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CONTENTS

EDITORIAL

Our 2021 issue of the TESOLANZ Journal has a broad range of articles relevant to language teaching: it includes articles on teaching listening, extensive reading, teaching vocabulary, English for Specific Purposes, as well as an article on online English language teaching. Four of the articles in this issue are situated in the New Zealand context, while three are from EFL contexts: China, Vietnam, and Iceland. The EFL context is of increasing interest to TESOL professionals in New Zealand, as many are currently teaching EFL students online.

Our first article seeks to reduce the difficulties of academic listening for learners. These difficulties are related to the real-time nature of listening as well as the limited capacity of human working memory. To help L2 students to overcome these challenges, Chi-Duc Nguyen used audio-visual input, input repetition and two text-based output tasks in a listening/viewing cycle. He found that the interventions fostered L2 academic listening, especially those involving text-based output tasks.

The aim of the second study on academic listening, by Naheen Madarbakus-Ring, was to identify what activities teachers prioritised in their listening lessons. Data collected using classroom observation, field notes, and interviews revealed that although teachers are guided by their listening textbooks and supplementary materials, they prioritised product-based and vocabulary-based activities. The article suggests the benefit of using process-based listening frameworks.

Sally Hay and Rosemary Wette investigated the challenges for recently arrived Pasifika high school students in making gains in reading. These abilities are needed if learners are to achieve success in English language Unit Standards and further qualifications in high school and beyond. Using questionnaires and interviews to elicit learners' views, Hay and Wette found that learners were interested in reading widely if appealing texts were available. However, learners also reported that the demands of family life place constraints on progress. The authors discuss some useful possibilities for how class teachers and library resources could assist.

The first article on vocabulary testing, by Coxhead, Drayton and Boutorwick, studied the vocabulary of secondary school teachers in Iceland. Using the Vocabulary Size and the Vocabulary Levels Test, the authors found that Icelandic teachers have a large vocabulary size. Interviews indicated lifelong exposure, high-level academic studies, and a love of literature, language and arts in English as contributing factors to this high vocabulary size.

The second vocabulary article, on testing technical vocabulary, reports on work-in-progress in the little-studied context of vocational education. Although trades learners need to learn a lot of technical vocabulary, there are no tests of this vocabulary available.

Coxhead, Drayton and Tu'amoheloa report on their progress to date on developing high frequency technical vocabulary picture tests. They drew on feedback on the tests from experts in trades education. This article will be of interest to all English language teachers whose students need to learn technical vocabulary.

The article by Christine Dykstra-de Jonge and John Macalister evaluates an English for Customer Service course which was developed at short notice during the first Covid-19 lockdown in New Zealand. The study aimed to better meet the needs of learners in preparing them for work in this industry. To this end, authentic service industry encounters were analysed and compared to encounters found in commercially available materials. The study emphasises the context-dependent, cultural nature of interpersonal communication, strengthening the case for specifically designed course resources.

The final article in the 2021 issue, by Jackie Yeoh, investigated student perceptions of an interactive online module at a Chinese college. Questionnaires and group interviews were used to investigate students' experiences. The study revealed that students generally considered the online module to be an effective learning tool.

On a final note, we say farewell to our long-time book reviews editor, Katherine (Kate) Quigley. Kate is sadly giving up this role, which she has held since 2016. Thank you, Kate, for your service to the journal over the last six years. Dr. Elizaveta Tarasova has accepted the role of Reviews editor in 2022.

