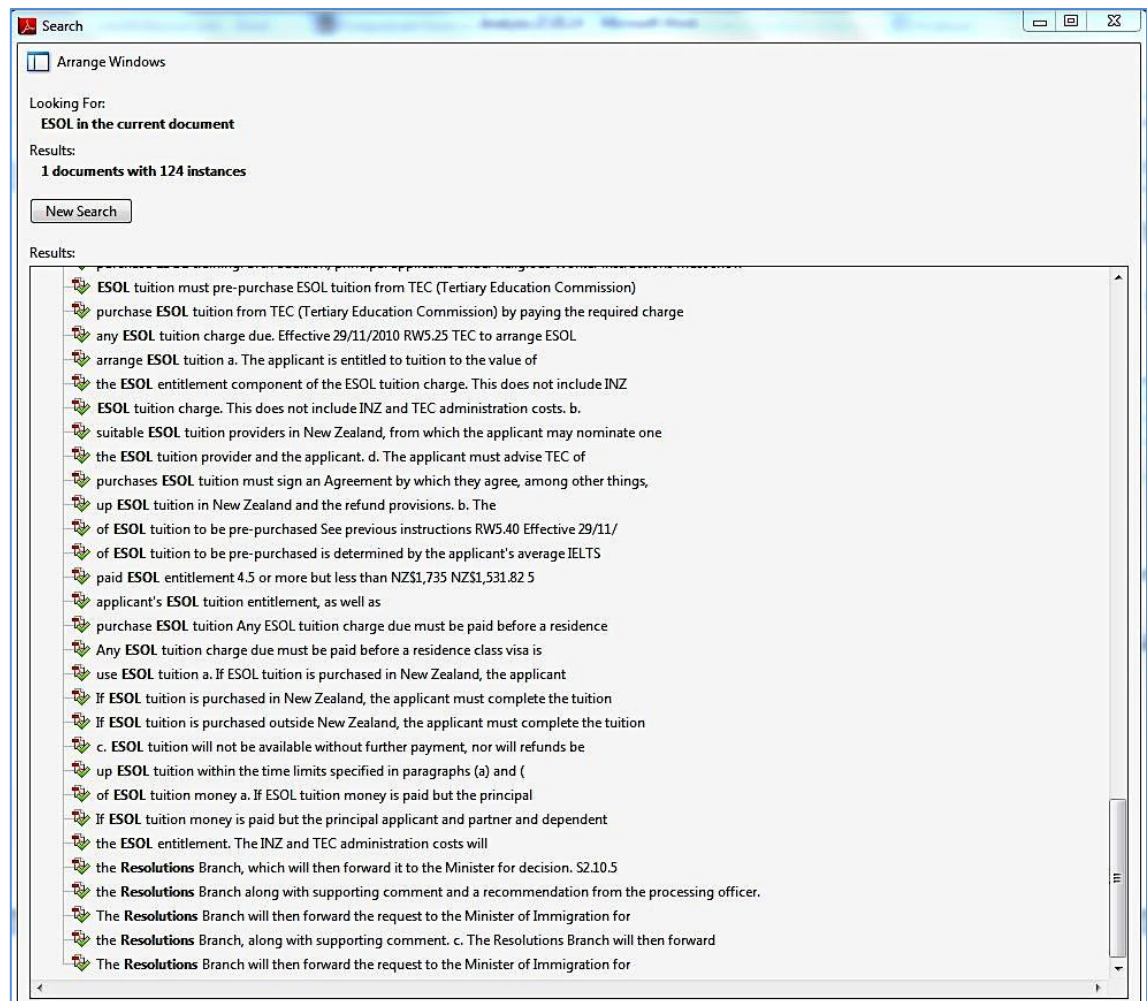
Figure 8: 'ESOL' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, word search in PDF

Despite this minor discrepancy in the overall count, both NVivo and a built-in word search in PDF have produced results in terms of the references to English and ESOL in this document. 280 references to English and 119 references to ESOL strongly suggest the policy regarding English language is a distinct element in the immigration policy.

Performing crosschecks of the instances where the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) refers to English as 'language' will help identify whether Immigration New Zealand/MBIE have a tendency for this practice. The word search for 'language' in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) using NVivo resulted in 159 references

(see Figure 9: 'Language' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, results from NVivo).

Figure 9: 'Language' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, results from NVivo

The search using PDF has given 166 instances (see Figure 10: 'Language' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, word search in PDF).
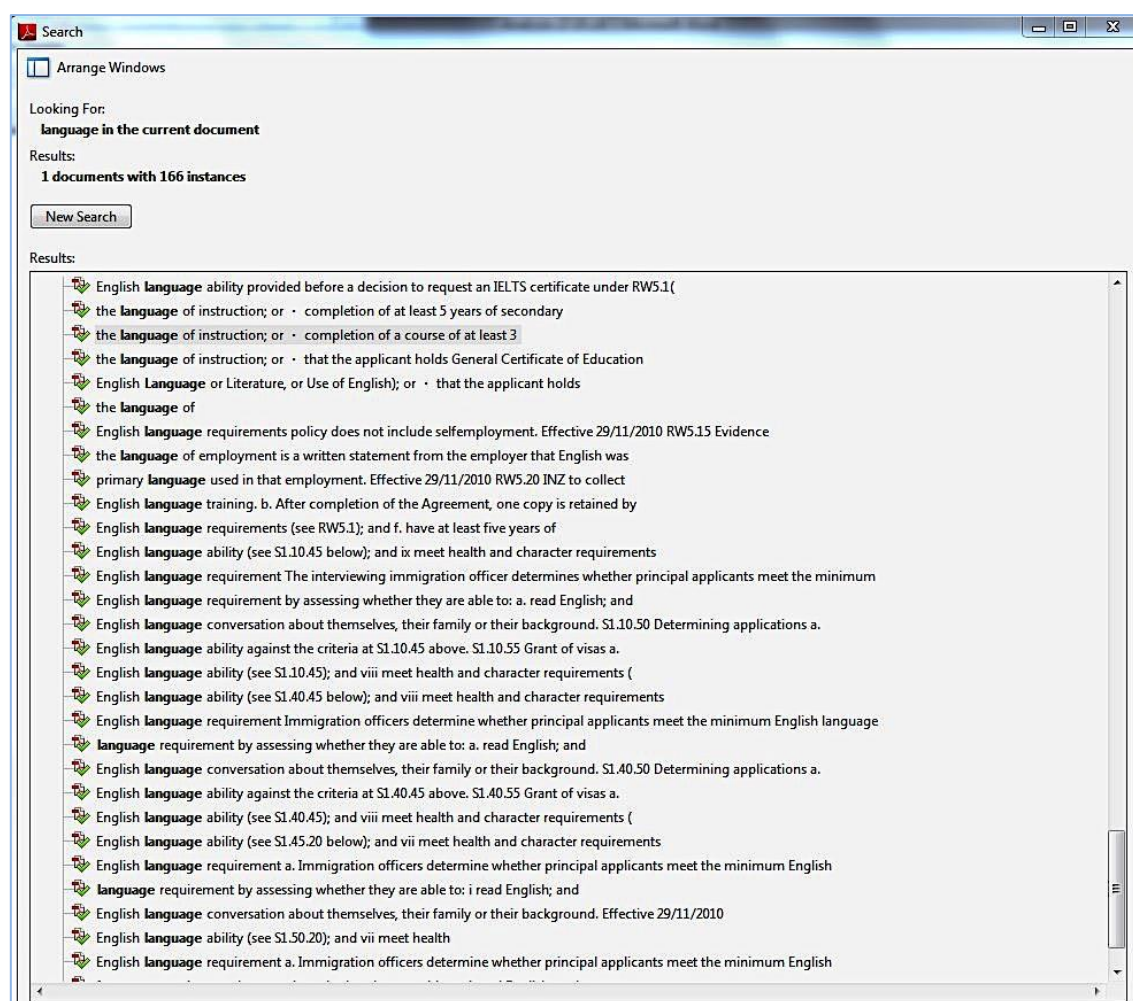
Figure 10: 'Language' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, word search in PDF

Despite the inaccuracy of NVivo's results, the frequency of the word 'English' in this document is larger than the use of 'language'[11]. This means that in the majority of instances Immigration New Zealand/MBIE use 'English' to refer to the English

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[11] 288 references vs 159 (as per NVivo)/166 (in PDF) accordingly

language instead of 'language'. The results of the manual check observing the use of 'language' not collocated with English or ESOL are consistent with NVivo's collocation analysis (see Figure 12: Collocations with 'language' in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*, based on Nvivo).

When 'language' is not collocated with 'English', Immigration New Zealand/MBIE refers to the following:

...and the supporting partner's first

...the applicant's family speak any

language

...whether the applicant speaks any

Both English and their own
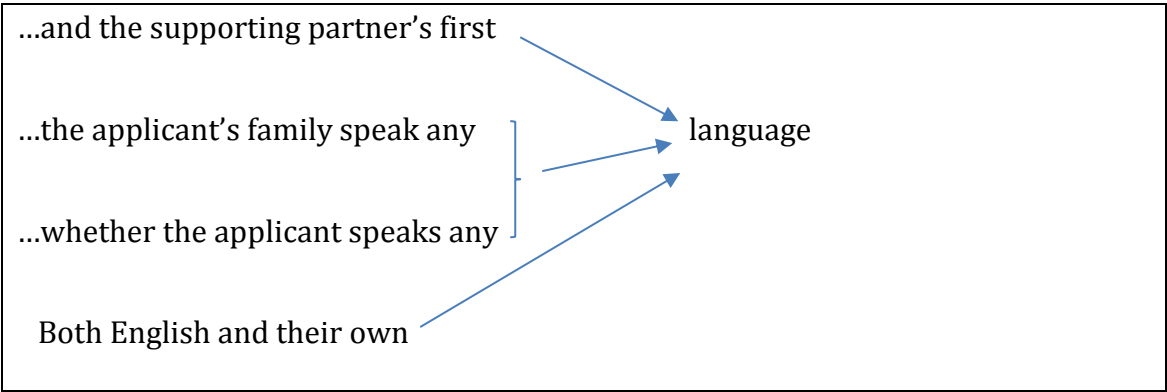
Based on these references, it is evident that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE recognises English as an additional language for many immigrants. Furthermore, the absences of implicit references to English suggest that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE does not take English for granted. Instead, they explicitly state that it is the knowledge of English that immigrants are required to have.
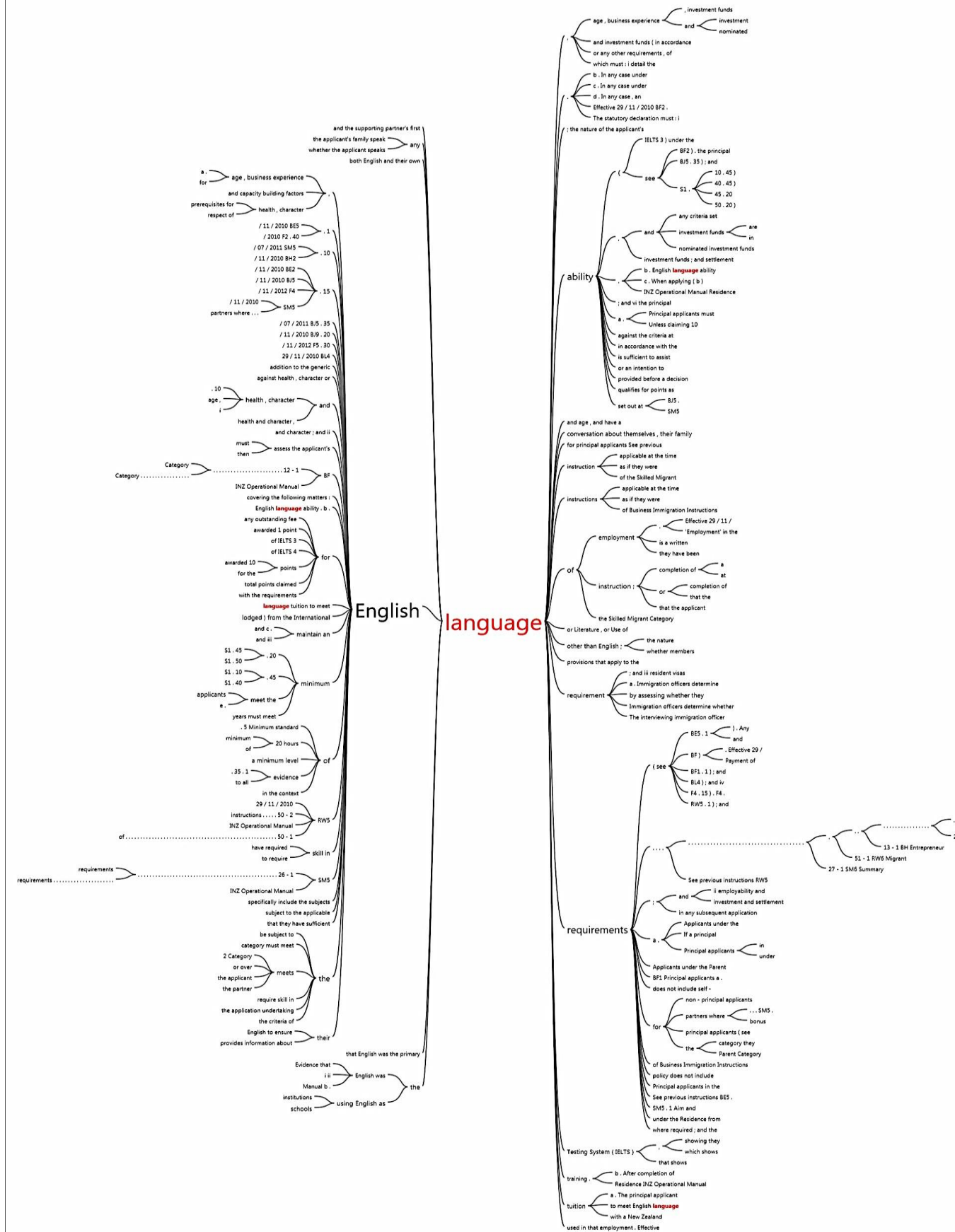
Figure 12: Collocations with 'language' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, based on Nvivo

The results of the word search for 'migrant', 'immigrant' and 'refugee' show that the immigration policy is quite explicit in its references throughout the document. While the word search showed zero results for 'immigrants' (see Figure 14: 'Immigrant' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank), *Operational Manual – Residence Section* contains multiple references to migrants in its policy provisions (see Figure 13: 'Migrant' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank).
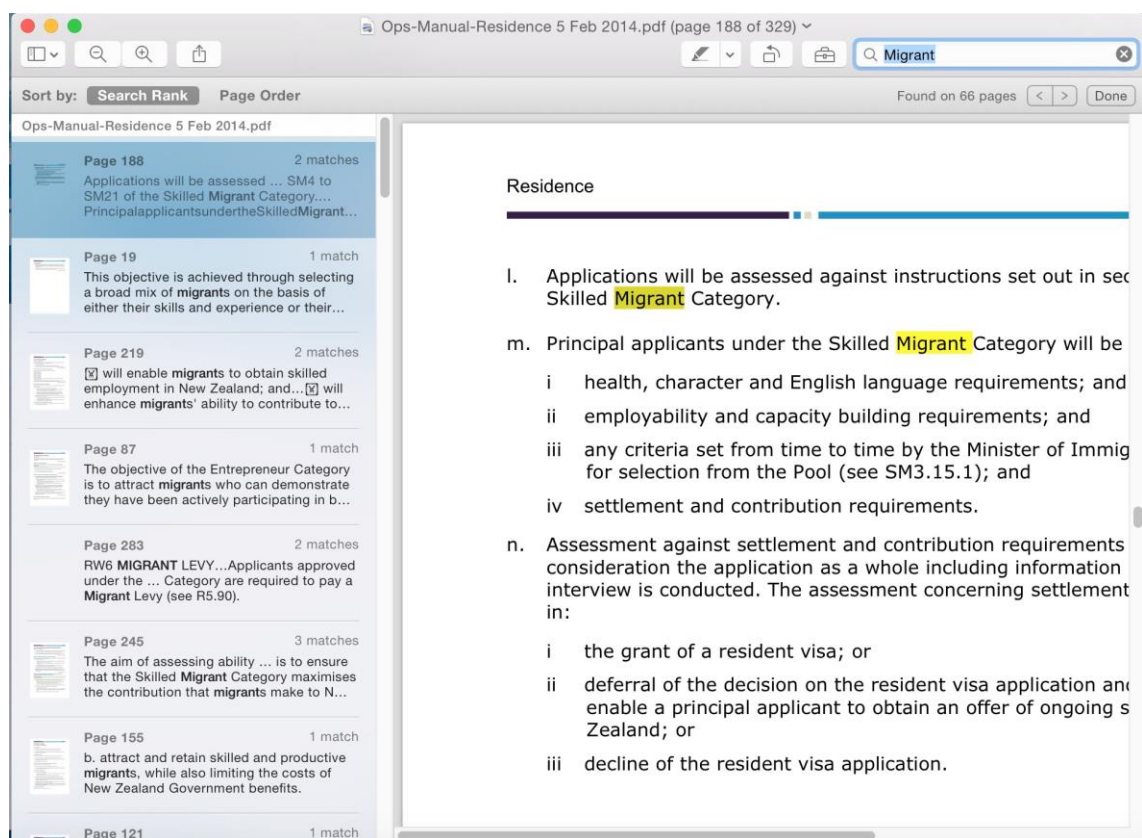
Figure 13: 'Migrant' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank
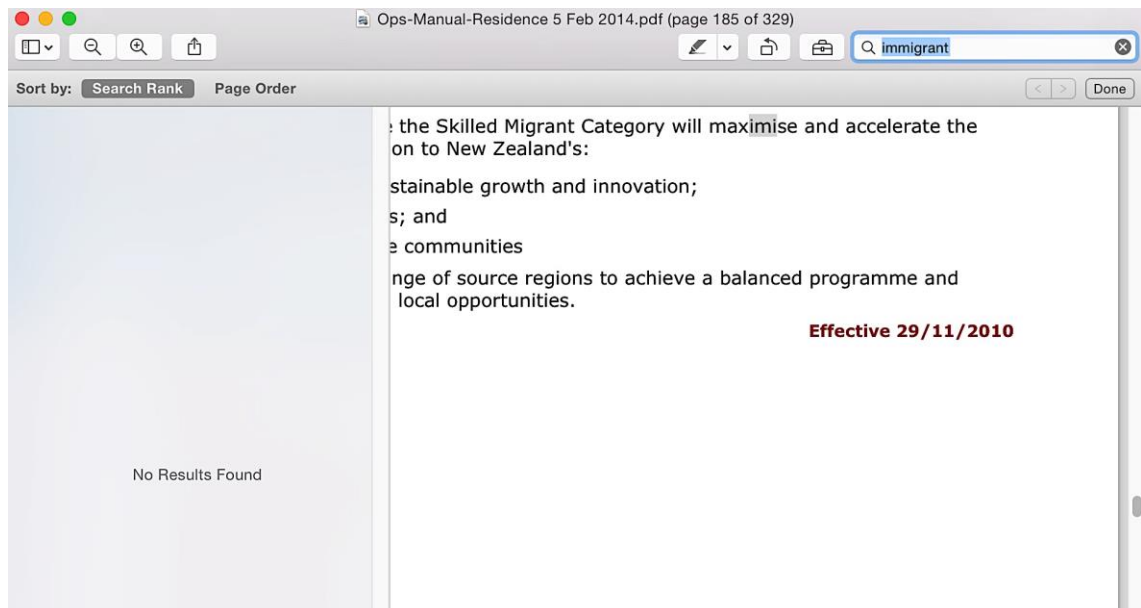
Figure 14: 'Immigrant' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank

The *Operational Manual – Residence Section* also includes a number of references to refugees (see Figure 15: 'Refugee' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank).
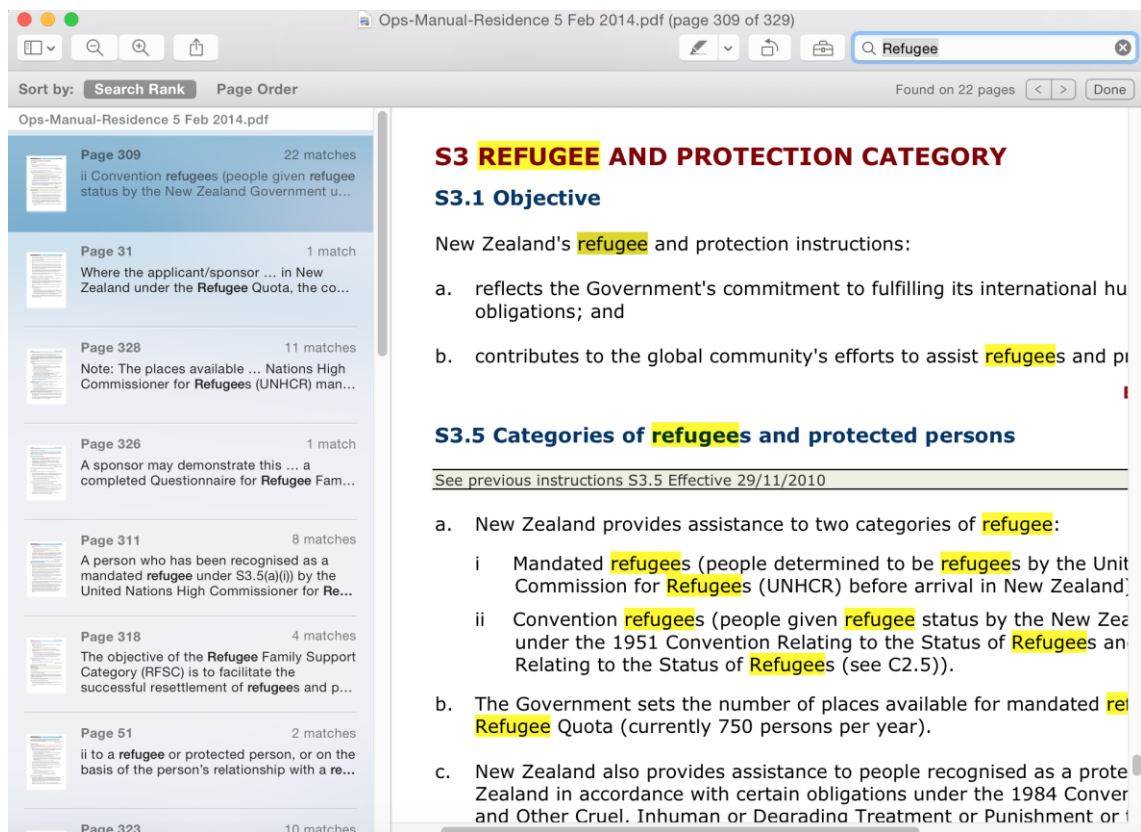
Figure 15: 'Refugee' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank

References to migrants and refugees in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* suggest that the policy is specific and explicit in its focus. As indicated in Figure 15: 'Refugee' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank, refugees are a special and separate category whose resettlement is regulated by the international humanitarian obligations that New Zealand fulfills.