Jean Parkinson

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ARTICLES

FOSTERING L2 ACADEMIC LISTENING BY AUDIO-VISUAL INPUT, INPUT REPETITION AND TEXT-BASED OUTPUT TASKS

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Abstract

Foreign/second language (L2) academic listening, especially non-participatory listening is a challenging process due to the real-time nature of listening and the limited capacity of human working memory. Hence, pedagogical interventions that can help L2 students overcome these challenges are welcome. To this end, I propose the use of audio-visual input, input repetition and particularly the integration of two text-based output tasks within this listening/viewing cycle. In the present study, these interventions were tested by means of a classroom-based between-group experiment with 85 EFL students. Students were required either to view a TED Talk video; view the same video, but twice; view this video twice, but with a monologic summary activity inserted in between; or view either the first or second half of this video, share the content with a classmate who did not view the same half yet, and then view the whole video again. All interventions were found to benefit text comprehension, with the conditions in which the text-based output tasks were incorporated faring the best. This finding has several useful implications for instructional practice.

Introduction

Listening is critical to academic success at the tertiary education level (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018; Phumla, 2003). This view has been well-substantiated by many empirical studies in this area (e.g., Bommelje et al., 2003; Dickinson et al., 2003). To date, however, this language skill has remained the least researched, compared to the other counterparts like academic reading, writing and even speaking (Lynch, 2011). Therefore, more research in this area is welcome.

Academic listening is, by nature, a challenging process, especially in the case of one-way listening. This holds true for both L1 and L2 listening. L1 university students, for example, might not have much trouble in decoding what their lecturers or peers say; however, they still need to construct a mental representation of this information in a matter of seconds, and then immediately transmit it into their long-term memory so that their working memory is freed up to process new incoming information (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). In addition, they need to learn how to mobilize and orchestrate different cognitive (e.g., distinguishing detailed information from key points or drawing relevant implications from a university lecture) as well as metacognitive strategies (e.g., note-taking or double-checking their understanding with peers during or after the lecture) for different listening purposes (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

The degree of challenge gets even higher for L2 students. This is because, apart from all cognitive and metacognitive processes as mentioned above, L2 listening involves many other external factors related to the speaker, the listening text as well as the listening context such as specialized content, novel expressions, unfamiliar accents, or culture-specific references (Lynch, 2011). Due to these inhibitory factors, L2 students, especially those yet to develop L2 proficiency, are often found to forget what is heard in trying to keep up with incoming information or busily interpret the received input at the expense of the next part (Goh, 2000). Thus, before they can deal with real-time academic listening by themselves, these students might need scaffolding in the form of pedagogical interventions from their L2 listening instructor. In the present study, I propose the use of audio-visual inputs, input repetition and especially integration of two different text-based output tasks within this listening/viewing cycle. There are both theoretical and empirical grounds for believing that these factors can benefit L2 academic listening. In what follows, I shall discuss these potential benefits in detail.

Literature review
L2 academic listening
The present view of L2 academic listening is no longer restricted to that of listening to lectures and taking notes of the lecture content only. In fact, the concept of L2 academic listening has now been enlarged to encompass many other listening genres. By and large, these genres can be classified into two major categories, including one-way and two-way listening also known respectively as non-participatory and participatory listening (Goh, 2018). While the former consists of the conventional monologic lectures and a brand-new genre—conference presentations, the latter includes interactive lectures, student presentations, seminars, discussions, tutorial, and supervision meetings (Lynch, 2011).

The emergence of conference presentations as a new non-participatory academic listening genre is interesting, because this not only helps diversify the types of materials that L2 students can be exposed to in their academic listening courses but also better represents the range of spoken discourse that they will encounter in the academic context in the future. A few initial endeavors have been made to examine the discourse features of this new listening genre and they have found out that conference presentations possess various discourse features which can foster L2 academic listening over and above those of monologic lectures. On the one hand, conference presenters are often found to make use of the visual channel in the form of pictures, diagrams, numerical tables, or PowerPoint slides to facilitate the audience's understanding of their intended messages (Rowley-Jolivet, 2002). The presence of the above visual cues, together with the non-verbal language of the conference speaker helps clearly signpost the structure of the given talk, reduce the memory load for the audience, and even compensate for L2 limitations among L2 listeners (Morell et al., 2008; Rowley-Jolivet, 2002). On the other hand, corpus-based studies have suggested that conference presentations generally pose a far less lexical