5.2.1.2 Commitment to/evading 'truth'

In this subsection, the focus of investigation is the use of modality and hedges in parts of the document where it outlines English language requirements. This helps identify Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's attitudes and beliefs towards English and obligations that it imposes upon immigrants regarding the English language. The critical aspect of this inquiry is to highlight the institutional power of Immigration New Zealand/MBIE and its construction of an implicit languages policy.

Proficiency in English is required from all immigrant categories, except Investor Plus, Partnership, where a partner is not eligible to be included in an earlier application as a secondary applicant under SMC, General Skills or Business, Parent Retirement category, the Samoan Quota and Pacific Access (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c). Despite inconsistencies in the minimum standards of the English language (see Table 2: Minimum standards of English for all migrant categories), Immigration New Zealand/MBIE expresses a clear obligation for immigrants to meet those 'standards'. This obligation is achieved by means of deontic modality of the verbs 'must' or 'have to'. Principal applicants under the Investor category have the following requirements:

Principal applicants under the Long Term Business Category*[12], Investor, Entrepreneur*, Entrepreneur Plus*, Employees of Relocating Businesses*, General (Active) Investor*, Professional Investor*, and Investor 2* categories **must meet a minimum standard of English** to ensure their English language ability is sufficient to assist them to successfully settle in New Zealand (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 81).

The *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) uses the same utterance – must meet a minimum standard of English – when outlining English language requirements for the relevant categories and expressing an obligation to meet the 'standard'. In some cases, this utterance is replaced by its synonymous equivalent and is used interchangeably throughout the document. For example:

Principal applicants under the Skilled Migrant Category **are required to meet a minimum standard of English** to enable successful settlement and skilled employment in New Zealand.

Non-principal applicants (partners and dependent children aged 16 and older who are included in Skilled Migrant Category applications) **are required to meet a minimum standard of English** or to pre-purchase ESOL training, to enable successful settlement in New Zealand (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 211).

Apart from obligation, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE expresses certainty that the required 'minimum' ensures immigrants' ability to settle in New Zealand successfully. This belief is further enforced by an instruction to decline any applications if the minimum 'standard' is not met:

Applications under all Business Immigration categories **must be declined** if the principal applicant has not met the minimum standard of English (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 81).

The *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) contains the same instruction for principal applicants under the SMC:

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[12] Categories marked with an asterisk have either been disestablished or are for temporary residence.

Applications under the Skilled Migrant Category *__must be declined__* if the principal applicant has not met the minimum standard of English (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 211).

Parents of New Zealand permanent residents or citizens applying for permanent residence are also subject to this instruction:

Applications under the Parent Category *__must be declined__* if any applicant included in the application has not met the minimum standard of English or the requirements to pre-purchase English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) tuition (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 172).

Despite a clear obligation for the majority of applicants to meet the set standard[13], Immigration New Zealand/MBIE gives certain immigrant categories permission and a choice of either pre-purchasing ESOL tuition or demonstrating that a person can meet English language requirements by other means. The use of deontic modality indicates this in the instructions for all applicants who are not exempt from the English language requirements:

Partners and dependent children aged 16 years and over, who are included in applications under the Entrepreneur Residence Visa, Investor, Employees of Relocating Businesses, General (Active) Investor, Professional Investor, or the Investor 2 categories *__may either__*:

i show they meet the minimum standard of English (as specified at BF2); or

ii pre-purchase ESOL training (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 91).

Similarly, non-principal or secondary applicants under SMC are given an option to pre-purchasing ESOL tuition:

Instead of meeting the minimum standard of English, non-principal applicants **may** pre-purchase ESOL tuition (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 213).

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[13] Standards differ depending on a category. See Table 2: Minimum standards of English for all migrant categories

Apart from permission, the above two provisions also express a possibility and uncertainty. The verb 'may' indicates that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE expresses a possibility of meeting English language requirements by means of attending ESOL courses. It can also be inferred that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE are not entirely confident in IELTS being the only means of testing a person's English language ability or being evidence thereof. This inference is confirmed with the following provision:

> BF2.5 Circumstances that **may** indicate a person otherwise meets the minimum standard of English
>
> Circumstances that **may** indicate an applicant meets the minimum standard of English **may** include **but are not limited to**:
>
> - the country in which the applicant currently resides;
> - the country(ies) in which the applicant has previously resided;
> - the duration of residence in each country;
> - whether the applicant speaks any language other than English;
> - whether members of the applicant's family speak English;
> - whether members of the applicant's family speak any language other than English;
> - the nature of the applicant's current or previous employment (if any) and whether it required or **was likely** to have required skill in English language;
> - the nature of the applicant's qualifications (if any) and whether the obtaining of those qualifications **was likely** to have required skill in English language (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 92)

Here too, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE expresses a possibility of meeting the English language requirements by other means. In addition, this provision contains an adverbial phrase 'to be likely to' that indicates a probability of the applicants' qualifications and employment requiring English language skills. It can also be inferred that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE is not certain about the outlined circumstances and whether they are indeed indicative of sufficient English language knowledge. The presence of the hedge 'but are not limited to' implies that

Immigration New Zealand/MBIE admits that the list of 'circumstances' is incomplete and there might be other ways of demonstrating the minimum standard of English and/or meeting the requirements. It needs to be noted that the outlined circumstances are applicable to all categories that are subject to English language requirements, i.e. Investor; SMC; Residence from Work; Family; the Pacific Access and the Samoan Quota.

The study has earlier identified that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE gives its officers discretionary power to determine whether 1) the evidence of a person's knowledge of English is acceptable, 2) the immigrants are to provide an IELTS certificate in case the evidence is not satisfactory, and 3) assess the immigrants' level of English (see 3.2.2.4 Migrants from the South Pacific islands – the Samoan quota and Pacific Access streams) (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c). The immigration officer determins that evidence other than an IELTS certificate is acceptable based on the following provisions:

> [...] an immigration officer *may*, *on a case by case basis*, consider the following as evidence of the principal applicant meeting the minimum standard of English if:
>
> > i they provide evidence that their recognised qualification(s):
> >
> > - was gained as a result of a course or courses of study in which English was the only medium of instruction; and
> > - (if that qualification was gained in New Zealand) the qualification had a minimum completion time of at least two years and is at least a bachelor degree or it is a post-graduate qualification and the applicant has an undergraduate qualification that qualifies for points; or
> >
> > ii they have current skilled employment in New Zealand for a period of at least 12 months that qualifies for points (see SM7); or
> >
> > iii they provide other evidence which satisfies an immigration officer that, taking account of that evidence and all the circumstances of the

application, they are a competent user of English (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 211).

The deontic modality in this provision expresses permission that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE has given to its officers to make appropriate decisions regarding immigrants' English language proficiency. In addition, the verb 'may' indicates a possibility of considering a person's qualifications or employment as acceptable evidence, as expressed by the dynamic modality. The hedge 'on a case by case basis' indicates that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE weakens its commitment to consider this evidence and reserves the right for its officers not to accept it. This is confirmed by the following statement that also features the deontic and dynamic modalities and a hedge:

> *In any case*, an immigration officer *may* require an applicant to provide an IELTS certificate (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 211).

The statement suggests that immigration officers are allowed to request an IELTS certificate, it can be done in any case and there is a possibility that they will require it.

Notwithstanding the above provisions, immigration officers are required to consider all evidence of a person's English language ability. In case an IELTS certificate is requested, Immgration New Zealand/MBIE instructs officers to explain reasons for such a decision:

> *Note*: Full consideration *must* be given to all evidence of English language ability provided before a decision to request an IELTS certificate [...] is made. If an IELTS certificate is requested the reason(s) behind the decision *must* be clearly documented and conveyed to the applicant (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 211).

By means of the epistemic modality, this statement expresses a high degree of confidence that other evidence of English language ability should not be

overlooked. The statement can also be interpreted from the point of the deontic modality, which expresses a clear instruction to act and what the act should involve. The word 'note' can be considered as a hedge indicating Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's hesitation regarding its potential requests for an IELTS certificate. This hedge implies that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE is weakening its claim of an IELTS certificate being an appropriate evidence of a person's English language ability.

As noted earlier in this subsection and in Chapter 3, English language requirements for immigrants applying for permanent residence under the Pacific Access and Samoan Quota differ from other categories. While these immigrants are not immediately requested to provide an IELTS certificate, their English is tested at an interview conducted by an immigration officer. The policy regarding minimum English language requirement for these two categories states:

> Immigration officers determine whether principal applicants meet the minimum English language requirement by assessing whether they ***are able to***:
> a. read English; and
> b. understand and respond to questions in English; and
> c. maintain an English language conversation about themselves, their family or their background (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 322, 324).

The provision contains a dynamic modality that expresses the subject's internal capability. The second conditional clause where the modality appears suggests that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE adopts a simplified approach to assessing the English language ability of immigrants applying for residence under the Pacific Access category and the Samoan Quota. The elements of this assessment exclude the writing component. Furthermore, the provision does not explain what the

criteria are in testing a person's reading ability in English, what texts are given, the difficulty of those texts and what questions an immigration officer can ask.

As mentioned in Chapter 3 (see subsection 3.1.1.4 Migrants from the South Pacific islands – Samoan Quota and Pacific Access streams), one should question whether immigration officers are indeed qualified to conduct such assessments. Therefore a simplified approach to English language assessment adopted by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE, a potential lack of training among immigration officers and a vague explanation of what English language ability constitutes, contribute to the officers' subjectivity. This, in turn, supports a claim that immigration officers enjoy a discretionary power that they exercise in determining these immigrants' level of English.

Further to the types of evidence of immigrants' English language proficiency and the considerable power that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE has given to its officers, the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) outlines the instructions regarding pre-purchasing ESOL tuition. These instructions relate to the non-principal applicants[14], TEC and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE.

Most of the provisions in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) pertaining to ESOL tuition contain deontic modality that expresses obligation and commands:

> Non-principal applicants who pre-purchase ESOL tuition, instead of meeting the minimum standard of English, ***must*** pre-purchase ESOL tuition from the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 83, 163, 201, 279).

---

[14] See Table 2 in Chapter Three for the applicants who may be required to pre-purchase ESOL tuition as part of their application for permanent residence in New Zealand

Apart from an obligation to pre-purchase ESOL tuition, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE requires this tuition to be purchased from TEC. The following provision features both obligation and command:

> Before a resident visa is granted, applicants ***must*** pay any ESOL tuition charge due (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 83, 163, 201, 279).

Although it does not explicitly state who needs to ensure that the tuition is paid and the payment is done before the granting of residence, the above provision suggests that it is the duty of immigration officers. The obligation to pay a tuition fee is further emphasised by the clause "Failure to pre-purchase ESOL tuition", which contains an instruction to decline resident visa applications for Investors, SMC, Residence from Work and Family categories in case ESOL tuition is not purchased (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 85, 163, 202, 281).

The obligation and command expressed by deontic modality also appear in the provisions that relate to the applicants' agreement with TEC, a specified timeframe within which ESOL tuition is to be used, and the conditions for refunds of ESOL tuition:

> Each applicant who pre-purchases ESOL tuition ***must*** sign an agreement with TEC by which they agree, among other things, that they understand the rules for taking up ESOL tuition (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 83, 163, 201, 279).

Immigration New Zealand/MBIE has set a five-year period during which ESOL tuition is to be completed. Furthermore, the deontic modality expressed by the verb 'will (not)/(nor) will' indicates a lack of willingness of Immigration New Zealand/MBIE to consider refunds and make ESOL tuition available for those who do not take up tuition within five years. The verb 'will (not) / (nor) will' also

expresses an epistemic modality. It implies that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE is certain that refunds for unused ESOL tuition will not be given:

> If ESOL tuition is purchased the applicant ***must*** complete the tuition within 5 years from the date of payment. ESOL tuition ***will not be*** available without further payment, ***nor will*** refunds be given to applicants who do not take up ESOL tuition within the time limits [...] (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 85, 163, 202, 281).

The deontic and epistemic modalities that appear in the clauses on refunds of ESOL tuition demonstrate that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE has established a number of conditions that applicants have to meet to qualify for a refund. This clause also outlines the instructions for the immigration officers or 'business immigration specialists'[15] who handle refunds requests:

a. If ESOL tuition money is paid but the principal applicant and partner and dependent children do not take up residence, a refund ***may*** be granted upon request to INZ. The request ***must*** be made in writing.
b. Requests made more than 6 months after the expiry date of any unused resident visa **must** be declined.
c. Business immigration specialists/Immigration officers considering requests for refunds ***must*** be satisfied that principal applicant and partner and dependent children included in the application have not been granted entry permission to New Zealand as holders of resident visas.
d. The person who paid the fee ***will*** be refunded only the ESOL entitlement. INZ and TEC administration costs ***will not*** be refunded (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 85, 164, 203, 281).

It is evident that having established the above instructions, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE, as an institution, has considerable power in managing immigrants' ESOL tuition matters. The sub-clause (a), for example, implies that even if the applicants decide not to take up residency and submit a written request for a refund of ESOL tuition, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE does not express certainty that a refund will be issued. The verb 'may' also indicates permission that is

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[15] The *Operational Manual – Residence Section* refers to the immigration officers processing visa applications for business migrants as 'business immigration specialists'. This may be an indication that these officers are trained to handle the applications for this particular immigration category.

implicitly given to the immigration officers/'business immigration specialists' to consider such requests. According to the sub-clause (c), it can be inferred that the decision to approve refunds for unused ESOL tuition rests upon immigration officers/'business immigration specialists'. Immigration New Zealand/MBIE instructs them to ensure that any applicants claiming the refunds have not entered New Zealand holding residence permits. These provisions are consistent with an earlier observation that immigration officers enjoy a discretionary power that they exercise whilst making decisions regarding immigration matters, including English. The final sub-clause expresses Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's willingness to provide a refund except for the administration costs. It also gives the relevant applicants an assurance that the 'ESOL entitlement'[16] will be refunded.

Thus, the identified patterns of language use in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) by means of observing two linguistic strategies – taken for granted and commitment/evading 'truth' – are the following:

- The document acknowledges the English language and refers to it explicitly as the 'English language', 'English' or 'ESOL';
- Immigration New Zealand/MBIE recognises English as a second or additional language for many immigrants;
- Although not all immigrant categories are subject to the same criteria of English language proficiency or are required to demonstrate it, meeting English language requirements is compulsory and is considered to be one of the prerequisites for permanent residence;

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[16] ESOL entitlement is the tuition itself, the amount of money that can be spent on English language courses

- The analysis of modality has shown that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE is not certain that IELTS can be the only means of demonstrating a person's knowledge of English. For this reason, immigrants are permitted to provide other evidence that can satisfy the requirements, including pre-purchasing ESOL tuition or 'training' from TEC;

- The analysis also helped confirm that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE and its officers possess a considerable power that they exercise in determining how well immigrants have to speak English and what evidence they consider valid and sufficient.

5.2.2 Analysis of discourse practices

The analysis of discourse practices is grounded in Lemke's (1992) two principles of intertextuality that entail analysis of semantic and orientational relationships. First the sites where the relevant provisions can be found, will be located, followed by an intertextual analysis. The latter entails an explanation of the following key terms that comprise English language requirements, such as 'English speaking background', 'minimum required IELTS score', 'minimum standard of English', 'English language ability', 'competent user of English', as well as 'ESOL/English language training'. It also outlines how these terms are used in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) and what can be said about the attitude of the authors of this document and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE.

Schematically, the sites where the policy provisions regarding English language appear are presented in the diagram (see Figure 16: The distribution of English language policy in the immigration domain).

This diagram demonstrates that the policy is not part of the *Immigration Act 2009*. The implications of such an organisational structure are outlined and explained in section 5.2.3 Analysis of social practices. Apart from the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*, the policy is disseminated through the Immigration New Zealand website as well as the leaflets and forms: *English Language Information INZ 1060* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a), *Application for Residence Guide SMC INZ 1105* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014a), *Investor 2 Category Guide INZ 1164* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012c) and *Residence Guide INZ 1002* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014d). Electronic copies can be downloaded from the Immigration New Zealand website and hard copies can be obtained at all Immigration New Zealand/MBIE offices.

As noted in the textual analysis (see 5.2.1.1 Taken for grantedness) Immigration New Zealand/MBIE, is explicit in its references to English. It stresses the importance of immigrants' ability to use English in order for them to settle in New Zealand successfully. The policy regarding English language that emanates from this domain is tied to the following terms and provisions that relate to 'English-speaking background', 'minimum required IELTS score', 'English language ability', 'competent user of English', 'minimum standard of English', and 'ESOL tuition' and 'ESOL/English language training' . The primacy of these terms is also reflected in the analysis of collocations (see Figure 12: Collocations with 'language' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, based on Nvivo).

- ***'English-speaking background'***

The absence of a clear definition of this term and the type of evidence that a person can provide to claim this 'background' demonstrates one significant gap in the relevant policy provisions. The policy does not recognise that a person may be bi-

or multi-lingual which in certain cases may be difficult to prove. According to the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c), as well as *English Language Information leaflet: INZ 1060* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a), Immigration New Zealand/MBIE considers a person to have an 'English-speaking background' if they can provide a document that states the language of instruction in a person's primary or secondary school was English or a person obtained a three-year tertiary qualification that was taught in English. Other evidence of an 'English-speaking background' can be high-school qualifications that are obtained in the United Kingdom (General Certificate in Education [GCE]), SAR Hong Kong (Hong Kong Advanced Level Examinations), Singapore (GCE), South Africa (Matric and Senior Certificate), Malaysia (High School Certificate – STPM 920, or GCE) or New Zealand [Tertiary Entrance Qualification], as well as International Baccalaureate (IB) and Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English [CPE] (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a, 2014c). If a person's school education used a language of instruction other than English, but a person speaks English at home, they will not be able to prove having 'English-speaking background' according to the policy. Similarly, if a person lived in a country where the above qualifications were not available, they would either have to provide an IELTS certificate or other acceptable evidence depending on the immigrant category and the type of applicant a person is (primary or secondary).

In addition to the aforementioned documents, the policy does not provide a list of countries from which primary or secondary school qualifications will be deemed acceptable. This may indicate an assumption that readers will infer that the policy refers to all countries where English is a dominant language and is the primary language of communication.

Immigration Act (2009)

Operational Manual (2010c)

- Administration
- Temporary Entry
- Border Entry
- Transit Visas
- Compliance
- Refugees & Protection
- Residence*
- Appendices

Immigration New Zealand/MBIE website*: www.immigration.govt.nz

Immigration forms & leafleats:

English Language Information INZ 1060* (2012a)

Application for Residence Guide SMC* INZ 1105 (2014a)

Investor 2 Category Guide* INZ 1164 (2012b)

Residence Guide* INZ 1002 (2014c)

Items marked with an asterisk signify the sources where the policy regarding English for immigrants appears

Figure 16: The distribution of English language policy in the immigration domain

Further to an assumption about readers' ability to infer what is meant by 'English-speaking background', the policy has not explicitly recognised countries that have more than one official language[17]: for example, India, the Philippines, Kenya, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Lesotho, Malta, etc., and has not included qualifications from those countries in the list of acceptable evidence of 'English-speaking background'. It is not clear why South African applicants, who attended schools where the language of instruction was Afrikaans[18] and who achieved a minimum D pass in English, would be able to claim 'English-speaking background', but applicants from the above countries with schooling in a language other than English would not.

Hence, the absence of a clear definition of the term 'English-speaking backround' can be strategic, because it has 'allowed' Immigration New Zealand/MBIE to omit a justification of the types of evidence it requires and explain which countries the immigration policy considers to be 'English-speaking'.

- ***IELTS and 'minimum required IELTS score'***

A few assumptions and gaps in the policy relating to IELTS have been identified. Firstly, the policy treats both Academic and General assessment modules of IELTS as equal. Although the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* briefly explains what IELTS is, it does not distinguish between the General and Academic modules despite the fact that reading and writing components of the test differ in genre, context and complexity (IELTS, 2013). The current policy states:

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[17] Other than South Africa, Malaysia, Hong Kong and Singapore
[18] Now, in a post-Apartheid era, the language of minority

[A]pplicants must provide a certificate (no more than 2 years old at the time the application is lodged) from the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), which shows overall band scores [...] in the IELTS General *or* Academic Module (p. 90, 97, 215-217, 299).

According to IELTS (IELTS, 2013), the General Module is designed for people who are going attend a secondary school, obtain work experience or training in an English-speaking country. The IELTS website (IELTS, 2013) also states that those who are migrating to Canada, Australia or New Zealand must sit the General Module, whereas the Academic Module is for people who wish to study at a university for an undergraduate or postgraduate degree in an English-speaking country. Treating these two formats equally implies that a person who, for instance, has achieved an overall score of 6.5 in the General Module will be able to demonstrate the same result in the Academic IELTS, and vice versa. Therefore the policy needs to consider these differences.

Another critique relates to the 'minimum IELTS score(s)'[19] and envisaged outcomes. As mentioned earlier in subsection 5.2.1.2 Commitment to/evading truth, achieving a 'minimum score in IELTS' means meeting the required 'minimum standard of English'. The rationale behind this provision is to ensure that immigrants who speak good English will be able to settle successfully in New Zealand (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c). This includes the ability to participate in wider society, undertake study and/or employment. The minimum IELTS scores then are assumed to be an indication of sufficient knowledge of English. One could question whether the scores that the policy requires adequately represent the level of English that immigrants need to have in order to settle in New Zealand.

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[19] See Table 2: Minimum standards of English for all migrant categories in Chapter Three.

- **_'Minimum standard of English'_**

An explanation of this term appears in the _English Language Information leaflet INZ 1060_ (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a):

> This leaflet will give you information on how well you must speak and understand English for a residence class visa, or a long-term business visa. We call this the 'minimum standard of English' (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a, p. 1).

This term is vague because there are different 'standards' assigned to each immigrant category. The policy provides no justification for having different standards of English proficiency and no explanation is given on how 'minimum standard' is determined.

- **_'English language ability'_**

The _Operational Manual – Residence Section_ (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) does not explain what is meant by 'English language ability'. Instead, the document lists the types of evidence that a person can provide to prove that they satisfy English language requirements. One of the following can be provided: IELTS certificate with an acceptable score, evidence of 'English-speaking background', "the country in which the applicant currently resides, duration of residence in each country, the nature of the applicant's current or previous employment (if any) and whether it required or was likely to have required skill in English language, the nature of the applicant's qualifications (if any) and whether the obtaining of those qualifications was likely to have required skill in English language" (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, pp. 82-83).

These provisions contain no explanation of the premises that underpin the current policy regarding 'English language ability'. It is not clear to what extent a person is expected to know and be able to use English, what sort of 'skill in English language' and which countries of residence the policy refers to. A lack of clarity may also be the reason why the evidence that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE requires is not as robust as it should be.

- ***'Competent user of English'***

Similar to 'English language ability', *Operational Manual – Residence Section* has no definition of the term 'competent user of English', but rather lists the types of evidence that a person can use in order to claim they are a 'competent user of English'. The evidence of 'competence' is the same as for 'English language ability', as well as cases where "the applicant speaks any language other than English, whether members of the applicant's family speak English, and whether members of the applicant's family speak any language other than English" (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c, p. 143). It is not clear how a person's and their family's knowledge of other languages affects 'competence' in English. The policy around English language 'competence' would have been clearer if the document had explained reasons behind the types of evidence the policy requires and accepts, and contained a framework that would ensure consistency of assessments of people's 'competence'.

- ***'ESOL tuition/training/entitlement'***

If an immigrant cannot meet English language requirements, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE gives an option of pre-purchasing 'ESOL tuition' or 'ESOL training'.

In the text, ESOL most commonly collocates with 'tuition', 'entitlement' and 'training' (see Figure 8: 'ESOL' in the *Operational Manual - Residence Section*, word search in PDF). The difference between 'tuition' and 'entitlement' is explained in parts of the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c)*,* where it states how refunds are processed, as well as the *English Language Information leaflet INZ 1060* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a). Based on this explanation, ESOL 'tuition' comprises of Immigration New Zealand/MBIE and TEC administration charges and the actual amount that can be spent on ESOL courses. The latter is referred to as an 'entitlement'.

Interestingly, *the Operational Manual – Residence Section* and *English Language Information leaflet INZ 1060* do not state explicitly the amount of administration charges, which are not a fixed rate. These charges work out to be as follows:

Table 4: The breakdown of costs associated with 'ESOL tuition'*

Overall IELTS band score	Charge to be paid	ESOL entitlement	MBIE and TEC administration costs, NZ$**	MBIE and TEC administration costs, %**
4.5, but less than 5.0	NZ$ 1,735	NZ$ 1,531.82	NZ$ 203.18	11.71%
4 or more, but less than 4.5	NZ$ 3,420	NZ$ 3,063.64	NZ$ 356.36	10.42%
3.5 or more, but less than 4	NZ$ 5,110	NZ$ 4,600.00	NZ$ 510.00	9.98%
Less than 3.5 or no IELTS submitted	NZ$ 6,795	NZ$ 6,131.82	NZ$ 663.18	9.76%

Adapted from Operational Manual – Residence Section (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c)

** These amounts are not given and have been calculated manually by the thesis' author

It is evident that the administration cost varies depending on the overall IELTS band score. Although there is no significant difference in the percentage of the administration costs, the value increases exponentially as the IELTS score decreases. So for an immigrant whose IELTS score is less than 3.5, the administration charge is significantly higher than for someone with a 4.5 score. One of the possible reasons for not stating the amount of the administration charges is to avoid giving justifications for augmented costs. It is unknown whether handling applications with an IELTS score less than 3.5 indeed requires more administrative resources and incurs higher costs.

The same parts of the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* that contain provisions requiring immigrants to pre-purchase ESOL tuition, refer to ESOL/English language courses as 'training'. The word choice is indicative of Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's attitude to English and English language education. According to Collins English Thesaurus (Collins Dictionary, 2014) and

Macmillan Dictionary (Macmillan Dictionary, 2014), training is a process that focuses on the development of skills required for a certain job or profession. Hence, English is treated as a skill that immigrants will need for employment purposes. This view is somewhat limited as it does not reflect other aspects of learning a language, and particularly English for social and cultural benefits, and ensuring access to resources in society like the health, justice and educational systems. The focus on employment makes ESOL training suitable and appropriate for the applicants under SMC and investor categories. However immigrants applying for permanent residence under other categories may not find it appropriate to or necessary for their needs.

Referring to English language education as 'training' also implies that English can be taught in a relatively short period of time and at a fast pace. As noted earlier in Chapter 3 and also subsection 5.2.1.2 of this Chapter, an applicant has to use their prepaid ESOL tuition within five years. Within this period, a person is expected to attain proficiency in English that would be sufficient for gaining employment and being able to work in the English-speaking environment. One can question whether all learners will be able to achieve the desired level of English within five years and if all people are capable of learning a language at a fast pace considering the time limit that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE imposed.

Thus, the analysis of discourse practices has demonstrated the following:

- The policy regarding English in the domain of immigration is concentrated in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*, as well as forms and leaflets that are distributed by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE, as well as Immigration New Zealand's website.

- English language requirements are comprised of the key terms, 'English-speaking background', 'minimum required IELTS score', 'minimum standard of English', 'English language ability', 'competent user of English' and 'ESOL/English language training'. The analysis has identified a number of assumptions and vagueness around those terms that in this thesis are considered as gaps in the policy.

- A common feature of the way the above terms are used in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* and other texts, is the absence of concise definitions that would help avoid ambiguity of meaning when interpreting the policy.

The following subsection draws on the social effects of these provisions and implications of policy distribution.

5.2.3 Analysis of social practices

This subsection focuses on the implications of the policy distribution and its social effects. The critical aspect of this investigation concerns power possessed by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE and its officers.

Figure 16: The distribution of English language policy in the immigration domain and Chapter 4 have noted that provisions regarding English are not part of the Immigration Act (2009). According to Woodside-Jiron (2011) and Fairclough (2003), social practices can be seen as ways to control certain 'structural possibilities' (Woodside-Jiron, 2011, p. 169). In our case, exclusion of English language policy from the Immigration Act (2009) seems to have given Immigration New Zealand/MBIE power to develop and adopt certain provisions by bypassing parliamentary approval. This means that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE can

make decisions regarding English language requirements unilaterally. From a CDA perspective, there are two implications. The first one is that it allows Immigration New Zealand/MBIE to avoid and minimise any resistance to the policies at a higher political level, particularly if there is no consensus among the leading political parties. The second implication is that such a convention naturalises power relations between Immigration New Zealand/MBIE and the Government that has conceded some of its power to MBIE.

An important issue that arises from the way Immigration New Zealand/MBIE exercises its power is control and access to policy. All major changes to policy are announced in the *Latest News* section of the Immigration New Zealand website, whereas the notifications about updates in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* are published separately in the *Amendments Circulars* (Immigration New Zealand, n.d.). An ordinary reader who may not be aware of this practice and how the website is organised, will not be able to trace all changes that occur over time and be informed about any updates that could affect immigrants' residence application outcome. Furthermore, previous versions of the *Operational Manual* are not available on the Immigration New Zealand website, which makes the task of examining policy changes more challenging.

The distribution of policy and the way all upcoming changes to the immigration policy are communicated, creates barriers to accessing information for a person who is not familiar with existing practices, including prospective immigrants. As a result, immigrants who are going to apply for permanent residence may require professional services. People can refer to immigration

lawyers or licensed advisers[20] who could explain the policy and help with the application process at a cost. The drawback is these services can be quite expensive[21] and not everyone can afford professional advice.

Another important issue is potentially subjective and inconsistent assessment of evidence of immigrants' English language proficiency. As noted in the analysis of modality and hedging (see subsection 5.2.1.2 Commitment to/evading 'truth'), immigration officers use their discretion to determine whether the documents that immigrants provide as part of their permanent residence applications, particularly those relating to English language, are valid and sufficient. The *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) contains no clear guidelines on how Immigration New Zealand/MBIE ensures consistency of its officers' judgements. The absence of checks and balances means that some cases are possibly treated with more rigor than others depending on various factors, i.e. the immigration officer's professional experience and any personal prejudice. This, in turn, may result in different outcomes and delays in the application process.

Subjective and inconsistent assessments of English proficiency are also a concern in the English language policy for Pacific Access Category and the Samoan Quota applicants. These immigrants' level of English is assessed by immigration officers at interviews. As noted in Chapter 3, immigration officers are not required to have language assessment skills or relevant academic qualifications. The *Operational Manual – Residence Section* does not provide any details of how

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[20] In New Zealand, immigration advisory services are regulated by the Immigration Advisers Authority [IAA] (Immigration Advisers Authority New Zealand, n.d.)

[21] Based on one immigration consultancy (fully licensed by IAA New Zealand), the fee for assistance with SMC, Family and Work to Residence applications is $3,000 (Eagle Migration Services, n.d.).

English language assessments ought to be conducted, i.e. how long the interviews should last, whether all interviews are the same in duration and the complexity of questions in terms of lexical and grammatical features that immigration officers ask. The absences of these aspects in the provisions that outline English language requirements increase subjectivity, inaccuracy and inconsistency of assessments.

Chapter 3 and the analyses of text and discourse practices have demonstrated a close inter-agency cooperation between Immigration New Zealand/MBIE and TEC on the issue of 'ESOL/English training'. As noted earlier, 'pre-purchase of ESOL tuition' is one of the conditions upon which Immigration New Zealand/MBIE approves residence applications. The ESOL tuition and related-administration costs are to be paid to Immigration New Zealand/MBIE, who collects these charges on behalf of TEC.

Requiring immigrants to pay for ESOL tuition before their residence status is granted indicates that immigrants are accountable for their English language education. Behind this provision may be an intention to limit immigrants' access to government-funded ESOL courses and avoid additional public expenditure, which is a tactic facilitated by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE and TEC.

Thus, the analysis of social practices has demonstrated that the exclusion of English language provisions from the *Immigration Act* 2009 significantly increases the institutional power of Immigration New Zealand/MBIE. It can adopt and introduce changes to existing policy unilaterally avoiding potential resistance from other stakeholders. The policy relating to English appears in the documents released by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE, namely the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c), as well as duplicated in the

English Language Information leaflet INZ 1060 (Immigration New Zealand, 2012a), the *Investor 2 Category Guide INZ 1164* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012b), the *Application for Residence Guide SMC INZ 1105* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014a), the *Residence Guide INZ 1002* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014d) and Immigration New Zealand website. Considerable power is given to the immigration officers who, apart from processing applications for permanent residence, also determine immigrants' level of English. It has been noted that the assessments of immigrants' English can be inconsistent and subjective due to a lack of clarity of the key terms that constitute English language requirements and absence of appropriate training among immigration officers. And finally, the analysis highlighted the issue of responsibility for ESOL education and ways the current policy restricts immigrants' access to publicly funded ESOL provision.

5.3 TES 2010-2015

As noted in Chapters Three and Four, the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) is a top-level document that is released by the TEC. It sets a strategy for all post-school education. English language education for adults is formally under the auspices of TEC.

5.3.1 Textual analysis

5.3.1.1 Taken for grantedness

The focus of investigation is assumptions and meanings that are presented as given in relation to English (RQ1), as well as immigrants and refugees (RQ3) in *TES 2010-2015.* The policy regarding English is contained in the Language, Literacy and Numeracy (henceforth LLN) provisions. This subsection examines how 'language' and 'literacy' are addressed and highlights the following four issues:

- It is not clear why references to English are omitted in the tertiary education policy;

- It appears that 'language' refers to English language in the policy;

- It is not clear 'literacy' in what language the policy refers to. In the *TES 2010-2015* 'literacy' subsumes 'language';

- Immigrants and refugees received no explicit recognition in the document.

The *TES 2010-2015* consistently omits the words 'English' and 'ESOL' when referring to 'language' and 'literacy'. The word search for 'English' by means of NVivo's Query Wizard and manual PDF check has given zero results (see below Figure 17: 'English' in the *TES 2010-2015*, results from NVivo and Figure 18: 'English' in the *TES 2010-2015*, word search in PDF).
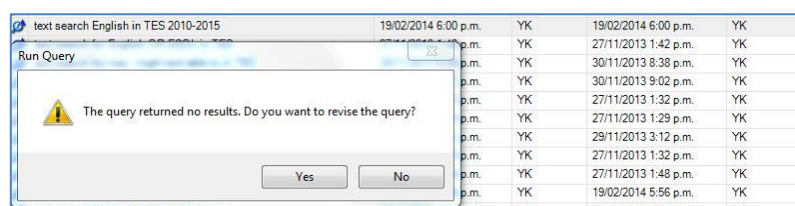
Figure 17: 'English' in the *TES 2010-2015*, results from NVivo
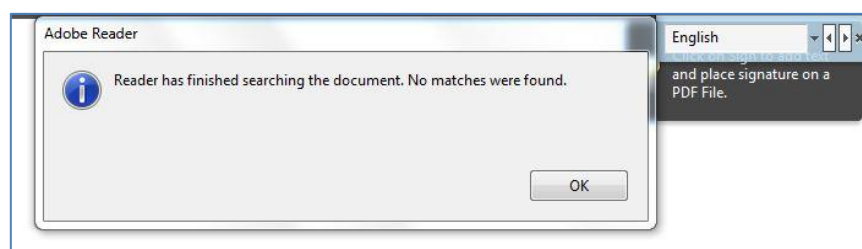
Figure 18: 'English' in the *TES 2010-2015*, word search in PDF

Similarly, there are no references to ESOL in the *TES 2010-2015* (see below Figure 19: 'ESOL' in the *TES 2010-2015*, results from NVivo and Figure 20: 'ESOL' in the *TES 2010-2015*, word search in PDF).
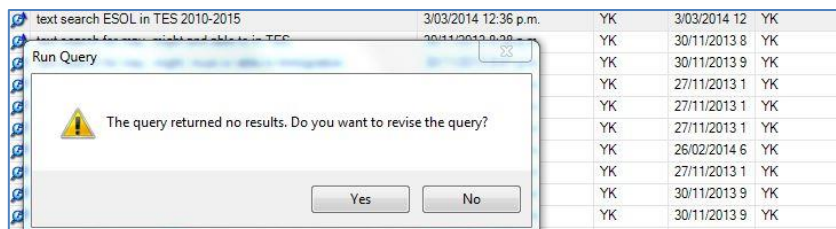
Figure 19: 'ESOL' in the *TES 2010-2015*, results from NVivo
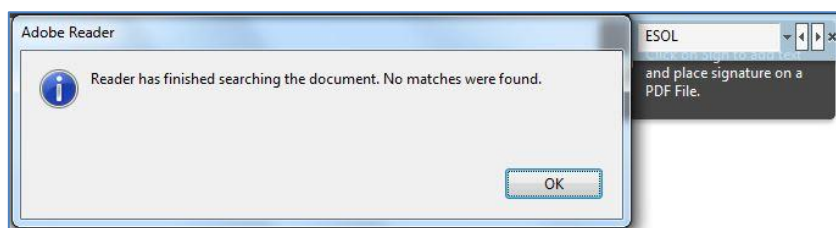
Figure 20: 'ESOL' in the *TES 2010-2015*, word search in PDF

The word search for 'language' using NVivo has resulted in 12 references. The word search in PDF resulted in 18 references. The details from NVivo are below (see Figure 21: 'Language in the TES 2010-2015, results from NVivo).

<u><Internals\\TES\\TES 2010-2015></u> - § 12 references coded [0.09% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.01% Coverage

to maintain and develop Māori **language** and culture to support Mäori

Reference 2 - 0.01% Coverage

that acknowledging and advancing Māori **language**, culture and identity is important

Reference 3 - 0.01% Coverage

do not improve their literacy, **language** and numeracy skills.

Reference 4 - 0.01% Coverage

undertake tertiary education.
IMPROVE LITERACY, **LANGUAGE**, AND NUMERACY AND SKILLS OUTCOMES

Reference 5 - 0.01% Coverage

school qualifications, or with literacy, **language** and numeracy needs, the chance

Reference 6 - 0.01% Coverage

the education system. Improving literacy, **language** and numeracy skills is a

Reference 7 - 0.01% Coverage

a key role in literacy, **language** and numeracy learning, in particular

Reference 8 - 0.01% Coverage

benefits to employers. Including literacy, **language** and numeracy education in industry

Reference 9 - 0.01% Coverage

need to improve their literacy, **language** and numeracy skills should be

Reference 10 - 0.01% Coverage

tertiary education
continue to work with providers and ITOs to embed literacy, **language** and numeracy in levels
one to three qualifications

Reference 11 - 0.01% Coverage

more people participating in qualifications that improve their literacy, **language** and numeracy
skills.

Reference 12 - 0.01% Coverage

students in levels one to three qualifications improving their literacy, **language** and numeracy
skills

Figure 21: 'Language' in the *TES 2010-2015,* results from NVivo

The crosscheck using a word search in PDF identified eighteen references and thus helped eliminate overlooking the relevant data. The results from a PDF search are the following (see below Figure 22: 'Language' in the *TES 2010-2015,* word search in PDF).
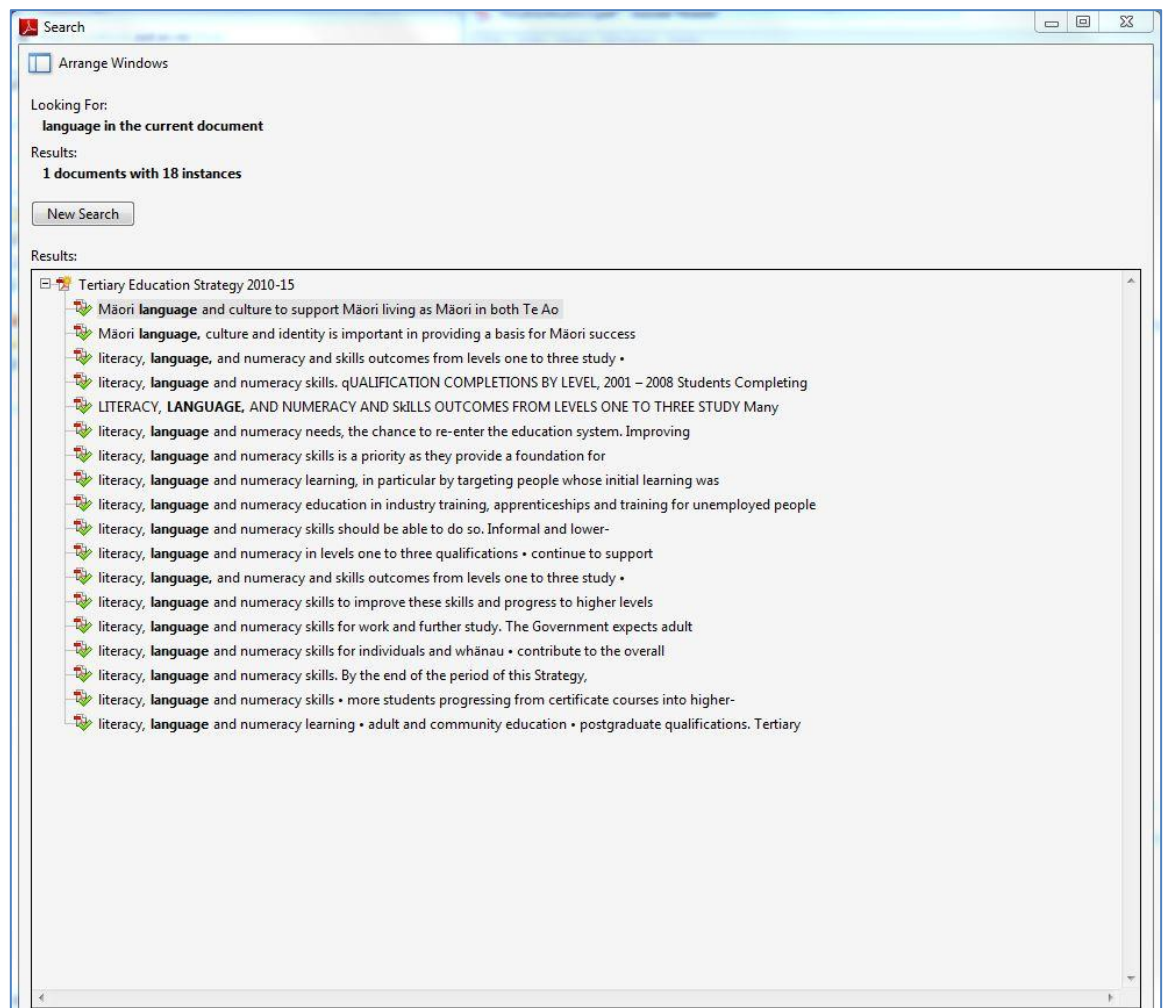
Figure 22: 'Language' in the _TES 2010-2015_, word search in PDF

Two out of the above references relate to te reo Māori, one of the official languages in New Zealand. On the remaining sixteen occasions, the document does not specify which language/s it refers to. Such omissions can be interpreted as a gap in the tertiary education policy. Except for the two instances where the text explicitly refers to te reo Māori, the Strategy does not state which languages the hypernyms 'language' and 'literacy' refer to.

One assumes, however, the Strategy refers to English in the sixteen instances of 'language'. This lack of specificity, according to CDA, is ideological. English is presented as the 'taken for granted' language, the given, or 'norm'. Readers are expected to make inferences based on a shared understanding. This

expectation and attitude suggest that the key New Zealand agencies responsible for the education of adult migrants, many of whom speak languages other than English, take little account of languages other than English in their policy and planning. Moreover their expectation is that others will not be expecting references to language other than English either.

The word search for 'literary' using NVivo resulted in 13 references (see below Figure: 23 References to 'literacy' in the *TES 2010-2015*).