demand on L2 listeners than university lectures. To reach the 95% and 98% lexical coverage (i.e., the proportions of known words) of TED Talks, for example, L2 students only need to have a receptive knowledge of 4,000 and 8,000 most frequent word families in English, respectively (Nurmukhamedov, 2017). However, these figures go up to 5,000 and 13,000 word families in the case of university lectures and seminars (Dang & Webb, 2014). Despite the potential benefits of conference presentations for L2 academic listening above, the number of empirical studies that gauge the comprehension level of L2 students when they actually listen to this genre has been limited. Lynch (2011) calls for more research in this area to fill the above gap.

Using audio-visual input rather than audial input alone

The first pedagogical intervention that I suggest in the present study is to expose L2 students to audio-visual inputs (in the form of videos) rather than audial inputs alone. There are several reasons to justify this suggestion. To begin with, previous research has consistently reported that video input can yield better L2 listening comprehension, including better L2 academic listening comprehension, than audio input. Baltova (1994), for example, compared L2 listening/viewing comprehension across three learning conditions: (a) viewing a video, (b) viewing the same video, but without the soundtrack, or (c) merely listening to the soundtrack. Text comprehension was measured by 16 multiple choice questions. The results showed that the learners in the two viewing groups (regardless of the presence of the soundtrack) obtained significantly better text comprehension than those in the listening-only group. Wagner (2010) also investigated whether video input led to better L2 listening/ viewing comprehension (including that of a university lecture—a typical academic listening genre) than audio input. Using a combination of 18 multiple choice and 22 short answer content questions as a dependent measure, he also found that the video condition indeed fared better.

There are two plausible explanations for the above finding. First, video input offers a wide range of visual cues that are useful for schemata activation, but, by nature, unavailable in audio input. One important prompt is the images of the speakers, together with their non-verbal language patterns, such as: postures, gestures, and facial expressions. Non-verbal language is often considered an integral part of the way an intended message is conveyed in spoken discourse. For instance, Sueyoshi and Hardison (2005) found that ESL learners at a North American university who were exposed to a videotaped lecture with visual access to the lecturer's non-verbal cues (i.e., gestures and facial expressions) outperformed those who were given the same lecture, but without access to non-verbal information on a text comprehension test. They concluded that video input should be more widely used in both instruction and assessment of L2 listening comprehension. Another visual prompt that can assist schemata activation is the physical setting in which the speech is given. Access to this information helps L2 learners to contextualize the input they are listening to in time, space, and to identify references speakers make to the surrounding context. Following Dual Coding Theory

(Paivio, 1986), Vandergrift (2004) proposed the second explanation for the benefits of video input. According to this model, images can prompt L2 learners to access and activate relevant content schemata (i.e., top-down processing) faster than verbal language, which, in turn, gives them more time and attentional resources to devote to other aspects of listening such as parsing the speech stream (i.e., bottom-up processing). This better text comprehension is, in turn, expected to assist L2 learners' interpretation of unfamiliar words that occur in the input text as well.

Using repeated listening/viewing rather than one-time listening/viewing
In a discussion of his Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, Krashen (1996) proposed input repetition as a useful technique to render L2 listening input more comprehensible. When L2 learners listen to an input text more than once, they can revisit past passages to confirm, reject or modify their previous interpretation of the input content. Put differently, they can overcome the challenging nature of real-time listening (as already described above), which, in turn, fosters their text comprehension. Research supports this view. Lund (1991), for example, compared the degree of L2 listening comprehension after the first and second listening, using an L1 input content recall task as a post-listening test. The average number of propositions that learners in this study recalled from the input text was found to significantly increase from 2.9 after the first listening to 5.0 after the second listening. Sakai (2009) also used an L1 input content recall task as a dependent measure to compare the level of L2 listening comprehension after the first and second listening. From the first to the second listening, the average number of idea units that learners in this study recalled was also found to noticeably surge, by 5.88 units for proficient learners and by 5.00 units for less proficient ones. These studies together indicate that repeated listening often cultivates significantly better text comprehension than one-time listening. Thus, giving L2 students a second listening time is also expected to foster their text comprehension.