<Internals\\TES\\TES 2010-2015> - § 13 references coded [0.10% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.01% Coverage

which is focused on improving **literacy** and numeracy, youth achievement, and

Reference 2 - 0.01% Coverage

adults wanting to improve their **literacy** and numeracy skills.
The tertiary

Reference 3 - 0.01% Coverage

or do not improve their **literacy**, language and numeracy skills.
QUALIFICATION

Reference 4 - 0.01% Coverage

to undertake tertiary education.
IMPROVE **LITERACY**, LANGUAGE, AND NUMERACY AND SKILLS

Reference 5 - 0.01% Coverage

low school qualifications, or with **literacy**, language and numeracy needs, the

Reference 6 - 0.01% Coverage

enter the education system. Improving **literacy**, language and numeracy skills is

Reference 7 - 0.01% Coverage

play a key role in **literacy**, language and numeracy learning, in

Reference 8 - 0.01% Coverage

Figure 23: References to 'literacy' in the *TES 2010-2015*

The crosscheck using the word search in PDF has resulted in twenty references to literacy and thus prevented the data from being overlooked (see Figure 24: 'Literacy' in the *TES 2010-2015*, word search in PDF).
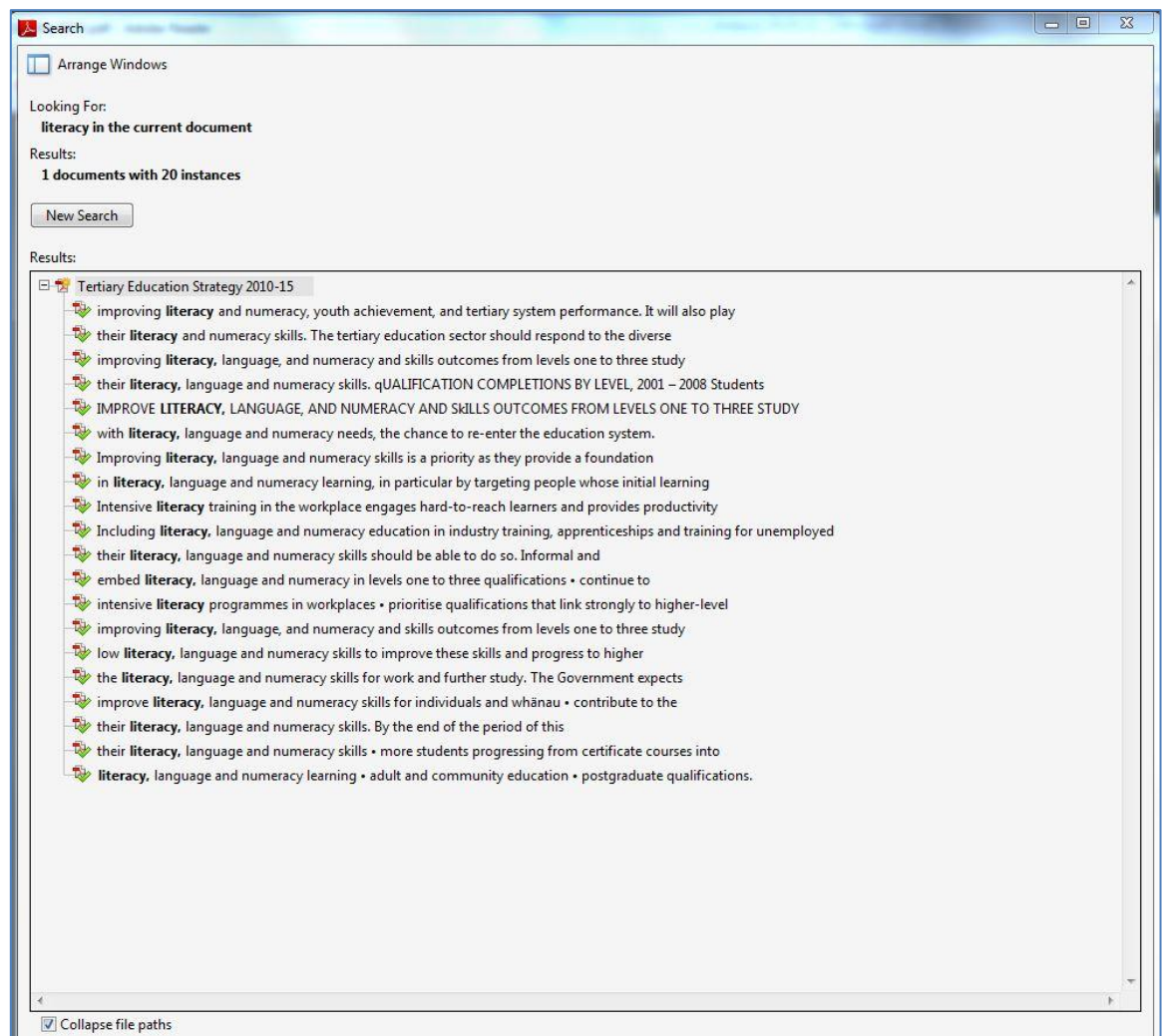
The results demonstrate that none of those twenty references collocate with English or any other language. This omission is crucial as the term 'literacy' becomes open to various interpretations. According to the *TES 2010-2015*, 'literacy' may mean 'English literacy'. 'Literacy' can also be interpreted as 'literacy in te reo Māori', 'literacy in NZSL' or literacy in any other language that New Zealanders can speak.

As a CDA framework suggests, omissions entail assumptions that underly a text. The key assumption here is that literacy does not need to be defined in the *TES 2010-2015*. A reader is expected to infer and understand what is meant by

'literacy'. Similar to the assumption about 'language', this attitude can and should be challenged. Given the linguistic diversity of contemporary New Zealand, people are literate in many languages other than English. In particular, this is the case with immigrants and refugees. It is then worth asking whether New Zealand tertiary education policy recognises the linguistic diversity of the country and if it has relevant policy provisions to accommodate various learning needs.

A closer examination of the above twenty references has demonstrated that that tertiary education policy equates 'literacy' with (English) 'language' or 'literacy' subsumes 'language'. Although the majority of the references to 'literacy' – sixteen out of twenty – appear together with language and numeracy forming a distinct collocation 'literacy, language and numeracy' (LLN), 'language' was not mentioned in the crucial part of the *TES 2010-2015*, which was identified by Nvivo and word search in PDF. In the Introduction, the *TES 2010-2015* states:

> The Government has identified six main structural policy drivers that will improve our economic performance and support more sustainable growth in future. These are improving the regulatory environment for business, lifting the performance of the public sector, supporting innovation and business, ensuring New Zealand has the skills it needs, improving infrastructure and making the tax system as fair and efficient as possible. The tertiary system will play a key role in the skills driver, which is focused on improving **literacy and numeracy**, youth achievement, and tertiary system performance. It will also play an important part in supporting the evolution and growth of industries through the innovation and business support driver (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 3).

The omission of 'language' means that it is not part of the skills driver and hence the knowledge of 'language', presumably English, is not considered integral to economic performance and sustainable growth.

The above finding is consistent with the omission in Reference 2 of the Figures 7 and 8, which is part of the Vision for Tertiary Education section of the *TES 2010-2015*. According to this section, the tertiary education system is expected to provide "New Zealanders of all backgrounds with opportunities to gain world-class skills and knowledge". Below is an explanation of what it involves:

> The broad nature of New Zealand's tertiary education system reflects the wide range of learning needs of New Zealanders. Demand for tertiary education comes from young people seeking to build on the foundation they have formed at school, workers seeking additional skills to advance or change their career, and adults wanting to improve their **literacy and numeracy** skills.
>
> The tertiary education sector should respond to diverse needs of all the groups it serves. In some cases, this will mean providing targeted services to create an inclusive environment for a diverse student body that include, for example, students with disabilities. Groups of students with low completion rates, such as Pasifika, are likely to require tailored support to ensure success in tertiary education (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 6).

The omission of 'language' in this section implies that 'language' is assumed to be part of 'literacy', 'additional skills' or 'the wide range of learning needs'. However there is no explicit recognition of the demand for [English] language education to reflect a 'wide range of learning needs' and any indication whether migrants are part of 'a diverse student body'.

Other parts of the TES 2010-2015 that exclude 'language' provisions are 'intensive literacy in the workplace'. Reference 8 in Figure 23: References to 'literacy' in the *TES 2010-2015*, and references 9 and 13 from the top in Figure 24: 'Literacy' in the *TES 2010-2015*, word search in PDF do not collocate with either language or numeracy. They relate to intensive literacy programs or training in the workplace that the Government proposes to support. The Strategy does not

explain what intensive literacy in the workplace entails and how the educational needs of migrant workers, for whom English is L2, will be met. Specifically, the *TES 2010-2015* does not state whether [English] language/ESOL education is part of literacy in the workplace programs/training and whether migrant workers who need and want to improve their English can benefit from those programs and trainings.

TES 2010-2015 has zero references to migrants, immigrants and reguees (see below Figure 25: 'Immigrant' in the TES 2010-2015 from Adobe Reader for OSX, Figure 26: 'Migrant' in the TES 2010-2015 from Adobe Reader for OSX, and Figure 27: 'Refugee' in the TES 2010-2015 from Adobe Reader for OSX). The absence of explicit references to immigrants and refugee suggest that these people are either excluded from the Strategy or that the policy is purposefully generic and therefore immigrants and refugees do not have to be explicitly recognised.

Figure 25: 'Immigrant' in the TES 2010-2015 from Adobe Reader for OSX

Figure 26: 'Migrant' in the TES 2010-2015 from Adobe Reader for OSX

Figure 27: 'Refugee' in the TES 2010-2015 from Adobe Reader for OSX

5.3.1.2 Commitment to/evading 'truth'

Following examination of the omissions of 'English' and 'English literacy' in the text, this subsection discusses the use of modality and hedging in the parts of the document on English language and English literacy. This is aimed at addressing attitudes to English and English language education (RQ2) in the *TES 2010-2015*. The critical element in this investigation concerns power and authority that, depending on the desired outcome, is strategically concealed or made explicit by the Government and its agency TEC.

Adobe Reader for OSX has identified the largest concentration of references to 'language' and 'literacy'. In the *TES 2010-2015*, it appears in the Priorities section, particularly in the subsection that explains the importance of improving LLN, as well as skills at levels one to three (Figure 28: 'Language' in Adobe Reader

for OSX, results sorted by search rank and Figure 29: 'Literacy' in Adobe Reader for

OSX, results sorted by search rank).

Figure 28: 'Language' in Adobe Reader for OSX, results sorted by search rank

In the subsection on the importance of improving LLN, as well as skills at levels one to three, the Government and TEC express a high degree of certainty regarding benefits. Those benefits are linked to the two main desired outcomes – employment and ability to pursue a higher level of tertiary study. In addition, the rationale behind LLN training is two-fold. For learners, it is an opportunity to gain trades and vocational qualifications, find employment and up-skill themselves. For employers, staff that possess 'literacy, language and numeracy' skills are more productive. However, the use of hedges in the first paragraph indicates avoidance of providing crucial details regarding the qualifications:

> ***Many*** level three certificates are essential qualification for trades and vocations, and offer the people in the workforce the opportunity to upskill. Level one and two certificates offer people with ***low*** school qualification, or with literacy, language and numeracy needs, the chance to re-enter the education system (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 13).

It is not clear which level three certificates are essential, what institutions offer them and what evidence the Government and TEC have to support this claim. Similarly, there is a lack of directness in explaining who the target group of learners are for the levels one and two certificates. 'People with low school qualifications' may mean those who did not finish school, those who only had a few years of schooling and interrupted education, as well as those whose pass grades were marginal and who need extra support to continue their education.

Apart from hedges, the presence of modality is also indicative of commitment to what is done and various degrees of certainty, probability, possibility and judgement (Machin & Mayr, 2012). As explained in the Methodology chapter (see 4.3.1. Application of CDA in research), modality is expressed by means of modal verbs, modal adjectives and adverbial equivalents. The Priorities section of the *TES 2010-2015* primarily uses modal verbs with the exception of a semi-modal verb 'need'. The analysis of modality and its categories, epistemic, deontic and dynamic, suggests the choice of verbs is unlikely to be random and this, in turn, has direct implications on meaning. Furthermore, there appears to be a relationship between the degree of certainty/possibility/ judgement and concealment of the agent (either the Government or TEC). The more certain and committed the Government is in its claims and judgements, the less it will attempt to conceal its agency. For example,

> ***The Government*** wants students to do well and to achieve the best qualifications they can. ***We[22]*** are committed to providing student support to assist students financially while they study, and to improving the information that students receive to allow them to make good decisions about what and where to study (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 20).

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[22] 'We' means either TEC or Government, or both.

The aspects of the policy that are affected by modality are the ACE sector, the effectiveness of tertiary study, the students' ability to improve their 'literacy, language and numeracy skills' and the Government and TEC's role.

The ACE sector is mentioned in relation to providing 'informal education' and its contribution:

> Informal education provided by the adult and community education sector *can* play a key role in literacy, language and numeracy learning, in particular by targeting people whose initial learning was not successful (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 13).

The verb 'can' in the above sentence expresses epistemic, dynamic and deontic modalities. Its epistemic use indicates that the Government is fairly certain about the possibility of ACE's contribution. However it is not certain and confident enough in making this claim, as suggested by the absence of agency. The Strategy does not explicitly state that the claim and view belongs to the Government or TEC. The dynamic modality indicates an internal capability of the ACE sector to deliver education programs at levels one to three and educate people, whose 'initial learning was not successful'. It is believed that ACE is able to make this contribution. The deontic modality allows another way of interpreting the meaning. It suggests that the Government and TEC encourage and request ACE to be a key stakeholder in informal education, although this directive does not appear to be strong. For ACE this means that there are no specific expectations from the Government and TEC in terms of ACE's contribution at levels one to three qualifications outcomes.

The *TES 2010-2015* links the effectiveness of tertiary study to the quality of teaching and learning, and completion rates. Interestingly, research is not included in this provision. The Strategy states:

> For tertiary study to be effective for second-chance learners, the quality of teaching and learning **needs** to improve to raise completion rates (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 13).

Even though 'need' is a semi-modal verb, its expression of modality requires the analysis to consider the effect this verb has on the meaning. Interpreting it on the basis of epistemic use, the Government is confident in its claim that the effectiveness of tertiary study depends on the quality of teaching and learning, and is measured by completion rates. Therefore raising completion rates is seen as necessary.

The verb 'need' is also indicative of a deontic modality that expresses an obligation and instruction to act. Similar applications of the epistemic and deontic modalities by means of the verb 'need' appear in the same paragraph:

> Students who **need** to improve their literacy, language and numeracy skills **should** be able to do so. Informal and lower-level certificate study **needs** to offer clear pathways through to higher-level tertiary study and skilled employment (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 13)

The above excerpt also features the modal verb 'should' in relation to the students' ability to improve their LLN skills. In terms of the epistemic use of the verb 'should' in this statement, it can be inferred that the Government is signalling confidence in students' ability and a high probability of the positive outcome. This claim suggests that students are then deemed responsible for ensuring the effectiveness of tertiary study within the framework provided. The deontic modality in this case

implies a sense of advice and urges the students to act on acquiring their LLN skills. However this directive is not strong and appears as a recommendation.

Having analysed the use of a semi-modal verb 'need', one can question whether the policy considers immigrants' and refugees' circumstances that may prevent them from 'improving their LLN skills'. Many refugees, for example, arrive in New Zealand with a severe PTSD and hence they should not be expected to bear the responsibility for their learning without appropriate support. Similarly, some immigrants may not be able to act on improving their 'LLN skills' without considering time to adapt to the new environment with settlement assistance. Because there is no recognition of these learners and difficulties they are likely to encounter, the learners are disadvantaged. Therefore the tertiary education policy is not inclusive of the full range of needs of immigrants and refugees.

In the final statement of the excerpt on improving LLN skills outcomes the Government is explicit in its position and expresses intention:

We **will**:

- […]
- Continue to work with providers and ITOs to embed literacy, language and numeracy in levels one to three qualifications
- Continue to support intensive literacy programmes in workplaces
- […] (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 13)

The epistemic modality in this statement indicates a high degree of confidence and certitude. The Government is certain and confident in the continuity of its 'work with providers and ITOs' and its support of 'intensive literacy programmes in workplaces'. The deontic modality of the verb 'will' indicates the subject's strong commitment to act. In this case the Government is in a position of power to

determine who the subject is and what action it will be performing. Unlike in other statements analysed earlier, power and time are made explicit.

Further analysis of modality in other parts of the Strategy that discuss policy provisions regarding 'language' and 'literacy' demonstrates a number of similarities. For example, the modal verb 'will' is used in the following references to indicate the same level of the Government's confidence and intention. For example:

> "***Some*** early indications that we are making progress towards the Government's goals for tertiary education ***will*** be:
>
> - [...]
> - ***more*** people participating in qualifications that improve their literacy, language and numeracy skills (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 22).

By means of deontic and epistemic modalities the Government expresses its commitment and belief that education is aimed at improving LLN skills. However, the presence of hedges 'some' and 'more' softens the Government's judgement and weakens its confidence in terms of what indicators will be considered as key and how many more people participating in those qualifications will mean that progress is being made.

In the section 2.1 on Tertiary Education Priorities for the period of three to five years following the adoption of the Strategy, it is stated:

> In this economic environment, the Government ***will*** ensure the tertiary system achieves the best return on the public's investment. We ***will*** do this by:
>
> - [...]
> - improving literacy, language, and numeracy and skills outcomes from levels one to three study
> - [...] (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 10)

Deontic modality indicates the Government's strong commitment to efficient spending and ensuring positive outcomes. In terms of epistemic modality, there appears to be a high degree of confidence in the Government's intention to 'achieve the best return on the public investment' and improve 'literacy, language, and numeracy'. It is also clear who the subject is and the proposed action is future orientated.

Modality in other statements that contain provisions relating to 'literacy' and 'language' expresses a weaker commitment to what is being stated and lower level of confidence. This effect is achieved by removing the agent from an action, using hedges and a different modal verb, for example, 'should'. In the section that discusses targeting priority groups, it is stated:

> The Government **will** therefore be looking at funding settings to create incentives for more young people to achieve qualifications at levels four and above. In a capped funding environment, this **will** involve reducing government funding for **some** qualifications at levels one to three that do not assist students into higher-level learning or employment, or do not improve their **literacy, language** and numeracy skills (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 11).

Apart from a medium degree of probability and inclination, a number of inferences can be made. In the first sentence, it is the Government who will make decisions regarding funding. By contrast, the following sentence contains a hedge 'some' and an unknown agent, which indicates that the Government is distancing itself from the proposed action. In addition, the hedge 'some' suggests that the Government is not going to abolish funding for all qualifications, although it is not clear on what bases it will be assessing the ones that do not help students progress into higher levels education or do not improve LLN skills.

In the section where the thesis investigated the key omissions (see 5.3.1.1 Taken for grantedness), a discursive ambiguity has been identified. The analysis has noted that the Strategy makes no reference to 'language' in the parts where it mentions the diverse learning needs of adults and the skills that are required to improve the country's economic performance and ensure sustainable growth. It is not clear which language the Strategy is referring to and how 'language' and 'literacy' are defined. Apart from omissions, this ambiguity is also achieved by the use of modality and hedges:

> Demand for tertiary education comes from young people seeking to build on the foundation they have formed at school, workers seeking additional skills to advance or change their career, and adults wanting to improve their *literacy* and numeracy skills.

> The tertiary education sector *should* respond to the diverse needs of all the groups it serves. In *some* cases, this *will* mean providing targeted services to create an inclusive environment for a diverse student body that includes, for example, students with disabilities. Groups of students with *low* completion rates, such as Pasifika, *are likely* to require tailored support to ensure success in tertiary education (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 6).

Modality and hedges in this statement indicate that although the diverse needs are acknowledged, the response of the tertiary education sector to those needs does not contain a strong request and obligation. Instead, it appears as a recommendation and advice.

Similarly, a commitment to the provision of 'targeted services' does not appear to be strong due to a hedge 'some', which indicates that this provision is going to be selective and yet it is not clear whether in any other student groups, except for the disabled and Pasifika, are included in those cases. Pasifika students are identified as a group requiring 'tailored support' due to 'low' completion rates. This statement is indicative of the Government's assumption about the lack of

academic achievement among those students. At the same time, the Government does not demonstrate confidence in its judgement. Although it signals the likelihood of the required support, there is no evidence that would have supported this assumption. It also is not clear whether support is going to be provided on an ongoing basis. Apart from disabled and Pasifika students, no other groups have been acknowledged, for example, immigrants and refugees.

As noted earlier, 'language', presumably English, is not mentioned as one of the 'skills drivers':

> The tertiary system **will** play a key role in the skills driver, which is focused on improving **literacy** and numeracy, youth achievement, and tertiary system performance (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 3).

The analysis of modality in this statement indicates a willingness and commitment to improve peoples' skills in the areas of 'literacy and numeracy, youth achievement, and tertiary system performance'. However it is not clear how the tertiary system is going to improve 'literacy' skills without considering (English) 'language'.

Thus, the textual analysis of the *TES 2010-2015* has identified the following:

- The policy regarding English language education appears in the provisions of LLN and (intensive) literacy and numeracy (henceforth ILN);
- References to English are constantly omitted despite the fact that English is one language among many in New Zealand. It is the dominant language, however and by not naming it, it also becomes the default language, the language that supercedes all others;

- In the provisions relating to ILN and skills drivers, the term 'literacy' either subsumes 'language' or 'language' is not included as one of the critical skills that people require;

- A discursive ambiguity of the terms 'literacy' and 'language' in the *TES 2010-2015*.

5.3.2 Analysis of discourse practices

The analysis of discourse practices is grounded in two of Lemke's (1992) principles of *intertextuality* that explore the semantic and orientational relationships between the policy texts. The analysis of discourse practices addresses RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3. This subsection addresses the following:

1. Accessibility of *the TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and other documents in the tertiary education domain that contain policy provisions regarding 'language' and 'literacy'.

2. Reporting on how the key terms, 'language' and 'literacy' are addressed in the policy documents that are linked to and implement the *TES 2010-2015*.

Not all policy documents in the tertiary education domain can be easily accessed. Some of them have been removed from the TEC and Ministry of Education websites. The text of *the TES 2010-2015* is no longer available on the TEC website probably due to the launch of the new *TES 2014-2019* (Ministry of Education, 2014). Other documents that are linked, although not explicitly, to *the TES 2010-2015* can still be found online. It is worth questioning why both TEC and the Ministry of Education do not make the 'old' texts available in their online archives.

For research, limited online access to policy texts may pose considerable challenges if someone wishes to carry out a study based on previous policies. Inability to access digital copies of policy documents limits one's dataset. It may require one to analyse texts manually or invest more time to first scan paper-based documents (if one manages to obtain them) and then convert them into an appropriate format. All textual analysis software require either native[23] PDF or Word files.

The *TES 2010-2015* is implemented by the following policy documents:

- *The Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a),

- *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c),

- *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008d),

- *Funding Determinations – ACE 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013a),

    o *ACE 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012a),

    o *Specialised ESOL 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013d),

    o *Industry Training Fund 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013b),

    o *Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012c), and

    o *Literacy & Numeracy Provision 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013c).

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[23] Native PDFs are files that have been generated from an electronic document, such as Word.

The *Adult Literacy and Numeracy Implementation Strategy 2012* and the *Funding Determinations – ACE 2014, ACE 2013, Specialised ESOL 2014, Industry Training Fund 2014, Industry Training Fund 2013, Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013*, and *Literacy & Numeracy Provision 2014* contain explicit references to *the TES 2010-2015*.

The documents that contain policy provisions relating to 'language' and 'literacy' are:

- *The Adult Literacy and Numeracy Implementation Strategy 2012* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a),

- *Funding Determinations – ACE 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013a),
  - *ACE 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012a),
  - *Specialised ESOL 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013d),
  - *Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012c),
  - *Industry Training Fund 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013b),
  - *Industry Training Fund 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012b),
  - *Literacy & Numeracy Provision 2014* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2013c)
- *Strengthening Literacy & Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a),

- *Embedding Literacy & Numeracy: Theoretical Framework and Guidelines* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008a),

- *New Zealand Skills Strategy Action Plan* (Department of Labour, 2008),

- *Literacy, Language & Numeracy Action Plan 2008-2012* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008e),

- *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c), and

- *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008d)

None of these documents clearly identify what 'language' is being referred to and whether provisions of 'literacy' are inclusive of English. As noted in the textual analysis, AMELE policy is contained in the provisions relating to LLN and ILN. For the analysis of AMELE policy then it is important to trace the definitions of 'literacy' and how English language education is addressed in those definitions.

The definition of literacy in the documents that implement the *TES 2010-2015* is contained in *Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012c). The document also states that ESOL is part of 'literacy'. However TEC uses this definition for funding purposes only. It reads:

> **For funding purposes**, literacy and numeracy are defined as the competencies that are essential for effective participation in New Zealand society, including the work environment. These competencies cover reading, writing, speaking, listening, and numeracy. English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) is included within this definition (Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013, 2012c, p. 2).

The opening clause is a thematisation of the importance of funding, but it can also be considered as a hedge. It indicates TEC's reservation regarding the use of this definition to interpret 'literacy' outside the *Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013* (2012c) document.

The second definition of 'literacy' reads:

Literacy is the written and oral language people use in their everyday life and work; it includes reading, writing, speaking and listening. Skills in this area are essential for good communication, critical thinking and problem-solving in the workforce. It includes building the **skills to communicate (at work) for speakers of other languages**. Numeracy is the bridge between mathematics and real life. It includes the knowledge and skills needed to apply mathematics to everyday family and financial matters, work and community tasks (Strengthening Literacy & Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs, 2009, p. 2; Embedding Literacy and Numeracy: Theoretical Framework and Guidelines, 2008, p. 32; LLN Action Plan 2008-2012, 2008d, p. 6).

A discursive ambiguity around the notion of literacy is noted in all current documents in the tertiary education sector. *Strengthening Literacy and Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a) and *Literacy, Language and Numeracy Action Plan 2008-2012* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008e) state that the term 'literacy and numeracy' is used to refer to all of the literacy, language and numeracy skills. This suggests that English is implicitly included in the ILN provisions that appear in the *TES 2010-2015*, *Adult Literacy and Numeracy Implementation Strategy 2012*, as well as *Funding Determinations – ACE 2014*, *ACE 2013, Specialised ESOL 2014, Industry Training Fund 2014, Industry Training Fund 2013*, and *Literacy and Numeracy Provision 2014*. The exception is *Specialised Funds for Literacy and Numeracy 2013*, which relies on its own definition.
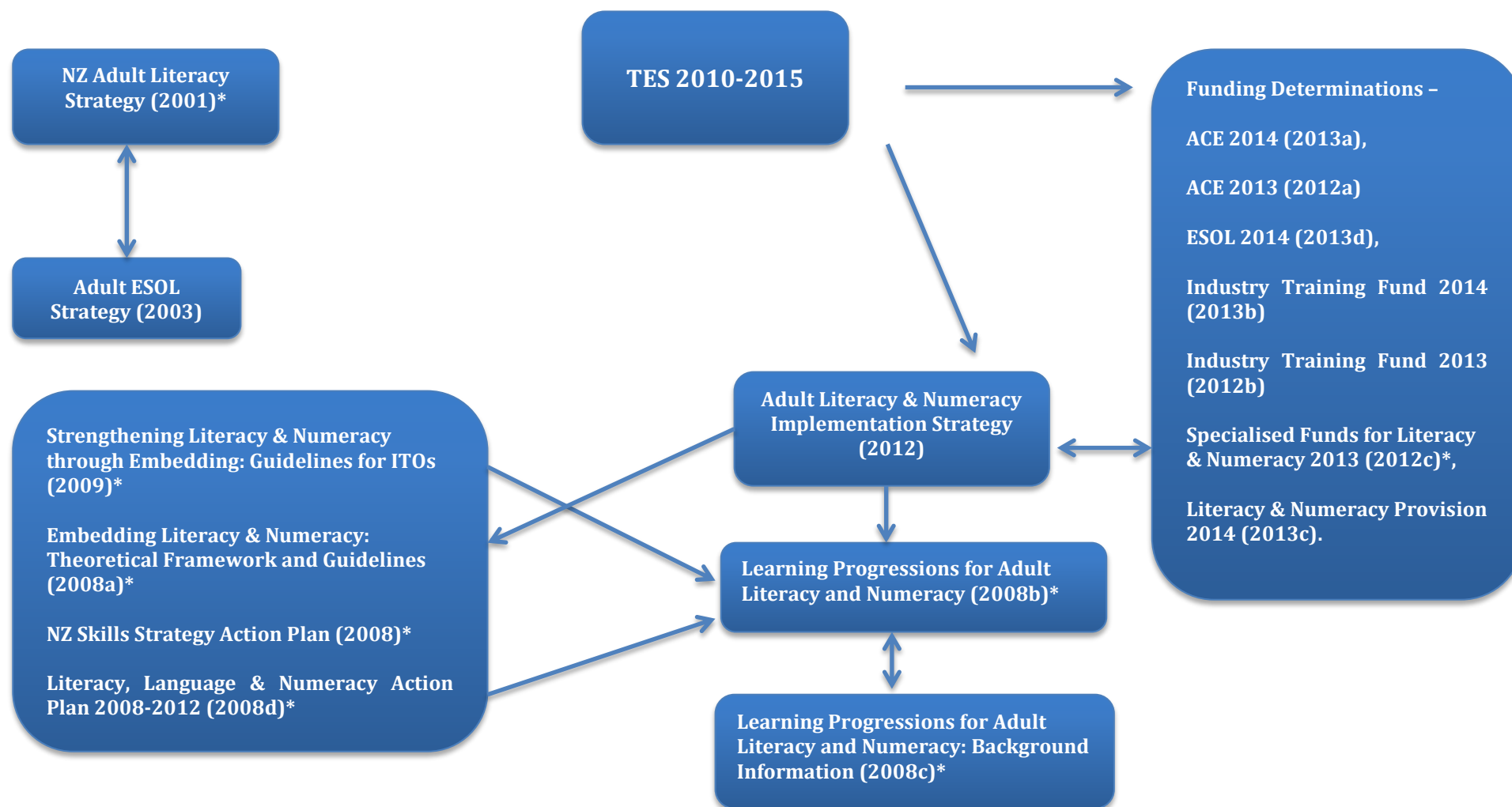
* The documents marked with an asterisk contain definitions of 'literacy'

Figure 30: The relationship between *the TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions

Apart from omissions of 'English' in references to 'language' and 'literacy', the discursive ambiguity of 'literacy' is also caused by an orientation towards 'simplicity', which can confuse readers. *Strengthening Literacy and Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a, p. 2) and *Embedding Literacy & Numeracy: Theoretical Framework and Guidelines* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008a, p. 32) state: "for simplicity, 'literacy and numeracy' is used in these guidelines to denote either literacy or numeracy or both". Similar to other texts, this statement does not specify whether it is 'literacy in English' that TEC is referring to.

The definitions of 'literacy' that the reviewed documents use are misleading for AMELE, because TEC only draws a distinction between L1 and L2 learners in the *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) and the *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008d). *The Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy* document states:

> These progressions have not been primarily developed for use by people learning English as a second or additional language. They do not reflect all the elements of learning that are needed by second language learners or those who are at a preliterate stage of learning English.
>
> However, the progressions are potentially useful and relevant to these learners and their teachers. Refer to *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information* for information about how the progressions relate to the needs of those in English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) programmes (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c, p. 43).

The above statement strongly suggests that L2 learners, many of whom are immigrants and refugees, are excluded from the 'literacy' provisions in *the TES 2010-2015. The Adult Literacy and Numeracy Implementation Strategy* (Tertiary

Education Commission, 2012a) and *the Funding Determinations* documents[24] (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012a, 2012b, 2012c, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c, 2013d), contain no acknowledgement is of the learners who are highly educated and literate in their L1, but lack the knowledge of English. For AMELE it is significant, as these learners will likely find LLN and ILN courses not suitable to their needs.

Interestingly, *the TES 2010-2015* does not explicitly refer to the Learning Progressions documents when outlining 'literacy' provisions. To be able to infer whether 'literacy' education addresses the needs of immigrants and refugees, many of whom are L2 learners, requires four steps. One has to first read *the TES 2010-2015*, then its implementation document – the *Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a), afterwards – the *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) and finally, the *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008d) that draws the distinction between L1 and L2 learners.

The analysis of discourse practices has demonstrated that AMELE policy has a limited scope, which, in turn, displays the attitudes towards English language and opportunities for adult migrants to learn it:

- English language education has a distinct focus on employment and work purposes. One could question whether it is relevant for all learners, some of whom may not be ready to enter the workforce, or those who are reaching their retirement age, or people who lack in basic literacy skills.

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[24] See Figure 30: The relationship between *the TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions

- A tendency towards trying to explain things simply results in under specification and has the opposite effect. It creates confusion. The term 'literacy', according to *Strengthening Literacy and Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a) and *Embedding Literacy & Numeracy: Theoretical Framework and Guidelines* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008a), can be inclusive of 'literacy'/'language' and 'numeracy'.

- Embedding English/ESOL into the definition of 'literacy', which is made strategically vague and ambiguous, has allowed TEC to silence the importance of English/ESOL provision and remove it from the educational priorities.

- Policy provisions relating to English/ESOL are not included in *the TES 2010-2015*. Instead, they are distributed across the tertiary education sector and appear in the documents that are not directly linked to the *TES 2010-2015*.

- Accessibility of relevant earlier the policy texts is limited, as some documents have been removed from the TEC and Ministry of Education websites. This has implications for research and also ordinary readership that may want to query policy relating to English language education.

5.3.3 Analysis of social practices

In this subsection, the focus is on the social effects of the AMELE policy. The analysis of social practices highlights the institutional power of TEC that enables it to exercise control of information, establish particular ways of policy interpretations and determine which stakeholders can participate in the

development of policy. The analysis first provides a schematization of the relationship between the texts and then traces links to the key terms: 'language' and 'literacy'.

Schematically, the relationship between the policy texts in the tertiary education sector that contain (English) 'language' and 'literacy' provisions can be depicted in a diagram (see Figure 30: The relationship between *the TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions). Hierarchically, *the TES 2010-2015* is a top-level document. It is implemented by a series of funding documents released by the Minister of Tertiary Education/TEC and the *Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a), which relies on *the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy & Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) and its Background information document (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008d). Documents that are not linked to either Funding Determinations or the *Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a) directly, have been grouped separately. Those documents are: *Strengthening Literacy & Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a), *Embedding Literacy & Numeracy: Theoretical Framework and Guidelines* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008a), *the New Zealand Skills Strategy Action Plan* (Department of Labour, 2008), and *Literacy, Language & Numeracy Action Plan 2008-2012* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008e). Two of them - *Strengthening Literacy & Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a) and *Literacy, Language & Numeracy Action Plan 2008-2012* (Tertiary Education

Commission, 2008e) – refer to the *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy & Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c).

A close examination of the relationship between the texts that are linked to the *TES 2010-2015* has identified the following:

- The *TES 2010-2015* explicitly refers to Funding Determination documents and the *Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a). The latter relies on the documents released prior to the TES 2010-2015: *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy & Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) and its Background information document (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008d), *Strengthening Literacy & Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a), and *Literacy, Language & Numeracy Action Plan 2008-2012* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008e).

- Two-way arrows between the documents represent cross-references (see Figure 30: The relationship between *the TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions). The documents that are related to each other, are: *Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* and *Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012c). Although there are cross references between *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy & Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) and *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy & Numeracy: Background Information* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008d), one could question why these two documents are separate.

- One-way arrow relationships mean the documents do not contain references to each other. As demonstrated in Figure 30: The relationship between *the TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions, the *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy & Numeracy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008c) is the key reference for the *Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2012a), *Strengthening Literacy & Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a), and *Literacy, Language & Numeracy Action Plan 2008-2012* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2008e). Other one-way arrows are found between *the TES 2010-2015*, *the Adult Literacy Implementation Strategy*, and the series of documents released under Funding Determinations.

An analysis of the relationship between the *TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policies relevant to AMELE, demonstrates that *the Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy* and *Funding Determinations* series are quite influential. Interestingly, none of those documents, except *Funding Determinations – Specialised Funds for Literacy & Numeracy 2013* (Office of Hon Steven Joyce, 2012c), explain what is meant by 'literacy'. The two documents, *More Than Words: The New Zealand Adult Literacy Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2001) and *The Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003), despite an explicit recognition of the learning needs of immigrants and refugees regarding English literacy, are not mentioned in the *TES 2010-2015, Funding Determinations or the Adult Literacy & Numeracy Implementation Strategy.* One should question why these documents are inoperative and are not being referred to.

As illustrated in Figure 30: The relationship between *the TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions, the definitions of 'literacy' (presumably, English literacy) are contained in the documents that are not directly linked to the *TES 2010-2015*, suggesting the policy is not accessible for all. Hierarchically, those documents are below *the TES 2010-2015* and the policies that implement it. This practice may be indicative of TEC's intention to omit a crucial aspect of AMELE and TEC's institutional control over information availability. For an ordinary reader, who may not necessarily be an expert in the field of adult education and ESOL in New Zealand, the task of locating AMELE policy provisions can be challenging. One can argue that such selectivity of what is included in the policies is driven by TEC's attempts to control access to certain aspects of 'literacy' and English/ESOL provisions. From a CDA view on such structures (Woodside-Jiron, 2011), by exercising this control, TEC limits a potential resistance and critique of those provisions.

In addition control over information, TEC also exercises its institutional power in selectivity of the stakeholders allowing the business community to influence and shape AMELE. Apart from TEC, policy provisions relating to English/ESOL are developed and introduced in partnership with the following organisations: Business New Zealand, the New Zealand Council of Trade Unions, and the Industry Training Federation. These organisations participated in the development of *Strengthening Literacy and Numeracy through Embedding: Guidelines for ITOs* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009a), *Embedding Literacy and Numeracy: Theoretical Framework and Guidelines* (Tertiary Education Commission, 2009b), *Literacy, Language and Numeracy Action Plan 2008-2012*

(Tertiary Education Commission, 2008e), and *The New Zealand Skills Strategy Action Plan* (Department of Labour, 2008). Discourses of 'literacy' and ESOL for work purposes that appear in these four documents indicate a distinct influence of business on the tertiary education policy. This seems to indicate that TEC has given over considerable power to the business community. The key implication of the involvement of Business New Zealand, the New Zealand Council of Trade Unions, and the Industry Training Federation in the development of policy is that it is <u>their</u> interests that are being promoted and embedded in the provisions of English literacy and English language education. It can be concluded that the AMELE sector is largely affected by the discourse of workplace and employment.

Thus, the analysis of social practices has demonstrated how TEC exercises its power in the development and implementation of the *TES 2010-2015* and English language provisions, what implications such practices have for AMELE. The analysis of the relationship between the policy documents highlighted exclusion of ESOL/English language provisions from the *TES 2010-2015* and demonstrated where the key references to 'literacy' and 'language' appear. In terms of document hierarchy, these policies can be considered as background documents that are not 'visible' to ordinary readers. The absence of clear definitions of 'language' and 'literacy' has allowed TEC to avoid responsibility for ESOL/English language education for all adult learners, regardless of the literacy levels in their first language. Although English language education and English literacy have not received any acknowledgement in the *TES 2010-2015*, references to the documents developed under the auspices of TEC in consultation with Business New Zealand, the New Zealand Council of Trade Unions, and the Industry Training Federation

strongly suggest that provisions of 'literacy', which presumably include literacy in English and English/ESOL education, are underpinned by the interests of business sector.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has provided analyses of the two policy texts, the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* and *the TES 2010-2015*, based on CDA. Textual analyses examined two linguistic strategies: taken for grantedness and commitment to/evading 'truth' that identified the key omissions and assumptions that underlie provisions relating to AMELE in the domains of tertiary education and immigration. The analyses of discourse and social practices relied on the principles of intertextuality. The analyses of discourse practices explored semantic and orientational relationships between the policy texts that contained explanations of the following key terms: 'language', 'literacy', 'English speaking background', 'minimum required IELTS score', 'minimum standard of English', 'English language ability', 'competent user of English', as well as 'ESOL/English language training'. The analysis of discourse practices also highlighted TEC's and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's attitudes to these provisions and how they are distributed across the two fields. The analysis of social practices focused on the effects of policy distribution. It highlighted what the policy documents excluded, and reasons behind it. The concluding chapter will synthesize the findings, discuss their implications and propose areas for further investigation.

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Overview

This chapter discusses implications and the significance of the findings of AMELE policy analysis. The discussion is organised in accordance with the research questions (RQs) that the study has raised, followed by other findings that emerged from analysis and suggestions for further research. Given a sociopolitical orientation of CDA as methodology and approach to policy analysis, the thesis provides policy direction and highlights the areas of AMELE that have been overlooked. I also include a postscript discussing the release of the new *TES 2014-2019* (Ministry of Education, 2014) that superseded the *TES 2010-2015*. It is hoped that this study's findings will foster a more proactive and forward thinking approach to immigrant and refugee education in New Zealand.

6.2 Discussion of significance of the findings and their implications

6.2.1 Addressing assumptions (RQ1)

This CDA of the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) has shown that the policies contain a number of assumptions regarding English language/literacy, English language education and adult migrants.

6.2.1.1 'Language' and 'literacy' = (in) English?

Unlike the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) that explicitly states immigrants must be able to speak English and meet English language requirements as part of their application for permanent

residence[25], the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) in its 'language' provisions does not specify which language knowledge is expected. The textual analysis of the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) has demonstrated that the Strategy consistently refers to English as 'language' despite the presence of two de-jure official languages – te reo Māori and New Zealand Sign Language (henceforth NZSL). Failure to explicitly state what language the policy refers to implies an assumption that in an English-dominant country such as New Zealand, there is no need to be specific. Constant omissions of the word 'English' identified in the *TES 2010-2015* and other documents from the tertiary education domain (see Chapter 5) are indicative of a monolingual agenda that drives New Zealand's tertiary education policy.

A similar observation is made in relation to 'literacy' provisions in the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). The results of the textual analysis of the *TES 2010-2015* showed zero references to English (see Chapter 5). If 'literacy' is to be interpreted as 'literacy in the English language' or 'English literacy' only, this practice is further evidence of a monolingual discourse that pervades New Zealand tertiary education policy. Furthermore, this practice implies people's literacy in language/s other than English is not recognised and hence it can be regarded as an important gap in the policy. Since English is a second/additional language for many immigrants and refugees, limited or no proficiency in English does not always mean that people are not literate in their L1.

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[25] As noted in Chapters 3 and 5, refugees are not subject to the English language criteria upon arrival in New Zealand and are not required to have English language proficiency to be granted the right to reside in New Zealand indefinitely.

6.2.1.2 'Language' = English as L1 and ESOL?

While immigration policy explicitly recognises that for a lot of migrants English is a second/additional language, the *TES 2010-2015* and its implementation documents in this regard do not draw this distinction. One may then infer that policy provisions relating to 'language' in tertiary education either mean 'English for native speakers', 'English for speakers of other languages', or both. A discursive ambiguity around English language is present not only in the *TES 2010-2015*, but also in other documents that implement it (see Chapter 5: Figure 30: The relationship between the *TES 2010-2015* and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions).

The main concern for AMELE in New Zealand is that tertiary education policy does not adequately address a continuous demand for ESOL education that immigration policy generates. As noted in Chapter 2: 2.2.1 Adult ESOL as policy in the context of New Zealand), New Zealand does not have a national ESOL curriculum for adult learners. The quality and consistency of ESOL education is not overseen by the Government, and funding for ESOL is limited. Given these conditions, one should question how well New Zealand's tertiary education system caters for the learning needs of immigrants, especially those who are new to the country, and refugees.

The review of English language requirements for immigrants demonstrated that some immigrants have an option of 'pre-purchasing ESOL training' (see Chapter 3: 3.2.2 Immigrants). Other applicants may be accepted with lower or no proficiency in English, depending on the immigrant category or stream. UNHCR refugees and their families also require quality ESOL education. Based on the

results of CDA of the *TES 2010-2015*, it can be concluded that a comprehensive ESOL education is excluded from tertiary education policy and all provisions relating to 'language' are not applicable to L2 learners.

6.2.1.3 It does not take long to achieve proficiency in English language

Further to the assumptions regarding English and English literacy in tertiary education policy, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's views on the duration of English language education are worth noting. Although the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) acknowledges English to be a second language for many migrants, the wording indicates that English language education is viewed as a relatively short-term course or 'training' program. Immigrants who undertake 'ESOL training' are expected to achieve English competence fairly quickly. This view is reflected in a five-year period within which ESOL 'training' tuition must be used, as per the instructions in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*.

The assumption that English language education is a short-term experience is also suggested by the amount of ESOL tuition, for which Immigration New Zealand/MBIE requires immigrants to pay (see Chapter 3: Figure 1: ESOL tuition costs). According to Languages International (2015), one of the TEC-approved course providers[26] where immigrants can use the pre-paid ESOL tuition, the cost for a full time General English course is $415 per week. This means that a person with an IELTS score 3.5 or below will only be able to attend the course for 16 weeks[27]. It is very unlikely that a person with a low level of English will be able to

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[26] TEC (2014) publishes lists of approved course providers on its website.
[27] An immigrant with an IELTS score 3.5 or below pays $6,795, which is divided by $415 – a weekly cost of General English at Languages International.

make significant progress in such a limited time. Two questions could be raised and addressed to Immigration New Zealand/MBIE:

1) Why are immigrants required to pay amounts of money that are not going to cover for sufficient ESOL courses?

2) On what premises did Immigration New Zealand/MBIE work out the ESOL tuition costs?

6.2.1.4 'Minimum standards of English' = sufficient level of English proficiency?

Another assumption concerns 'minimum standards' of English language that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE views as indicators of sufficient ability to use English in everyday life, including work. The issue around minimum standards is two-fold. First, the policy does not provide a rationale behind different levels of English proficiency that immigrants have to demonstrate. And second, one should question whether those 'minimums' are indeed sufficient to cope in everyday situations, work and education environments.

The first point relates to inconsistent English language requirements for various immigrant categories (see Table 2: Minimum standards of English for all migrant categories in Chapter 3). While Immigration New Zealand/MBIE expects all immigrants to speak good English, it is not explained why some applicants have to demonstrate better proficiency in English than others (e.g. SMC vs Investors or Family). If the policy's intent is to be flexible allowing some immigrants to improve their English when they arrive in New Zealand, it needs be stated explicitly with a clear rationale behind such an intent.

The second point relates to immigrants' immediate ability to settle successfully. The review of English language requirements (see Chapter 3) demonstrates that quite a few immigrants can be admitted with low levels of English literacy. Adequate support and planning of ESOL education for these learners, including refugees in particular, would mitigate the risks of people becoming dependent on social benefits and experiencing considerable hardships in the new country. This is a serious gap in AMELE policy and will remain so, until relevant arrangements are introduced in immigration and tertiary education domains addressing learning needs of all migrants.

6.2.1.5 English language proficiency does not have to be assessed by qualified examiners

The review of English language requirements for immigrants (see Chapter 3) identified that the policy around English language assessments for immigrants arriving in New Zealand under the Samoan quota and Pacific Access Category has a number of flaws: who conducts the assessments, what kind of assessments are used and what is deemed an acceptable level of English.