Integrating a text-based output task within a listening/viewing cycle
The integration of a text-based output task within a listening/viewing cycle is theoretically based on Craik and Tulving's (1975) Model of Depth of Processing. According to this model, the deeper the level at which new information is processed, the better this information is understood and retained over time. This view has been consistently backed up by a large quantity of empirical research (see Brown & Perry, Jr. ,1991, Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986), and Stahl & Clark, 1987)). One common way to operationalize the above model in both L2 instruction and research practice is first to have L2 students process an input text and then recall its content. According to Fincher-Kiefer et al. (1988), such a text-based output task or, in their term, such a generative task is believed to induce deeper cognitive processing as it requires students to generate the mental link between their domain knowledge or background knowledge of a topic and that from the input text. Several studies have found a positive effect of this text-based output task on text comprehension in both L1 and L2 reading contexts (e.g., Stahl & Clark, 1987; Joe, 1998). Therefore, it might be interesting to see whether this benefit is also applied to L2 listening/viewing comprehension. As a result, the next

classroom procedure that I wish to incorporate in the present study is first to have L2 students watch a video and then recall its content in the form of a monologic summary task before watching the same video again.

In my final proposed classroom procedure, L2 students are required to watch either the first or second half of a video and share the content with a classmate who has not viewed the same half yet in an interactional summary activity before they all watch the whole video again. This procedure gives students not only the opportunity to sum up what they have watched (as in the case of a half of the video) but also the opportunity to listen to a summary of the viewing content and negotiate the meaning of this content with their interlocutor before they all view the whole video again. In this way, students can form an "advance organizer" of upcoming listening/viewing content, which is believed to help reduce the cognitive load for their input processing and, therefore, facilitate their actual listening/viewing comprehension (Ausubel, 1960). Previous research also provides evidence for this view. Herron (1994), for instance, examined the effect of providing a summary of input content as an advance organizer on L2 listening comprehension. In this study, learners watched a series of videos either with or without such an advance organizer. Text comprehension was significantly better when learners received a summary of the input content before viewing.

Present study
Research aim and design
In this study, three suggested interventions—(a) watching a video twice, (b) watching this video twice, but with a monologic summary activity inserted in between, and (c) watching either the first or second half of this video, sharing the content with a classmate who did not watch the same half yet in an interactional summary activity, and then moving on to watch the whole video again— were integrated into three different treatment conditions. The effects on text comprehension of these three listening/viewing procedures were compared to that of (d) watching the same video, but only once (i.e., the comparison condition) using a classroom-based experiment with a between-group research design. Henceforth, these conditions will be referred to as the *Repeated Listening/Viewing*, the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary*, the *Repeated Listening/ Viewing plus Interactional Summary*, and the *One-time Listening/Viewing* condition, respectively. From the review above, I hypothesized that the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary* and the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* condition brought about better text comprehension than the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* condition, which, in turn, yielded better content gain than the *One-time Listening/Viewing* condition. Thus, the aim of this study was to test this hypothesis.

Research participants
Participants in this study were 85 Vietnamese students of English as a foreign language (four males and 81 females) recruited from a university in Vietnam. They were all 19 or 20 years of age and enrolled in a two-year intensive English for Academic Purpose program to develop their English language proficiency to CEFR C1 level or IELTS overall band score of 6.5 (i.e., upper intermediate level). In their intact classes, these students were assigned to the *One-time Listening/Viewing* condition (*n*=20), the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* condition (*n*=22), the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary* condition (*n*=21), and the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* condition (*n*=22). To ensure there was no difference in the participants' L2 academic listening ability across all groups prior to the experiment, I compared scores from their latest in-house L2 listening test using a one-way ANOVA test for independent samples. No difference was found: $F(3,81)=1.10$ (*p*=.36).

Input material
TED Talks were chosen as the input material in this study. These talks (typically ranging from four to 20 minutes long) are lively and freely available web-based conference presentations on a wide range of professional and academic topics, delivered by experts who attempt to make these topics accessible for a general audience. Given the pedagogy-oriented nature of the study, I opted for authentic audio-visual materials that are both readily available and manageable for classroom use in terms of length. TED Talks appear to meet these requirements. In addition, previous research shows that TED Talks have good potential for L2 listening development (Coxhead & Walls, 2012). Finally, a growing number of language institutions worldwide have started using these talks in their programmes (Coxhead & Walls, 2012). Also, the policy makers at the institution where I collected the data for this study were considering incorporating TED Talks in the curriculum at the time this study was conducted. This made my choice to use TED Talks in my experiment both timely and ecologically justified. Sixteen students who had roughly the same level of L2 academic listening ability as those recruited in this study were invited to rate samples of TED Talks videos on various topics with regard to their comprehensibility and general appeal. Based on these students' feedback, a talk was chosen. This talk was about marine bioluminescence and lasted 12 minutes (see Appendix 1 for a web link to this video).

Data collection and analysis
The data for this study were collected cross-sectionally following the procedures described in Table 1 below. To be more specific, the students in the *One-time Listening/Viewing* condition were first required to watch and take notes of the content of the selected video (12 minutes). After that, they had six minutes to adapt and/or expand their notes. This classroom procedure was 18 minutes long. The students in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* condition followed exactly the same procedure as those in the *One-time Listening/Viewing* condition, but they had another viewing time right after their note adaptation/expansion. The time for this classroom procedure was therefore 30 minutes. The students in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic*

Summary condition, in turn, undertook the same procedure as those in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* condition. However, they used the six minutes after their first viewing to make an oral summary of the video content in English rather than to improve their notes. This classroom procedure also lasted 30 minutes. Those in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* condition were split into two same-sized groups. Participants in each sub-group were first asked to watch and note down the content of either the first or the second half of the video (six minutes). Instead of being given time to elaborate their notes, they were given 12 minutes to work in pairs and take turns presenting their summaries in English. The students might ask any questions related to their peers' summaries to aid their understanding of these summaries. That is why this activity was called an interactional summary activity. After giving/receiving the summaries, these students were all required to watch the whole video again (12 minutes). This classroom procedure was also 30 minutes in length. The students in each learning condition were all informed beforehand about their corresponding classroom procedure.

Table 1:
Classroom procedures

Learning groups	Procedures	Total time on task
One-time Listening/Viewing	Watch the video and take notes of the content (12 minutes) → Elaborate the notes (6 minutes)	18 minutes
Repeated Listening/Viewing	Watch the video and take notes of the content (12 minutes) → Elaborate the notes (6 minutes) → Watch the video again (12 minutes)	30 minutes
Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary	Watch the video and take notes of the content (12 minutes) → Summarize the video content and audio-record it (6 minutes) → Watch the video again (12 minutes)	30 minutes
Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary	Watch either the first or the second half of the video and take notes of the content (6 minutes) → Work in pairs and share the viewing content (Negotiation of meaning is encouraged) (12 minutes) → Watch the whole video again (12 minutes)	30 minutes