As reported in Chapter 3: 3.2.2.4 Migrants from the South Pacific islands: the Samoan quota and Pacific Access streams, these applicants' English ability is assessed by immigration officers. According to the vacancy advertised on the Internet (see Appendix 1), the candidates for an immigration officer are not required to have expertise in English language assessments, experience and/or relevant qualifications. This significantly increases the likelihood of erroneous outcomes for migrants, bias and inconsistencies.

The second and third critiques relate to the means of assessment and what level of English is sufficient. Unlike other categories of immigrants who have to produce IELTS or demonstrate alternative evidence of English language proficiency, applicants under the Samoan quota and Pacific Access need to attend an interview. The policy does not state how long those interviews are, nor does it give any indication of the linguistic complexity of questions the immigration officers can ask, or the complexity and length of reading texts. Furthermore, as noted in Chapter 3, the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) does not contain any assessment criteria. It would be worthwhile to systematize English language assessments by adopting regulations and standards to ensure fairness, transparency and adequacy.

6.2.1.6 Accurate means to assess a person's English language proficiency

The review of English language requirements that most migrants have to demonstrate prior to arrival has indicated that the immigration policy heavily relies on a large-scale test IELTS (see Table 2: Minimum standards of English for all migrant categories in Chapter 3). While IELTS has a number of advantages (e.g. standardized format and only qualified examiners), it is still questionable whether English language proficiency can be fully assessed by means of this test. It has been argued that language proficiency is too complex to be measured by accuracy, vocabulary range, and use of grammar (see Hunter, 2007b and Spolsky, 1994). Furthermore, a person's ability to communicate in English in various contexts (e.g. work, study environment or parent-teacher conferences at schools) is excluded from IELTS' foci. Hence an IELTS test alone is not sufficient and comprehensive enough to determine people's levels of English competence.

6.2.2 Attitudes in AMELE policy: priorities and secondary aspects (RQ2)

A partial CDA of the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) indicated that the approach to AMELE is too generic and in practice is quite limited. In tertiary education AMELE is reflected in the policies aimed at developing foundation skills: LLN and ILN. Other findings reported a shift in priorities towards employment as well as a lack of overall responsibility for a comprehensive English language education approach from TEC and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE.

6.2.2.1 LLN and ILN

LLN and ILN are distinct foci in the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). Both LLN and ILN are designed for people with no or low levels of literacy and numeracy who, after the course, are expected to either enter the workforce or be able to continue studies at a higher level. It has been suggested earlier in this chapter (see 6.2.1.1 'Language' and 'literacy' = (in) English? and 6.2.1.2 'Language' = English as L1 and ESOL?) that people for whom English is L2/an additional language should not be assumed to have the same learning needs as people who grew up speaking English or have been living in an English-language environment most of their lives. The policy needs to consider that people have different levels of education and literacy, as well as different learning abilities.

While LLN and ILN programs are important initiatives, silencing other educational foci has significant implications on the migrant population, including refugees. Immigrants who were granted residency under the SMC, Investor and Family streams and require access to ESOL education, are unlikely to find LLN and

ILN programs appropriate and relevant to their level of literacy. Another reason for the unsuitability of both programs is the absence of a clear focus on ESOL for people for whom English is not a first language.

The discursive ambiguities around English, ESOL and 'literacy' that have been identified in Chapter 5, have allowed TEC to exclude certain learners from the funded provision of English literacy. As reported in Table 3: Funding in AMELE in Chapter 3, all established funds in AMELE, such as ACE, ILN, ILN ESOL, English for Migrants, Refugee English Fund, Workplace Literacy, except for Migrant Levy[28], have a focus on 'language, literacy and numeracy' (LLN). Despite the ESOL focus being included in all funds with the exception of Workplace Literacy and Refugee English funds[29], only learners with low levels of literacy are eligible for those programs. People with higher levels of literacy will have to rely on their own capabilities and resources if they wish and need to improve their English, which may pose considerable challenges: finding and paying for the courses that are run outside business hours or at particular times, attending classes, and managing family and other commitments.

6.2.2.2 A strong focus on employment outcomes

A distinct discourse of employment and economic growth emerged from the analyses of text and discourse practices of TEC's *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and the review of the *Refugee Resettlement Strategy* (Immigration New Zealand, 2012d). Tertiary education policy views 'literacy' and 'language' as an essential skill set that includes critical thinking, problem-solving,

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[28] As suggested by the fund's name, contributions come from immigrants' who are required to pay a migrant levy upon being granted permanent residence.
[29] TEC does not mention ESOL focus on its website

communication 'at work'/ 'in the workforce' and the knowledge of English 'for work' for speakers of other languages. Other aspects, such as education for the purposes of general social access, have not been acknowledged.

One can question whether an employment-orientated English language education would be suitable for immigrants, who are coming to New Zealand to join their partners and families, instead of general ESOL. A focus on employment may not be appropriate for refugees, especially within the first twelve months of their arrival. Hence the policy needs to be more specific, and English for employment purposes should be offered to those migrants who are eager to enter the workforce and improve their communication skills in English.

6.2.2.3 The role of the Government and TEC in (English) 'language' education.

The examination of modality and hedges in the *TES 2010-2015* (see Chapter 5: 5.3.1.2 Commitment to/evading 'truth') demonstrated a number of ambiguities as well as a lack of certainty around the Government's and TEC's expectations of the ACE sector, the effectiveness of tertiary education, and students' ability to improve their 'literacy, language and numeracy skills'.

According to TEC, ACE should "play a key role in literacy, language and numeracy learning, in particular by targeting people whose initial learning was not successul" (Ministry of Education, 2009b, p. 13). Despite a fair amount of certainty, this statement, however, is quite generic. The Strategy does not, for example, explain whether courses provided by ACE have to be linked to any NZQA standards, and if there are any expectations with regards to completion rates and quality of teaching that appear in the discussion of the effectiveness of tertiary study. Lack of specificity in the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) may

suggest that the ACE is given a considerable autonomy in its educational activity and at the same time bears heavy responsibility for informal education.

The Government and TEC attribute the effectiveness of tertiary study to the quality of teaching and learning. Those two aspects are only being measured by completion rates (see Chapter 5: 5.2.1.2: Commitment to/evading 'truth' strategy). Interestingly, the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) does not mention achievements in academic research, nor does it encourage research as one of the possible means to improve teaching. TEC measures effectiveness by the number of students completing their studies as opposed to the number of students who are able to continue their education at higher levels, the number of graduates who enter skilled employment, and graduates who obtain placements to get professional experience.

The effectiveness of tertiary education outlined in *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) should also be questioned for a lack of pathways to education for L2 learners who specifically wish to improve their English language competencies. ESOL, as mentioned in Chapter 5, did not receive any recognition in *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). The tertiary system does not cover all aspects of adult education and overlooks the specific needs of immigrants and refugees. This should be considered a major flaw in the current system.

In the discussion of students' ability to improve their 'literacy, language and numeracy skills', the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) indicates the Government's and TEC's confidence in a positive outcome. One important finding is that students are expected to take responsibility for their learning, take relevant actions in order to upskill themselves and either continue studies at a higher level

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or seek employment. Given the fact that ESOL is not explicitly included in 'language' provisions of *TES 2010-2015,* the Government and TEC's confidence in the positive outcomes for learners of diverse migrant and refugee backgrounds should be called into question.

6.2.2.4 Attitude to English language in immigration policy

Unlike TEC, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE is explicit in their policy regarding English. English is recognised to be a second or an additional language for many migrants and the knowledge of English is one of the key requirements for the granting of permanent residence in New Zealand. Furthermore, knowledge of English is a condition for successful settlement and employment. Despite the seemingly compulsory nature of English language requirements, Immigration New Zealand/MBIE allows certain immigrant categories[30] to be exempt from providing evidence of English proficiency and offer alternative options to meet English language requirements. Those options include prepaid ESOL tuition, or evidence of study or employment in the English-speaking environment.

There are two critical aspects in the policy around English language requirements. The first aspect is inconsistent 'standards' of English language ability across all immigrant categories that Immigration New Zealand/MBIE achieved by using vague and ambiguous statements in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c). The second aspect is the implications of admitting people with insufficient levels of English without adequate post-arrival support for acquiring the English language to at least a

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[30] These categories are Investor Plus, Partnership, where a partner was not eligible to be included in an earlier application as a secondary applicant under SMC, Genral Skills or Business, Parent Retirement, the Samoan Quota and Pacific Access.

functional level. The absence of such a support may prevent new immigrants from participating in society and being able to cope in everyday situations. Limited opportunities to access funded ESOL education and no recognition of English being a second/additional language for immigrants in the domain of tertiary education imply that the onus remains on the people themselves to achieve the desired level of English.

6.2.3 Inclusiveness (RQ3)

The analysis of text and discourse practices demonstrated that AMELE is not inclusive and limited in scope. The limitations concern learner focus, suitability of programs, and accessibility of English/ESOL education. *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) contains no references to migrants: immigrants and refugees (see 5.3.1.1 Taken for grantedness and 5.3.1.2 Commitment to/evading 'truth'). Furthermore, in the section that discusses learner groups, both immigrants and refugees, are not recognised as part of a diverse student body. A limited scope of AMELE is evident in LLN, ILN and Workplace literacy provisions, which may be suitable only for immigrants and refugees who do not have or lack basic foundation skills. Others may find these opportunities irrelevant or that they are ineligible to participate in LLN, ILN and Workplace Literacy programs due to a different learner focus.

No recognition of English being a second/additional language for many migrants in the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) raises concerns over availability and adequacy of English language/ESOL education. Tertiary education policy is found to be inconsistent with English language policy emanating from the domain of immigration. As outlined in Chapters 3 and 5,

Immigration New Zealand/MBIE expects immigrants (with a few exceptions) to be able to use English for various purposes, including work, or achieve the necessary level by means of attending ESOL courses. And yet ESOL has not been selected as an educational focus in the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). This indicates that the ESOL sector is marginalised to an extent in tertiary education policy.

It has been noted earlier in this chapter, as well as Chapters 3 and 5, the accessibility of quality English language provision remains limited. For example, some adult migrants who are highly educated in their L1 and hence are literate, may find the opportunities covered by ACE, ILN and ILN ESOL funds unsuitable, because these funds target people 'with low levels of literacy and/or numeracy' and those who need to develop 'foundation skills' (Tertiary Education Commission, n.d.). Even a distinct discourse of employment and workplace in the policy documents is not supported by relevant English language programs for adult migrants who are already in employment. These people, due to their high levels of literacy in L1, are ineligible for courses that are funded through the WLF. This suggests that these learners will have to rely on their own capabilities and resources if they wish and need to improve their English.

6.2.4 Institutional power of TEC and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE

The CDA shows that TEC and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE posseses considerable institutional power exercised on all levels. Their power is evident in the assumptions that are contained in the policies of both domains, including discursive ambiguities around the notions of 'literacy' and 'language', as well as priorities and aspects that are treated as less significant. The analyses of discourse

and social practices in the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) demonstrate a considerable autonomy of TEC and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE in their in the structural design of policies that allow these two agencies to exercise control over readership and policy development.

TEC in its tertiary education policy chose to exclude the definitions of 'literacy' and 'language' from the *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b). No explicit references to the documents where these notions are explained are provided (see Figure 30: Relationship between TES 2010-2015 and other tertiary education policy texts that contain 'language' and 'literacy' provisions). As noted in Chapter 5: 5.2.3 Analysis of social practices, such a practice is indicative of TEC's assumption that every reader will be able to infer how the term 'literacy' should be understood and whether it is inclusive of 'language'. On the other hand, these omissions can be interpreted as an attempt by TEC to deliberately conceal crucial aspects English literacy and English language education. The absences of explicit links to the documents where 'literacy' and 'language' provisions make the task of locating them quite challenging for an ordinary reader.

Immigration New Zealand/MBIE also possesses considerable institutional power and autonomy in determining compulsory requirements for people applying for permanent residence in New Zealand, particularly with regard to English language. As it has been demonstrated in Figure 16: The distribution of English language policy in the immigration domain, English language requirements are not part of the *Immigration Act 2009* (New Zealand Legislation, 2009). Instead, these requirements appear in the *Operational Manual – Residence Section*

(Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) – a document which is developed and released by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE. The policy regarding English language requirements appears to be solely determined by Immigration New Zealand/MBIE. This helps avoid potential resistance to any changes this stakeholder might adopt (Woodside-Jiron, 2011).

Immigration New Zealand/MBIE also defines the key indicators and criteria of an 'acceptable' evidence of English proficiency, such as 'English speaking background', 'minimum required IELTS score', 'minimum standard of English', 'English language ability', 'competent user of English', and 'ESOL/English language training/tuition'. These indicators and criteria are used as tools to either approve or decline people's applications for permanent residence on the grounds of (un)acceptable English language proficiency. This finding is consistent with Hoffman's (1998) and Kunnan's (2005) studies (see Chapter 2) that English language assessments can be used as a policy tool to either facilitate or prevent the arrival of certain migrants.

Chapters 3 and also noted that considerable autonomy is given to immigration officers, who are authorised to conduct interviews with the applicants of the Samoan Quota and Pacific Access Category to assess their level of English. Immigration officers can also require any applicants to provide an IELTS certificate. This authority is based on the assumption that the ability to conduct such assessments is not dependent on a person's relevant qualifications or professional experience in language testing because these things are not required to be an Immigration Officer.

6.3 Recommendations and concluding remarks

Having discussed the findings and implications, the following recommendations for AMELE are suggested:

1. Immigrants and refugees as a learner group should be acknowledged and clearly defined in the tertiary education policy.

2. To ensure better cohesion between the tertiary education and immigration policies, learner groups should be aligned with the immigrant categories.

3. Tertiary education policy has to acknowledge that English is a second/additional language for many New Zealanders, who require access to quality English language education.

4. The Government should reassess the state of the adult ESOL sector, which includes revisiting the *Adult ESOL Strategy* (Ministry of Education, 2003) and adjusting the targets in accordance with the current demographics and demands.

5. Given a high probability of bias and inaccuracies in the English language assessments during immigration interviews, a more objective approach is needed. This can be achieved by involving adult literacy specialists that work in LLN/foundation skills sector in the assessments of English literacy levels among the applicants that arrive in New Zealand under the Samoan Quota and Pacific Access Category.

6. English language requirements determined by the Immigration New Zealand/MBIE are a salient aspect of an implicit English language policy. The mechanism of requiring most migrants to have a sufficient English language competence can be used to regulate the number of people who can

enter New Zealand with no or low levels of English and set various criteria. MBIE could also encourage higher levels of English proficiency that would offset pressures on the tertiary education sector by awarding bonus points.

7. To facilitate and strengthen the recognition of the official languages of New Zealand, immigration policy could also allow prospective applicants to demonstrate knowledge of NZSL and/or te reo Māori, and award extra points during the immigration process. A similar practice is observed in Canada, where applicants can choose between English and French, and also get additional points for proficiency in both languages (Government of Canada, 2015; Immigration Diversité et Inclusion Québec, 2013).

In relation to further research, the study could be complemented with analyses of AMELE policy production and reception. This would involve conducting interviews with the policy makers from both domains, and educators. Interviewing policy makers who were involved in the production of the text of *TES 2010-2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and the *Operational Manual – Residence Section* (Immigration New Zealand, 2014c) would help gain a better understanding of TEC's and Immigration New Zealand/MBIE's assumptions and attitudes that were discussed in this thesis. Interviews with educators who are involved in English language education would also be beneficial. These data would explain educators' perspectives on policies and how the educational foci that are set in the Strategy affect educators' professional activity, and what impact the policies have on classroom practice. Additionally, one may also consider interviewing immigrants and refugees about their experience of receiving English language

education in New Zealand tertiary institutions, and observing ESOL classes that they are attending.

Postscript

The release of the new *TES 2014-2019* (Ministry of Education, 2014) in March 2015 superseded the *TES 2010-2015*. There are two main differences between the two strategies. The first one is that the *TES 2014-2019* was co-written by MBIE, which suggests that discourses of employment and the workplace will only be strengthened. And second, the *TES 2014-2019* acknowledged ESOL specifically and the needs of migrants to learn and improve their English. Although no other documents, which contain definitions of 'literacy' and 'language', have yet been released, people interested in AMELE should refer to the TEC website and MBIE and monitor any significant changes and proposals that might be announced in the near future.

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Appendix 1: Job description for the position of an Immigration Officer

MINISTRY OF BUSINESS, INNOVATION & EMPLOYMENT
HIKINA WHAKATUTUKI

POSITION DESCRIPTION

Position details

Position Title	Immigration Officer
Group	Immigration New Zealand
Location	Auckland Central Area Office
Salary Band	Band 12/14 (Based on former Labour group)
Date	September 2013

Our purpose – grow New Zealand for all

"Grow" relates to the economy. To achieve the standard of living and quality of life we aspire to we need a better-performing economy that delivers sustainable growth.

"For all" captures growth for New Zealanders now and in the future – growth that doesn't compromise our environment or the safety of our workplaces.

We will do this by *helping businesses to become more productive and internationally competitive*, and by *increasing opportunities for all New Zealanders to contribute to the economy*.

This means providing more jobs and increasing the opportunities for New Zealanders to participate in more productive and higher paid work. Growth for all also means providing better quality housing that is safe and affordable for New Zealanders.

These aspirations are echoed in our Māori identity – Hikina Whakatutuki – which broadly means *"lifting to make successful"*.

How we work

Our targets are challenging and cannot be achieved by the Ministry alone. They require us to work in a way that makes the most of our size and scope.

We work in a way that enables us to expand and deepen our understanding of businesses and markets. We use our extensive presence across New Zealand and around the world to make and leverage domestic and global connections.

We work collaboratively with our Crown entity partners and other government agencies; local government; businesses; industry, sector, union and employer groups; consumer groups; Māori leaders; and scientists.

As the lead business-facing government agency, we are focussed on reducing the costs for business in dealing with government.

We are joined-up across our policy and operational activities to ensure we develop and implement ideas that work.

Our operating style is tight-loose-tight. We set sharp, clear expectations (tight); trust and empower our people to deliver (loose) and hold ourselves to account (tight).

Our character

Shape	We shape the agenda by challenging the status quo, and by generating and adopting new ideas, to bring those ideas to life.
Collaborate	We support each other, engage early and proactively partner in pursuit of shared goals.
Deliver	We have a can do attitude, take ownership, act with purpose, urgency and discipline, take calculated risks, celebrate success and learn as we go.

Our structure

The Ministry comprises around 3,200 staff operating in New Zealand with a further 400 staff in overseas locations.

The Ministry has eight business groups: Strategy and Governance; Corporate Services; Labour and Commercial Environment; Science, Skills and Innovation; Infrastructure and Resource Markets; Immigration New Zealand; Health and Safety; and Market Services.

The Immigration New Zealand group is responsible for bringing the best people to New Zealand to enhance New Zealand's social and economic outcomes.

This role is in Auckland Central Area Office within the Visa Services Branch of the Immigration New Zealand Group.

The functions of the Visa Services Branch are:

- Working collaboratively with stakeholders and government agencies on immigration activities
- Assessing and deciding visa applications
- Managing border security with regards to the movement of people
- Enforcing compliance with legislation and immigration activities
- Managing New Zealand's international immigration related commitments and obligations

Position purpose

The Immigration Officer is a team member position in MBIE. The Immigration Officer will bring their business understanding and perspective to work in partnership with their manager and other staff.

The Immigration Officer provides quality client service from within a range of immigration categories.

The Immigration Officer:

- processes applications through the effective administration of immigration policy and procedures, and in accordance with immigration law
- produces quality decisions that manage immigration risk and contribute to immigration outcomes
- works as an effective and cooperative member of a team.

The Immigration Officer is responsible for ensuring quality and consistency of advice and practices in relation to their contribution to the team's work.

Delegations

This role holds the following delegations

FINANCIAL	*N/A*
HR	*N/A*
OTHER	*N/A*

Reports to

Immigration Manager.

Key external relations

- Ministers and staff in Minister's offices
- Staff in other government agencies (IAA, MSD, DIA, MFAT, NZTE, NZ Police, NZ Customs, etc.)
- Visa Application Centre Providers
- Immigration Advisors/Lawyers
- Tourism and Education Sector representatives
- Five Country Conference Partners
- Employers
- Community Groups
- MBIE Clients

Key internal relations

- Area Office managers and staff
- Other Visa Services managers and staff
- Other manager and staff within Immigration
- Other managers and staff at MBIE

Key responsibilities

Responsibilities of this position are expected to change over time as the Ministry responds to changing needs. The incumbent will need the flexibility to adapt and develop as the environment evolves.

The key responsibilities of the Immigration Officer are:

Key responsibility	Indicators of success
Critical areas of success	The Immigration Officer will be required to deliver results in the following

Key responsibility	Indicators of success
	areas

Provide quality service	• Provide accurate and timely advice and information on all immigration law, policy and procedures to clients in an effective manner.
	
	• Manage client expectations:
	
	  o outline the expected application assessment process and timeframe as per established protocol
	
	  o keep the client up to date on the status of their application.
	
	• Record all client contact in Application Management System (AMS) or Knowledge Management (KM) tool.
	• Develop an understanding and maintain awareness of cultural diversity and its implication in client interaction.
	• Identify, prepare or contribute to responses to information requests under Privacy Act and Official Information Act.
	
	• Provide support services required for the efficient and productive operation of the branch.

Process and decide one or more types of immigration applications	• Assess and determine applications by complying with instructions and following the established assessment process. • Prioritise assessment of applications according to identified Government priorities as per the most current Internal Administration Circular (IAC). • Use established interviewing, site visit and assessment techniques to obtain all relevant information and determine its authenticity. • Make quality recommendations or decisions in accordance with the individual level of delegated authority, the principles of fairness and natural justice and understanding of immigration outcomes. • Refer applications to a Technical Advisor, Immigration Manager or peer for quality assurance purposes, if appropriate. • Prepare reports and letters that record and communicate decisions and reasons for these. • Provide regular reports that inform on progress in achieving planned results.
Risk identification and mitigation	• Identify and proactively manage and/or escalate risks regarding processing of applications and decisions. • Escalate if any of established risks are identified by referring to a Technical Advisor and/or Immigration Manager. • Use risk mitigation, verification processes and profiling tools/systems required for application assessment and document findings in AMS. • Seek appropriate managerial input when anticipating or managing risks. • Manage all application related material securely in accordance with the Privacy Act taking care to protect client's information.