The dependent measure in this study was a L2 key content recall task. This task was selected as it might truly reflect what students often do in the academic context (Goh, 2018). In addition, previous research has consistently found that it is a valid and reliable test format to measure L2 listening comprehension in general (e.g., Long, 1990; Lund, 1991; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994; Chung, 1999) and L2 academic listening comprehension in particular (Jeon, 2007). At their experiment completion, the students under all conditions were required to make an oral summary of the video content and record it with a smartphone. Their summaries were then transcribed for the

scoring procedure. Two experienced Vietnamese teachers of English were invited to watch the video, read the written transcript, collaboratively build a list of key points presented in the video ($N = 14$), and then independently count the number of key points that each learner could recall from their listening/viewing procedures. This figure was used as a score indicating his/her text comprehension level. There was a strong correlation between the two teachers' scoring outcome, with a Pearson coefficient of .91 ($p < .000$). The means of their awarded scores were used in the final analysis of this study. Regarding the data analysis, Cohen's d effect sizes were first computed to examine the difference in the text comprehension level between the above learning conditions. According to Cumming (2012), the d value of 0.30, 0.50 and 0.80 was considered a small, moderate and large between-group difference, respectively. In addition, as not all data were normally distributed, I resorted to the Kruskal-Wallis test—a non-parametric alternative to the conventional one-way ANOVA test to compare text comprehension levels across all conditions. A two-tailed p value of .05 was set as a threshold for significance in this test.

Results and discussion

Table 2 provides the descriptive statistics for the scores that the students in all groups obtained from their listening/viewing procedures. Specifically, it includes the sample size (n), mean score (M), and standard deviation (SD) for each learning condition.

Table 2:

Text comprehension scores (max.=14 key points)

Condition	One-time Listening/Viewing	Repeated Listening/Viewing	Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary	Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary
N	20	22	21	22
M	1.85	2.86	5.62	6.50
SD	0.67	0.99	0.77	1.10

The results from Cohen's d effect size computation showed that the *Repeated Listening/Viewing*, the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary*, and the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* group were all able to recall the video content better than the *One-time Listening/Viewing* group with a large between-group difference of 1.20, 5.22 and 5.11, respectively. Students in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary*, and the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* group were also found to outperform their counterparts in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* group with a large between-group difference of 3.11 and 3.48. Interestingly, students in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* condition also made a larger video content gain than those in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary* condition with a large between-group difference of 0.93.

A Kruskal-Wallis test for independent samples was also carried out to compare the text comprehension scores across all conditions. A significant difference was found: X^2 (N=85, df=3)=66.75 ($p <$ .0001). A Conover test with p values adjusted by Holm's Family-wide Error Rate method was then run for pairwise comparisons. All the treatment conditions were found to yield significantly better text comprehension than the comparison condition ($p <$ .0001). In addition, the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* group scored significantly higher than the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary* group (p=.027), which, in turn, significantly outperformed the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* group ($p <$ .0001).

As expected, the learners in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* condition recalled more key points from the given video than those in the *One-time Listening/Viewing* condition. This finding echoes what Lund (1991) and Sakai (2009) have found about the benefits of input repetition for L2 listening comprehension. In the case of the present study, the *Repeated Listening/Viewing* procedure may have fostered L2 students' input processing both affectively and cognitively. First, since the students in this condition knew beforehand that they were given the opportunity to view/listen to the input text twice rather than once, they might have felt less anxious and therefore become more engaged with the listening/viewing process (Berne, 1995). Second, as a way of catering for the limited capacity of human working memory and the real-time nature of listening, input repetition in fact provided another listening/viewing time (which also entailed more total 'time on task') for these students to verify their previous interpretation of input content and to add information they already missed during their previous listening/viewing (Lund, 1991).

The integration of the monologic summary task within the listening/viewing cycle also helped students in the Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary condition to cultivate better text comprehension than those in the Repeated Listening/Viewing condition. This is in line with what Nguyen and Boers (2018) already found in another classroom-based experiment that aimed to measure L2 listening comprehension and lexical uptake from (a) repeated listening/viewing of a TED Talk video and (b) repeated listening/viewing of the same video, but with a monologic summary activity inserted in between. Recall that the students in the Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary condition had the opportunity to make an oral summary of the video content right after their first viewing, while those in the Repeated Listening/Viewing condition merely adapted and/or expanded their notes. As a generative task, this summary activity might have prompted the learners to process the perceived information from their first viewing at a deeper level than the note revision activity (Fincher-Kiefer et al., 1988). Nguyen (2017), for example, found that when L2 students were required to take notes of and then summarize listening/viewing content, they often studied their notes again, sought for the key points of that content, and subsequently organized these key points in a logical structure in preparation for their summary task. As most of the students in this study reported in

their follow-up interviews, it was such cognitive activities that helped them to understand and remember the key content better.