Key responsibility	Indicators of success
Team Participation	- Contribute and collaborate as a team member to achieve common goals and objectives. - Support other members of the team to deliver on the overall team work outcomes. - Participate in, and undertake, quality control and two-person checking processes to the decision making process if required. - Attend and participate in team meetings and training.
Safety and wellbeing *Manages own personal health and safety, and takes appropriate action to deal with workplace hazards, accidents and incidents.*	- Displays commitment through actively supporting all safety and wellbeing initiatives. - Ensures own and others safety at all times. - Complies with relevant safety and wellbeing policies, procedures, safe systems of work and event reporting. - Reports all incidents/accidents, including near misses in a timely fashion. - Is involved in health and safety through participation and consultation.
Organisational commitment and public service *Role model the standards of Integrity and Conduct for the State Services.*	- Contributes to the development of, and helps promote and builds commitment to MBIE's vision, mission, values and services. - Willingly undertakes any duty required within the context of the position. - Understands Equal Employment Opportunities (EEO) principles and the application of these to MBIE. - Complies with all legislative requirements and good employer obligations.

Relationship Map

Collaborates internally to:	Reports to: Immigration Manager	
	The position holder:	
	• Supports their manager by building a proactive and effective relationship with them that results in resources being used to best effect.	
	• Supports achievement of agreed objectives by sharing information that results in high quality service delivery.	
Collaborates internally to:	**This role: Immigration Officer**	**Liaises externally to:**
• Create and maintain productive working relationships with managers and work colleagues across the Minisrty.	The Relationship Map shows the reach and focus of this role in managing relationships externally and internally. Through effective relationship management the position holder is expected to act as a departmental citizen and work for the Ministries best interest. They will:	• Develop and sustain constructive relationships with clients, agents/advisors, education providers, employers, Government, Work and Income, community groups, JPs, and Citizens Advice Bureau.
• Enable effective risk management and verification of applications.	a) Contribute and collaborate as a team member to achieve common goals and objectives.	• Promote a whole-of-Ministry view in external interactions.
• Provide information in a timely and appropriately targeted manner in response to request from and/or to support work colleagues.	b) Provide support that enables strong performance.	

Person specification

Prerequisites for Position

Must be able to gain and maintain Security Classification level	None applicable	Must hold or gain practising certificate/warrant	Immigration Officer Warrant
Must be a NZ Citizen or hold a residence class visa	Yes	Other	None

Experience/Knowledge

The ideal appointee will have	Depending on the level of the grading, the ideal appointee will have:
	• an understanding of the functions and philosophies of the New Zealand Immigration Service;
	• a knowledge of current Immigration law, policy, procedures and guide-lines;
	• a knowledge and understanding of the Privacy Act 1993 and the Official Information Act 1982;
	• a demonstrated knowledge and understanding of the principles of natural justice and fairness;
	• a knowledge of EEO principles and practices;
	• a demonstrated knowledge and understanding of Treaty of Waitangi issues and their current implications; and
	• in addition to English a knowledge of a language of a major client group of NZIS and/or exposure to overseas travel or other cultures would be an advantage.
	Depending on the level of the grading, the ideal appointee will have experience in:
	• assessing written work (applications) and exercising sound judgements;
	• working in a positive way with all people of differing cultural backgrounds, gender and abilities;
	• working effectively without direct supervision, managing and organising fluctuating workloads in sometimes stressful situations.
	• The preferred appointee will demonstrate:
	• good oral communication and interpersonal skills, encompassing putting the other party at ease, active listening, questioning, and summarising;
	• good writing skills, that is the ability to present ideas, information and advice, in a way that is understandable and acceptable by a range of audiences;
	• consistent decision making skills;
	• good keyboard skills;
	• sound analytical skills; and
	• a range and level of the competencies required for the full performance of the team.
	Personal Attributes
	• integrity in all transactions and interpersonal contacts;
	• energy and determination to achieve with a sense of urgency;
	• sensitivity to individual, gender and cultural differences in colleagues and clients;
	• the ability to learn from new experiences and situations.

		Educational Attainment	• A broad general educational background with some tertiary study would be an advantage

Capabilities for this position

Capabilities Definition			
People Cluster – Capabilities related to individuals interpersonal behaviours.			
☒	1	Collaboration	Works openly and harmoniously within teams and with others outside their area. Shares knowledge and ideas. Shows consideration and respect for others, valuing the different perspectives they bring to their work.
☒	2	Acting with Integrity	Builds trust with others by being fair and open in their dealings, keeping agreements, being consistent in their actions and maintaining confidentiality.
☐	3	Leading	Steps up to challenges, demonstrates commitment to their work and is a role model to others. Provides guidance formally and informally.
☐	4	Building Relationships	Projects credibility and builds rapport to establish effective working relationships with others. Manages differences of opinion with tact and diplomacy.
☐	5	Influencing	Gains agreement and commitment from others. Persuades and negotiates in a positive manner to achieve Departmental goals.
☒	6	Communication	Expresses opinions, concepts and information in an uncomplicated manner using a variety of communication styles to suit the audience.
☒	7	Client Focus	Delivers a targeted service to internal and external stakeholders. Works to a high standard and always looks for ways to do things

			better to deliver public value.
**Self Cluster – Capabilities related to how an individual conducts themselves at work.**
☒	8	**Self Management**	Takes responsibility and is open to development. Remains composed under pressure and recovers quickly from setbacks.
☐	9	**Action Oriented**	Takes responsibility for own work, recognises opportunities and acts with a minimum of direction.
☒	10	**Drive and Commitment**	Shows enthusiasm, determination and resilience. Works to a high standard and achieves results.
☐	11	**Adapts to Change**	Recognises the opportunities that change presents. Adapts and responds positively to change. At ease working in an uncertain or ambiguous environment.
☐	12	**Organisation Awareness**	Aware of how the Department functions. Knows how to use formal and informal networks to achieve goals.
☐	13	**Developing Expertise**	Eager to engage in learning experiences and build expertise. Learns through self reflection and analysing success and failures.
**Task Cluster – Capabilities related to individual's behaviours when completing tasks.**
☐	14	**Analysis and Research**	Gathers and analyses information to determine relationships, patterns, causes and effects. Identifies options and reaches rational conclusions.
☒	15	**Judgement and Decision Making**	Considers the information and options available. Makes timely decisions taking into account the wider context and likely consequences.
☐	16	**Strategic Thinking**	Recognises the context of the work environment and the factors that impact on the future direction of the Department in their work.

☐	17	**Innovation**	Produces new ideas and offers insights. Initiates new approaches to improve work practices. Builds on others ideas.
☒	18	**Planning and Organising**	Works in an organised and methodical manner to deliver results.
☒	19	**Following Directions and Procedures**	Recognises and respects the need for and relevance of policies, procedures and management.

Appendix 2: the *TES 2010-2015*

CONTENTS

1

MINISTER'S FOREWORD

I AM PLEASED TO PRESENT THE TERTIARY EDUCATION STRATEGY 2010-15. IN THE NEXT FIVE YEARS, WE ARE LOOKING FOR TERTIARY EDUCATION TO DO MORE TO HELP SET OUR COUNTRY ON A STRONG COURSE FOR THE FUTURE.

We are taking a long-term view of our investment in tertiary education. The Strategy therefore emphasises this Government's focus on helping young people to achieve to their highest potential. Forecasts show that the Government will not be able to draw on new money for some time. This means that we face difficult choices about where to focus our efforts.

The financial outlook also means that we will have to do better with what we have. We want to lift the performance of the tertiary education sector so that more people complete qualifications and go on to find good employment. The skills they gain in tertiary education are crucial to lifting our productivity as a nation. We want research in tertiary institutions to deliver the knowledge New Zealand needs to meet the challenges of the future. New ideas will be a driving force behind helping our businesses to compete on the global stage.

Over the next five years, you will see further changes to the system as we continue our efforts to make tertiary education more relevant and more efficient, so that it meets the needs of students, the labour market and the economy. I am committed to working with everyone in the sector to achieve our vision of a world-leading system.

Anne Tolley
Minister for Tertiary Education

INTRODUCTION

HIGH-QUALITY TERTIARY EDUCATION IS CENTRAL TO HELPING NEW ZEALAND ACHIEVE ITS ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, CULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL GOALS.

The Government, students, their families, whānau, iwi and communities invest significant resources in tertiary education. The Government alone invests around $4 billion each year. Rising demand for tertiary study in a period of significant fiscal constraint means that we expect our investment to be used efficiently and effectively by tertiary education organisations and students. We want to enable providers to be innovative and responsive to the needs and aspirations of students.

The Government has identified six main structural policy drivers that will improve our economic performance and support more sustainable growth in future. These are improving the regulatory environment for business, lifting the performance of the public sector, supporting innovation and business, ensuring New Zealand has the skills it needs, improving infrastructure, and making the tax system as fair and efficient as possible. The tertiary system will play a key role in the skills

driver, which is focused on improving literacy and numeracy, youth achievement, and tertiary system performance. It will also play an important part in supporting the evolution and growth of industries through the innovation and business support driver.

This Tertiary Education Strategy describes the Government's strategic direction for tertiary education over the next five to 10 years. It outlines the Government's priorities in terms of the shifts we expect to see, and intend to do something about, over the next investment plan cycle, starting in 2011.

This Strategy will revoke and replace the previous Tertiary Education Strategy 2007 – 12, as required by the Education Act 1989. It guides the Tertiary Education Commission's investment decisions, to maximise tertiary education's contribution to New Zealand.

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THE GOVERNMENT'S VISION

PART ONE: STRATEGIC DIRECTION

1.1 OVERARCHING EDUCATION VISION

The Government's vision is for a world-leading education system that equips all New Zealanders with the knowledge, skills and values to be successful citizens in the 21st century.

A world-leading education system is an important first step towards a productive and growing economy that delivers greater prosperity, security and opportunity for all New Zealanders.

1.2 VISION FOR TERTIARY EDUCATION

Access to high-quality tertiary education enriches people's lives, increases their employment opportunities and helps to build a productive skills base to drive economic growth. The Government wants relevant and efficient tertiary education provision that meets the needs of students, the labour market and the economy. We will continue work to develop and implement changes to how the system is funded, regulated and administered.

The effectiveness of tertiary education in achieving this vision depends on the quality of provision, the choices students make and the responsiveness of providers and industry training organisations (ITOs) to students and employers. We expect the tertiary education system to:

- provide New Zealanders of all backgrounds with opportunities to gain world-class skills and knowledge
- raise the skills and knowledge of the current and future workforce to meet labour market demand and social needs
- produce high-quality research to build on New Zealand's knowledge base, respond to the needs of the economy and address environmental and social challenges
- enable Māori to enjoy education success as Māori.

PROVIDE NEW ZEALANDERS OF ALL BACKGROUNDS WITH OPPORTUNITIES TO GAIN WORLD-CLASS SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE

The broad nature of New Zealand's tertiary education system reflects the wide range of learning needs of New Zealanders. Demand for tertiary education comes from young people seeking to build on the foundation they have formed at school, workers seeking additional skills to advance or change their career, and adults wanting to improve their literacy and numeracy skills.

The tertiary education sector should respond to the diverse needs of all the groups it serves. In some cases, this will mean providing targeted services to create an inclusive environment for a diverse student body that includes, for example, students with disabilities. Groups of students with low completion rates, such as Pasifika, are likely to require tailored support to ensure success in tertiary education.

RAISE THE SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE OF THE CURRENT AND FUTURE WORKFORCE TO MEET LABOUR MARKET DEMAND AND SOCIAL NEEDS

New Zealand faces a big challenge to overcome its historically low productivity rates and to deliver greater prosperity and opportunity for New Zealanders. Developing skills is important for our long-term productivity and future growth.

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Higher skills increase the productivity of individuals and the productivity of others they work with. Skills underpin firms' ability to innovate and apply new ideas, and adapt to competitive challenges and new markets.

Tertiary education plays a key role in improving the skills and knowledge of the workforce, and in building on New Zealand's knowledge base through research. International students studying at New Zealand institutions are an additional source of skills and knowledge for the New Zealand labour market.

PRODUCE HIGH-QUALITY RESEARCH TO BUILD ON NEW ZEALAND'S KNOWLEDGE BASE, RESPOND TO THE NEEDS OF THE ECONOMY AND ADDRESS ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIAL CHALLENGES

Researchers in tertiary institutions, particularly universities but also polytechnics and wānanga, undertake a significant proportion of research in New Zealand. They cooperate with other research organisations, firms, iwi and communities to develop and apply new ideas. International research partnerships allow New Zealand institutions to tap into a wider pool of knowledge and build our capability.

Innovation is critically important for New Zealand's economy as a driver of productivity growth. Research supports innovation by building New Zealand's knowledge base, developing better ways of applying existing knowledge for commercial use and addressing social and environmental concerns. Tertiary institutions need to work more closely with business to ensure that research meets the needs of the economy.

Research needs to inform teaching, both in academic and applied settings. This enables the development of human, social and cultural capital, as tertiary education institutions play a key role in spreading knowledge and in transferring technology through teaching.

Tertiary education institutions provide nearly all the research training in New Zealand. Postgraduate students also undertake a significant amount of research at tertiary education institutions. Holders of research degrees play a particular role in the labour market, as their critical thinking skills are vital for innovation.

ENABLE MĀORI TO ENJOY EDUCATION SUCCESS AS MĀORI

Māori have a unique place as tangata whenua and partners to the Treaty of Waitangi. Tertiary education has a particular responsibility to maintain and develop Māori language and culture to support Māori living as Māori in both Te Ao Māori and in wider society.

Māori business and development are making a major contribution to New Zealand's economy and society. The tertiary education system assists Māori learners to gain the knowledge and skills to lead social, cultural and economic development, manage Māori assets and grow Māori innovation and creativity. In particular, tertiary education plays a major part in promoting the revitalisation of te reo Māori.

The tertiary education system helps to develop the skills, competencies and knowledge needed for Māori to participate in the economy and in society. Evidence shows that acknowledging and advancing Māori language, culture and identity is important in providing a basis for Māori success in all forms of education. Given that one in five tertiary students are Māori, outcomes for Māori students are a critical measure of quality for all tertiary education providers and the success of this Strategy. Effective transitions into tertiary education are critical for Māori students to reach their full potential.

Tertiary sector research, particularly by wānanga, will help to support development of the knowledge base needed to manage cultural and economic assets and to maintain strong and prospering whānau, hapū and iwi.

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CHANGES WE ARE LOOKING FOR
IN THE SHORT TERM TO PROGRESS
TOWARDS OUR LONG-TERM GOALS

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PRIORITIES

THE STRATEGIC DIRECTION ABOVE SETS OUT THE GOVERNMENT'S VISION FOR TERTIARY EDUCATION AND THE LONG-TERM DIRECTION IT WANTS THE SECTOR TO TAKE. THIS PART OF THE TERTIARY EDUCATION STRATEGY SETS OUT THE CHANGES WE ARE LOOKING FOR IN THE SHORT TERM TO PROGRESS TOWARDS OUR LONG-TERM GOALS.

2.1 THE GOVERNMENT'S TERTIARY EDUCATION PRIORITIES FOR THE NEXT THREE TO FIVE YEARS

The economy has contracted significantly due to the global downturn and local recession, curtailing government income at the same time as increasing the costs of social welfare and debt servicing. The recession is also raising demand for tertiary education. In this economic environment, the Government will ensure the tertiary system achieves the best return on the public's investment. We will do this by:

- increasing the number of young people (aged under 25) achieving qualifications at levels four and above, particularly degrees

- increasing the number of Māori students enjoying success at higher levels

- increasing the number of Pasifika students achieving at higher levels

- increasing the number of young people moving successfully from school into tertiary education

- improving literacy, language, and numeracy and skills outcomes from levels one to three study

- improving the educational and financial performance of providers

- strengthening research outcomes.

2.2 HOW THE PRIORITIES WILL BE ACHIEVED

In a tight fiscal environment, the Government is unable to provide significant funding increases to meet the growing demand for tertiary education. We will need to move funding away from low-quality qualifications (such as those with low completion rates or poor educational or labour market outcomes) to fund growth in high-quality qualifications that benefit New Zealanders and contribute to economic growth.

Providers will need to manage costs, continue to seek efficiency gains, ensure the qualifications they offer best meet student and employer needs, and explore additional sources of revenue. A key driver to improve the efficiency of public investment in tertiary education is to improve course and qualification completion rates.

The Government is committed to maintaining reasonable fees for students, but will explore ways of giving providers some additional flexibility to raise revenue.

The Government has identified the approach we wish the sector to take to achieve our short-term priorities and long-term direction. We have decided to:

- target priority groups

- improve system performance

- support high-quality research that helps to drive innovation.

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2.2.1 TARGETING PRIORITY GROUPS

Although we are committed to retaining broad access to tertiary education, in a constrained fiscal environment, we will need to give priority to the following groups of learners and types of study.

MORE YOUNG PEOPLE (AGED UNDER 25) ACHIEVING QUALIFICATIONS AT LEVELS FOUR AND ABOVE, PARTICULARLY DEGREES
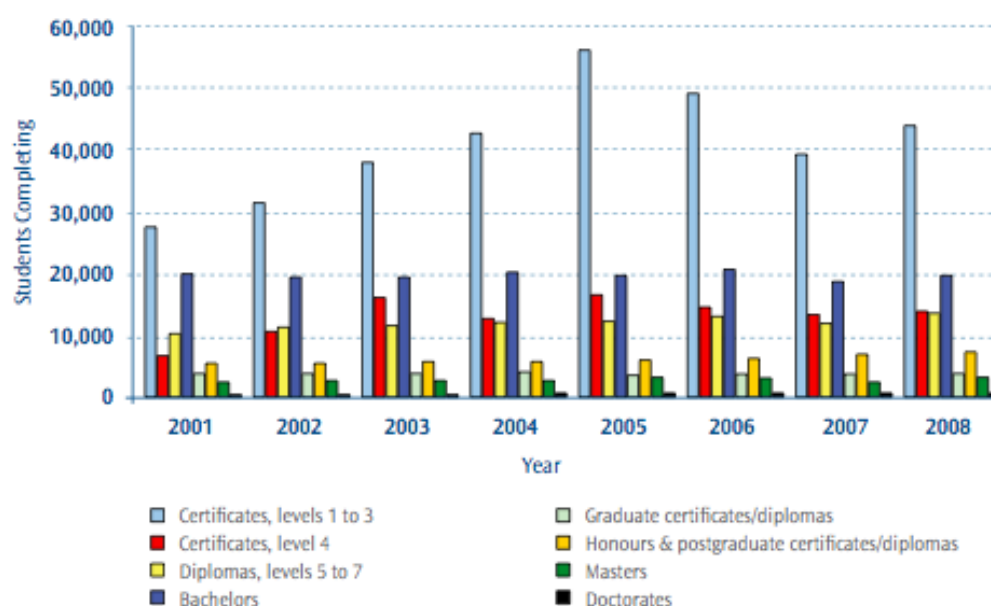
There is a significant wage premium for people who complete higher-level study, particularly bachelors degrees. Skills are regarded as one of the Government's six key productivity drivers. For New Zealand to increase its rate of productivity growth, a change in the skill level of the working population is needed. We need more people completing degrees (including applied degrees) and advanced trade qualifications (typically at levels four to six).

Increasing the number of people achieving higher-level qualifications remains a key challenge. Although the number of people completing tertiary education in New Zealand has increased significantly since 2000, most of the increase in qualifications completions has been at levels one to three. The number of people completing degrees has remained largely constant since 2000.

The Government will therefore be looking at funding settings to create incentives for more young people to achieve qualifications at levels four and above. In a capped funding environment, this will involve reducing government funding for some qualifications at levels one to three that do not assist students into higher-level learning or employment, or do not improve their literacy, language and numeracy skills.

QUALIFICATION COMPLETIONS BY LEVEL, 2001 – 2008

- Certificates, levels 1 to 3
- Certificates, level 4
- Diplomas, levels 5 to 7
- Bachelors
- Graduate certificates/diplomas
- Honours & postgraduate certificates/diplomas
- Masters
- Doctorates

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MORE MĀORI STUDENTS ENJOYING SUCCESS AT HIGHER LEVELS

All tertiary education organisations need to take responsibility for strengthening Māori education, creative activity and research outcomes.

The participation rate for Māori students in levels one to three qualifications (10%) was nearly double that of the other ethnic groups in 2007. By contrast, participation rates for Māori aged 18 to 19 in degree-level study remain at less than half the rate for all students, and the completion rates for Māori at bachelors level are also lower.

Tertiary providers and ITOs need to focus on improving their pastoral and academic support and the learning environment, and must adopt teaching practices that are culturally responsive to Māori students. Particular emphasis is needed to improve progression to, and achievement at, higher levels of study.

We also want to strengthen the delivery of high-quality te reo Māori provision. Improving the quality of te reo Māori in initial teacher education programmes will be important in helping Māori to achieve success throughout the education system.

MORE PASIFIKA STUDENTS ACHIEVING AT HIGHER LEVELS

The tertiary education sector can also play a key role in meeting the development needs and aspirations of Pasifika peoples in New Zealand.

While the last five years have seen a greater proportion of Pasifika people in tertiary education studying at bachelor level or above, they are still over-represented in lower-level study. Completion rates for Pasifika students are lower than for any other group.

Tertiary education providers and ITOs need to focus on how they can assist Pasifika students to progress to and achieve at higher levels of study. This will involve working with Pasifika community groups and improving pastoral and academic support, learning environments, and pathways into tertiary education.

MORE YOUNG PEOPLE MOVING SUCCESSFULLY FROM SCHOOL INTO TERTIARY EDUCATION

The Government wants to have more young people engaged in and successfully completing tertiary education. Completing a vocational or professional qualification early in adult life has a higher return for both the individual and society. Those who enrol in tertiary education directly from school are more likely to complete a qualification than students who enter from the workforce or unemployment, largely because school leavers are more likely to study full time and have fewer other commitments. Targeting young people can therefore improve the return on public funding.

New Zealand also has relatively low participation rates in all types of education at ages 15 to 19. Seventy-four per cent of 15 to 19 year olds in New Zealand were enrolled in education in 2006 (compared to the OECD average of 81.5%). A key factor in this is low school retention rates, although in part this is offset by above average enrolment rates in post-school education. Many young people (particularly those with lower school qualification levels) fail to successfully make the transition from schooling to tertiary education. Completion rates in lower-level tertiary study are also poor, and there is little progression to higher-level study.

A range of factors affect the engagement of young people in tertiary education, including:

- how the Government funds institutions and students
- school achievement levels
- the information and advice students and their families receive on study paths and options for higher education
- the learning environment at tertiary organisations, including the effectiveness of teaching, and the academic and pastoral support students receive.

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We will be looking at all of these factors to identify ways to improve young people's engagement and achievement in tertiary education. As a first step, we are providing fees-free tertiary study for some 16 and 17 year olds through the Youth Guarantee programme. In a constrained fiscal environment, targeting more support towards young people may require the Government to re-examine the level of assistance for those people who have already been supported to undertake tertiary education.