A surprising finding in the present study was that the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* condition also led to better text comprehension than the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary* condition. There were two plausible explanations for this finding. First, anticipating that they needed to report the input content to a classmate (rather than to themselves as in the case of the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Monologic Summary* condition) after listening/viewing might have made the students in the *Repeated Listening/Viewing plus Interactional Summary* condition more mentally engaged with their input processing (Stahl & Clark, 1987). Second, the opportunity to receive a summary of the input content and even negotiate this content with this classmate before they were exposed to the input material themselves may have enabled these learners to establish an advance organizer of upcoming listening/viewing content, which, in turn, might have helped to improve their text comprehension.

Conclusion and pedagogical implications

Findings from this study showed that the three suggested classroom procedures all benefited L2 academic listening/viewing comprehension, albeit to a different degree. To be more specific, the procedure of repeated listening/viewing followed by the interactive summary task brought about better text comprehension than the procedure of repeated listening/viewing followed by the monologic summary task, which, in turn, cultivated better text comprehension than the procedure of repeated listening/viewing only. Therefore, L2 teachers might consider incorporating these procedures into their academic listening lessons.

However, to optimize the benefits of these procedures for L2 academic listening comprehension, L2 teachers may also need to consider the following issues. First, although the students who had a similar level of L2 listening ability to the actual participants had suggested that the selected TED Talks video was suitable for use in this study, the comprehension test scores indicated that its content was far from straightforward. This might be due to the technical content (i.e., bioluminescence in the ocean) of this video. Thus, L2 teachers might search for other TED Talks videos with less technical topics many of which are available at the website www.ted.com/talks (Coxhead & Walls, 2012). Second, students might need to be informed beforehand that they will have more than one opportunity to view the video. This announcement may reduce their listening anxiety and therefore get them more mentally engaged with their listening process. Likewise, anticipating that they will share the input content with a classmate after listening might give them more motivation for listening. Finally, note-taking should be used in these classroom procedures. It is because this technique can also help students to overcome the challenges posed by the limited capacity of human working memory and the real-time nature of listening.

The integration of the summary activities as text-based output/generative tasks in the present study is also in line with the current trend of integrating speaking into a listening-based lesson. Reviewing previous research in this area, Newton and Nguyen (2018) found that such an integration not only creates a favorable condition for academic listening comprehension as already discussed above, but also helps learners to develop their L2 listening metacognition strategies. Specifically, when they are required to summarize listening content, learners need to synthesize information from their notes. This synthesis helps them to notice gaps in their previous interpretation of input content, which, in turn, prompts them to direct their attention to relevant information as they listen to the same input a second time. Put differently, these output/generative tasks grant them an invaluable opportunity to plan for and monitor their listening process, evaluate the listening outcome, and search for suitable solutions to any listening problems that may occur in this process—the four metacognitive listening strategies proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012). Thus, such a speaking and listening integration should be promoted in the language classroom.

It should be, however, also acknowledged that having L2 learners listen to the same text several times might lead to a loss of interest on their part. In addition, though my use of the L2 key content recall task as the dependent measure served the research purpose in this study relatively well, it might have created a bias in favor of the conditions with the inclusion of the summary tasks. This is because students under these conditions were asked to do the same task between their two viewing sessions and therefore became more familiarized with this task than those under other conditions when it came to the final test. My suggested classroom procedures might have prompted L2 students to exercise some or all of Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) four metacognitive listening strategies as mentioned above. However, due to the quantitative nature of the present study, I failed to take a closer look at what metacognitive listening strategies were actually activated in each classroom procedure and how these strategies fostered the students' listening process and outcome. Thus, I would like to call for more empirical studies in this area to address these limitations.