IMPROVE LITERACY, LANGUAGE, AND NUMERACY AND SKILLS OUTCOMES FROM LEVELS ONE TO THREE STUDY

Many level three certificates are essential qualifications for trades and vocations, and offer the people in the workforce the opportunity to upskill. Level one and two certificates offer people with low school qualifications, or with literacy, language and numeracy needs, the chance to re-enter the education system. Improving literacy, language and numeracy skills is a priority as they provide a foundation for further study or employment.

Informal education provided by the adult and community education sector can play a key role in literacy, language and numeracy learning, in particular by targeting people whose initial learning was not successful.

Intensive literacy training in the workplace engages hard-to-reach learners and provides productivity benefits to employers. Including literacy, language and numeracy education in industry training, apprenticeships and training for unemployed people improves their success.

For tertiary study to be effective for second-chance learners, the quality of teaching and learning needs to improve to raise completion rates. Students who need to improve their literacy, language and numeracy skills should be able to do so. Informal and lower-level certificate study needs to offer clear pathways through to higher-level tertiary study and skilled employment.

We will:

- look at how we resource and support lower-level tertiary education

- reduce the proliferation of provider qualifications

- continue to work with providers and ITOs to embed literacy, language and numeracy in levels one to three qualifications

- continue to support intensive literacy programmes in workplaces

- prioritise qualifications that link strongly to higher-level learning and skilled employment.

2.2.2 IMPROVING SYSTEM PERFORMANCE

The Government, students, and their families invest significant resources in tertiary education. They need to be sure that qualifications are high quality and relevant for their requirements.

In the 2009/10 financial year, the Government is forecast to spend over $4 billion on tertiary education. Some $2.9 billion will be invested directly in tertiary education organisations, while the remainder, $1.1 billion, will be spent on student support.

The Government wants to see ongoing improvements in the performance of the system. In particular, we want providers and industry training organisations to be more responsive to the demands of both students and industry and to make better use of scarce resources. We expect to see better course and qualification completion and progression rates for students as a result of higher-quality teaching and learning, and more effective and culturally responsive pastoral care. Public tertiary providers need to ensure they are financially viable so they can provide quality education on an ongoing basis.

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To improve sector performance, we need to:

- enhance quality assurance
- provide better incentives for providers to respond to students and market signals, by:
  - making provider-level performance information publicly available
  - linking funding more closely to performance
- support and encourage student performance
- strengthen collaboration and shared resources for greater efficiency
- continue to build international linkages.

ENHANCE QUALITY ASSURANCE

The Government will continue to put in place the new quality assurance framework for tertiary education, which focuses on providers being accountable for, and continuously improving, their educational outcomes.

The quality assurance framework must give students and industry confidence in the quality of tertiary education. Reports on the external evaluation and review of a tertiary education organisation will be published, and will contribute to funding decisions.

We are also taking steps to reduce the proliferation of sub-degree qualifications. The number of qualifications has increased considerably, due to individual providers developing their own qualifications. These provider qualifications have significantly increased the number of certificate and diploma qualifications in particular subject areas. We will strengthen the role of national qualifications and manage the growth of provider qualifications. This will ensure that students and employers have access to a simpler qualifications system with strong links between lower and higher-level qualifications.

PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR PROVIDERS TO RESPOND BETTER TO STUDENTS AND MARKET SIGNALS

We are moving, over time, to make meaningful performance information about individual providers and ITOs widely available. This will allow students and employers to make informed decisions about tertiary education, and create an incentive for providers and ITOs to improve performance.

As well as publishing the findings of external reviews of providers, we will make other quantitative and qualitative performance information about providers available to students. This information will include retention and completion rates, and information on the employment outcomes of study.

At present, most performance information available to the public is at a sub-sector level, for instance comparing universities and polytechnics. Publishing performance information for individual tertiary education organisations can:

- strengthen the accountability of providers and ITOs who receive public funding
- provide information that can be used by students, prospective students, their parents, families, whānau and their advisors
- provide information to employers about the outcomes from particular qualifications.

The Government wants a tertiary system that rewards successful providers who demonstrate that they meet the needs of students and employers, for instance through their connections with firms. The system will also reward providers who respond to market signals, including the changing skill needs of industries.

Funding allocations to tertiary education organisations will be linked to their past performance. Initially this will be focussed on results achieved by students but will include outcomes, such as post-study employment, as this information becomes available.

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STRENGTHEN COLLABORATION AND SHARED RESOURCES FOR GREATER EFFICIENCY

For students to successfully progress from lower to higher-level study, it will often make sense for them to transfer from one provider type to another. For example, a student might move from a polytechnic to a university, from a polytechnic to an ITO or from a university to a wānanga.

Better enabling students to transfer among the different sub-sectors is both beneficial for students and a more efficient use of resources, as it reduces the need for students to repeat prior learning. Providers and ITOs should therefore work together to create integrated pathways for students, including shared delivery of qualifications.

Providers and ITOs should also explore opportunities to share services where such sharing has the potential to deliver benefits for students and greater efficiency for providers.

SUPPORT AND ENCOURAGE STUDENT PERFORMANCE

The Government wants to provide as much support as it can to students who are doing well. We want students to study at the highest level they can and to complete the qualifications they set out to achieve as quickly as they can.

We need to continue to support students to study full time, as evidence shows this is a big factor in completion rates. Providers also need to focus on the non-academic needs of students and ensure that they have a good environment in which to perform. We expect providers to create learning environments that support progression and completion by a diverse range of students. For example, programmes are successful for Māori students when they employ culturally responsive pedagogies and take a teaching approach that is relevant to experiences of Māori students.

We also expect students to take responsibility for their own performance. Government policy settings will set clear expectations that students should gain qualifications. For example, student allowances currently have a requirement that students pass more than half of a full-time qualification in each year of assisted study. We are looking at other funding settings to see if it is possible to introduce further incentives for student performance.

CONTINUE TO BUILD INTERNATIONAL LINKS

Strong international linkages can improve the quality of teaching and research in New Zealand institutions. The tertiary sector has a major role in the inward and outward flow of ideas and people. New Zealand providers and ITOs need to connect and collaborate with overseas institutions and ensure that both students and academics can benefit from these global links.

The flow of international students can boost the incomes of New Zealand institutions and contribute to more diverse learning environments for New Zealand students. The Government will continue to focus on building international confidence in the New Zealand education system. We will support government-to-government relationships in areas of strategic opportunity for the growth of international students, services and broader international connections. We will review policy settings to maximise the contribution of international education to New Zealand's economic performance.

Institutions should ensure that their international education activities are managed to achieve high-quality learning for international students, education benefits for New Zealand students and greater financial viability for the institution.

2.2.3 SUPPORTING QUALITY RESEARCH THAT HELPS TO DRIVE INNOVATION

The Government is taking a long-term perspective on research and innovation policies, and believes New Zealand must have a strong contribution to research and innovation from the tertiary education sector. Research-driven innovation will be a major factor in helping New Zealand industries to become more productive.

The Performance-Based Research Fund has been successful in promoting quality improvements in universities, including increasing the number of research degree students, and will continue to enhance research quality. We need to do further work on how best to support research in other tertiary institutions.

As well as underpinning good teaching, high-quality research is critical for economic growth. However, public investment in research on its own does not drive economic growth: it is firms' use of research that increases productivity and improves economic performance. We need better linkages between firms, tertiary institutions (particularly universities) and Crown Research Institutes in order to increase the economic returns of publicly funded research.

Research in universities needs to combine excellence with impact. In particular, we will ensure that the Performance-Based Research Fund recognises research of direct relevance to the needs of firms and its dissemination to them. We will also ensure there are further incentives for tertiary education organisations, other research organisations and firms to work together.

Strong international connections can improve the quality of research in New Zealand institutions and open up opportunities for different types of research to be undertaken. New Zealand tertiary institutions have increased their international connections markedly, and we expect them to continue to foster and strengthen collaborative research.

UNIVERSITIES, POLYTECHNICS,
WĀNANGA, PRIVATE TRAINING
ESTABLISHMENTS, INDUSTRY
TRAINING ORGANISATIONS, OTHER
TERTIARY EDUCATION PROVIDERS

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3.1 EXPECTATIONS OF PROVIDERS

New Zealand has a broad range of tertiary education providers to meet the varying post-school education needs of New Zealanders. Tertiary education organisations can be grouped into six sub-sectors – universities, polytechnics, wānanga, private training establishments, industry training organisations and other tertiary education providers.

The Government wants providers and ITOs to offer quality education by focusing on what they do best. We support specialisation by providers to offer specific qualifications.

Due to constrained government resources, the tertiary education sector will need to live within its means and do more with less. To encourage efficient and high-quality provision, high-performing providers will attract more resources, particularly through performance-linked funding.

We expect providers and industry training organisations to focus on:

- increasing the number of young people (aged under 25) achieving at levels four and above, particularly degrees
- increasing the number of Māori students enjoying success at higher levels
- increasing the number of Pasifika students achieving at higher levels
- increasing the number of young people moving successfully from school into tertiary education
- improving literacy, language, and numeracy and skills outcomes from levels one to three study
- improving their educational and financial performance
- strengthening research outcomes.

People with disabilities are less likely to participate in tertiary education. They also tend to study at lower levels and are generally older. The Government expects all providers to offer an inclusive education environment that caters to the needs of students with disabilities to improve participation and achievement, particularly at higher levels.

We expect that all providers and ITOs will strengthen their engagement with iwi and Māori communities. The sector also needs to be responsive to Pasifika communities.

We expect the entire sector to supply skills that are relevant to the labour market. Tertiary providers need to make better connections with industry and ensure they are aware of the likely demand for skills. They should draw on work undertaken by ITOs to identify industry skill demands as part of their industry leadership role.

UNIVERSITIES

Universities have three core roles:

- to undertake research that adds to the store of knowledge
- to provide a wide range of research-led degree and postgraduate education that is of an international standard
- to act as sources of critical thinking and intellectual talent.

The Government expects universities to:

- enable a wide range of students to successfully complete degree and postgraduate qualifications
- undertake internationally recognised original research
- create and share new knowledge that contributes to New Zealand's economic and social development and environmental management.

POLYTECHNICS

Polytechnics have three core roles:

- to deliver vocational education that provides skills for employment
- to undertake applied research that supports vocational learning and technology transfer
- to assist progression to higher levels of learning or work through foundation education.

The Government expects polytechnics to:

- enable a wide range of students to complete industry-relevant certificate, diploma and applied degree qualifications
- enable local access to appropriate tertiary education
- support students with low literacy, language and numeracy skills to improve these skills and progress to higher levels of learning
- work with industry to ensure that vocational learning meets industry needs.

WĀNANGA

Wānanga have three core roles:

- to provide quality education in accordance with kaupapa Māori philosophies, principles and approaches
- to undertake teaching and research that maintains, advances and disseminates knowledge, develops intellectual independence, and assists the application of knowledge regarding āhuatanga Māori according to tikanga Māori
- to contribute towards the survival and well-being of Māori as a people.

The Government expects wānanga to:

- create and share new Māori knowledge that contributes to whānau, hapū and iwi prosperity and New Zealand's economic, social, cultural and environmental development
- make an increasing contribution to sector-wide leadership through advancing mātauranga Māori at all qualification levels and across all fields of study
- enable students to complete a range of sub-degree, degree and postgraduate qualifications, with clear study paths to higher levels of learning through a Māori paradigm.

PRIVATE TRAINING ESTABLISHMENTS

Private training establishments have two core roles:

- to offer flexible and responsive education programmes
- to focus on specific areas of study.

The Government expects private training establishments to:

- enable students to complete high-quality qualifications that lead to employment or higher-level education
- deliver tailored learning opportunities, such as marae and iwi-based provision and Pasifika learning environments
- provide specialised qualifications and training.

INDUSTRY TRAINING ORGANISATIONS

Industry training organisations have three core roles:

- to design national qualifications and run moderation systems to ensure fair, valid and consistent assessment against national standards
- to arrange for the delivery of industry training that enables trainees to attain these standards
- to provide leadership to their industries on skill and training matters, identify current and future skill needs, and work with employers and employees to meet those needs.

The Government expects industry training organisations to:

- enable working New Zealanders to complete nationally recognised qualifications
- create clear pathways towards advanced trade qualifications at levels four and above
- build and maintain strong support from the industries they serve.

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ADULT AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Adult and community education has three core roles:

- to serve learners whose first learning experience was unsuccessful
- to assist those seeking pathways into tertiary learning
- to assist people who lack the literacy, language and numeracy skills for work and further study.

The Government expects adult and community education to:

- engage learners who have not been well served by education in the past
- improve literacy, language and numeracy skills for individuals and whānau
- contribute to the overall cohesiveness of the community.

3.2 EXPECTATIONS OF STUDENTS

The Government wants students to do well and to achieve the best qualifications they can. We are committed to providing student support to assist students financially while they study, and to improving the information that students receive to allow them to make good decisions about what and where to study.

Given the significant investment the Government makes in students both through tuition subsidies and student support, students are expected to take responsibility for their own performance. While government policy settings need to set clear expectations that students should gain qualifications, students also need to work closely with providers to ensure they achieve to the best of their ability and make the most of their learning environment.

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TERTIARY CONTRIBUTION TO
NEW ZEALAND SOCIETY

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MONITORING

It is vital that we can see the real value of the public investment in tertiary education. We will continue to undertake system-level monitoring that assesses the broad contribution that tertiary education makes to New Zealand's economy and society.

We recognise, however, that it will take time for the strategic direction set out in the Strategy to be realised and for the specific goals to be reflected in completions and other successful study outcomes. To be able to judge how well things are going during the next five years, we will need to measure key indicators to confirm that the tertiary system is moving in the right direction.

Some early indications that we are making progress towards the Government's goals for tertiary education will be:

- more people aged under 25 enrolling in higher-level qualifications
- higher first-year retention rates, particularly for Māori and Pasifika students
- more young people moving from school directly into tertiary education
- more people participating in qualifications that improve their literacy, language and numeracy skills.

By the end of the period of this Strategy, we expect to see:

- more people completing their qualifications across the board, and specifically:
  - more people aged under 25 completing qualifications at levels four and above, particularly degrees
  - more Māori students enjoying success at higher levels
  - more Pasifika students achieving at higher levels
  - more disabled people completing higher-level qualifications
- stronger financial performance in tertiary education organisations
- students in levels one to three qualifications improving their literacy, language and numeracy skills
- more students progressing from certificate courses into higher-level qualifications
- more high-quality research that meets New Zealand's economic, social and environmental needs
- more providers working with businesses to drive innovation.

In the long term, we would expect that shifts in these indicators would lead to innovation and productivity improvements that drive economic growth.

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APPENDIX: CONTEXT AND TRENDS

THE GLOBAL RECESSION HAS HAD A SIGNIFICANT IMPACT ON THE GOVERNMENT'S BUDGET

The global recession has had a significant impact on the Government's budget. New Zealand's economic growth has been affected by contractions in investment, private consumption and trade volumes, leading to rising unemployment. Tax revenues have fallen, and the cost of social welfare and debt servicing is increasing.

After 15 years of surpluses, the Government is now facing significant deficits. This economic environment means that the Government will need to exercise restraint on its spending and focus on areas where it can achieve the best results. Our ability to provide extra funding for tertiary education is limited and must be considered against priorities in other areas, such as health and social welfare spending. The Government will be looking to the sector to assist by ensuring that the funding already provided is used in the most efficient and effective way possible. The global downturn is likely to persist over the next few years.

The economic recession is also raising demand for tertiary education, both in new enrolments and existing students increasing their study load or enrolling in further study. As firms put off growth or downsize to cope with the impact of the recession, more people are seeking to enter education and training to improve their skill levels, and be in a better position to take advantage of opportunities when economic conditions improve. There will continue to be significant enrolment pressures on many providers in 2010.

These factors mean that the Government, our agencies and individual organisations, need to make clear choices about the priorities for investment and access, and more efficient and effective use of resources.

GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE ON TERTIARY EDUCATION HAS INCREASED SIGNIFICANTLY

Government expenditure on tertiary education in New Zealand has increased significantly at an average rate of around 6% a year in real terms since 2000.

In the 2009/10 financial year, the Government is forecast to spend a total of $4 billion on tertiary education. This represents 36% of total education expenditure. $2.8 billion will be invested directly in tertiary education organisations, while the remainder, $1.1 billion, will be spent on student support initiatives.

The most significant funds are (all figures 2009/10):

- Student Achievement Component ($1.604 billion)
- Tertiary Education Organisation Component: Capability Fund ($419.5 million)
- Tertiary Education Organisation Component: Performance-based Research Fund ($242 million)
- Student Loans (cost to Government): ($683 million)
- Student Allowances ($462 million)
- Industry Training Fund ($168 million)
- Modern Apprenticeships ($50 million)
- Training Opportunities ($78.5 million)
- Youth Training ($59 million).

CHARACTERISTICS OF NEW ZEALAND'S TERTIARY EDUCATION SYSTEM

New Zealand's tertiary education sector makes a wide range of learning available, from foundation skills to doctoral studies and vocational education at providers and in the workplace. Through its research activities, the sector is a major contributor to New Zealand's innovation system.

Tertiary education in New Zealand encompasses all post-school education:

- certificates and diplomas
- bachelors degrees
- industry training
- literacy, language and numeracy learning
- adult and community education
- postgraduate qualifications.

Tertiary education also includes qualifications delivered in secondary schools, which are designed to strengthen the interface between the secondary and tertiary education systems.

There are three kinds of public tertiary education institutions – universities, polytechnics and wānanga. New Zealand also has over 700 private training establishments, 39 industry training organisations, 8 government training establishments and 14 other tertiary education providers.

Universities are primarily concerned with advanced learning and research. Polytechnics are mainly focused on vocational training at certificate and diploma level and applied degrees. Wānanga are public tertiary institutions that provide programmes with an emphasis on the application of mātauranga Māori regarding āhuatanga Māori, according to tikanga Māori. Private training establishments meet a range of different education needs; some receive government funding and others are fully funded by students. Industry training organisations set national standards and manage training arrangements to enable employees to achieve these standards.

The Government invests nearly $4 billion each year in tertiary education and training; substantial investments are also made by students, their families and industry. In 2008, more than 630,000 New Zealanders, or around 20% of the adult population, participated in formal tertiary study, including industry training.

CONTRIBUTION OF TERTIARY EDUCATION TO NEW ZEALAND

An effective tertiary education system will underpin New Zealand's ability to prosper economically and build a strong society into the future.

The skills and knowledge people gain through tertiary education improve their chances of employment and increase their earnings. Higher education levels have been linked to better general well-being, better health and greater social mobility. Tertiary-educated people are more involved in the community and are more likely to vote and stand for public office.

A larger supply of skilled labour allows the economy as a whole to move to a more productive footing. In New Zealand, the tertiary education system generates many of the ideas that lead to innovation: new products or services, infrastructure improvements and better ways to work. A good skills base and the capacity to innovate together allow greater and more efficient production, which raises gross domestic product, promotes economic growth and improves New Zealand's ability to compete internationally.

The tertiary education system links New Zealand to the outside world, both through the exchange of knowledge and skills, and through the flow of students.

Tertiary education plays a vital role in democracy by promoting freedom of thought and expression. New Zealand's culture is enriched through tertiary education's role in theatre, dance, music, literature and art. Tertiary education helps to transmit the wider culture, including āhuatanga Māori and tikanga Māori, within society and between generations. It can serve to raise the consciousness of the population about the environment.

Tertiary education also has a direct impact on New Zealand's economy. Providers can be substantial employers of staff and their presence has a significant impact on the region in which they are located. International students are a major source of export earnings for New Zealand.

Student fees significantly increase provider revenue and, together with the sale of other education goods and services, have significant spin-off benefits to the economy. In 2007, the contribution of export education to New Zealand's gross domestic product was estimated at over $2 billion.

TRENDS

Participation in tertiary education has grown

Tertiary education participation has expanded all over the world. At the same time, tertiary education has become more international, with greater global networking, more mobile staff and students, and higher levels of international collaboration (particularly in research).

New Zealand has a high rate of participation in tertiary education, which has grown strongly since the 1990s. Until 2005, much of the growth in participation was in certificate and diploma-level study at providers and in industry training, and by older students. Recent years have seen a fall in enrolments at levels one to three and of older students, and increases in enrolments at degree level and above driven by the growing population of young people.

International students remain an important part of New Zealand's tertiary education system. In 2008, the 28 public tertiary education institutions enrolled 29,127 international fee-paying students, and earned $318 million in fees income from these students.

Demand for tertiary education is changing

Demand for tertiary education in New Zealand is currently affected by the 'baby blip'. From 2007 to 2011, there will be a larger number of young people aged 15 to 19. More of these young people are leaving school with university entrance, increasing the demand for higher-level tertiary study.

The tertiary education system needs to ensure it can meet the educational needs of an increasingly diverse population. The ethnic make-up of the 15 to 39 year age group, the group most likely to participate in tertiary education, is changing due to higher proportions of Māori, Pasifika and Asian peoples of that age. Over the next 20 years, the growth in our workforce is expected to come from these young people. Completion rates indicate that tertiary education is currently not serving some groups of students well, Pasifika, for instance, have the lowest completion rates of any group.

NATIONAL POPULATION PROJECTIONS
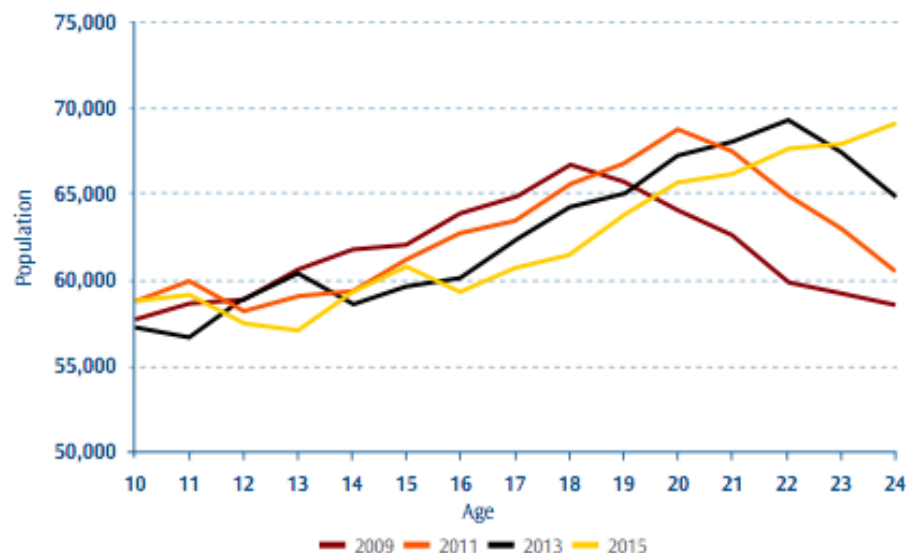
Source: Statistics New Zealand, National Population Projections, 2009 Base, series 6.

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New Zealand Government

Source: Ministry of Education, 2009b