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Appendix 1.
[Edith Widder: The weird, wonderful world of bioluminescence | TED Talk](https://www.ted.com/talks/edith_widder_the_weird_wonderful_world_of_bioluminescence)
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TEACHERS' APPROACHES TO LISTENING PEDAGOGY: PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES FROM A PRE-SESSIONAL CONTEXT

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Abstract

The present study examines teachers' perceptions and practices about teaching listening in a pre-sessional English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programme. The purpose of this study was to identify the activities that the teachers prioritised in their listening lessons and elicit why they made these decisions. Data were collected through interviews and classroom observations. The findings revealed that the three teachers at a pre-sessional department at a New Zealand university give equal time to teaching all four skills, although they find listening to be the most difficult skill to teach. The teachers are guided by a three-stage approach when using the listening textbook and supplementary materials. However, they find selecting supplementary materials time-consuming and problematic. The teachers also prioritised using product-based and vocabulary-based activities but expressed a need for more guidance in using perception activities (e.g., distinguishing word boundaries) in listening lessons. These findings indicate the teachers have some awareness of metacognitive instruction but further guidance in using process-based listening frameworks could help address learners' difficulties.

Introduction

For many teachers and learners, *"listening to learn or learning to listen?"* remains an ambiguous and unanswered question in the academic field (Vandergrift, 2004). In teaching, research highlights how some teachers lack sufficient guidance to teach listening (Graham, 2017). As listening instruction continues to evolve from traditional 'listen-and-repeat' and 'question-answer' approaches (Vandergrift, 2004) to include communicative and interactive tasks, these more recent teaching approaches warrant further investigation to fully understand how second language (L2) teachers teach listening.

Before examining teachers' perspectives and practices in L2 listening instruction, it is important to define the primary role of the foreign language listening teacher. Renandya and Farrell (2011) define the role as "help[ing] our students develop procedural knowledge…about how to process spoken language with ease and automaticity" (p. 58). In other words, L2 listening instruction is concerned with the opportunities that teachers present to learners.

Graham (2017) identifies how language teachers have an active role in providing learners with opportunities through instruction to train them in becoming familiar with these routines and automatize these procedures when listening. After these procedures are automated, the teacher's role is minimised to that of a facilitator (Siegel, 2011). Previous listening reviews (Lynch, 2011; Vandergrift, 2004) have also acknowledged the importance of active teacher roles to facilitate listening strategy instruction. For example, teachers modelling listening strategies and addressing learner errors frequently (Siegel, 2015) provide active preparation for learners to encounter their own real-world listening opportunities once they are outside of the classroom (Field, 2008).

Despite these procedures, language teachers still face challenges when teaching listening. Siegel (2011, 2015) comments on the difficulties that teachers have in selecting suitable listening strategies for their lessons as these selections may be based on native teachers' innate experience of how they learned to listen themselves. Teachers' knowledge may therefore influence how they teach listening and address these learner difficulties. Added learner style and varying preferences may also cause strategy selection difficulties for teachers (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). Consequently, this may influence teachers' knowledge of how they teach listening and result in a lack empathy in knowing how to deal with their learners' difficulties. Graham (2017) comments on how many teaching contexts are concerned with testing listening comprehension rather than teaching the skill which may further restrict teachers in their L2 listening instruction role.

The primary aim of this study is to investigate teachers' perceptions about teaching listening in a pre-sessional English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programme. In addition, the teachers were asked about their listening activity priorities in their teaching practices. This study's findings highlight how pre-sessional teachers approach their teaching of listening and provide an insight into their chosen process-based listening activities that they believe help them to address their learners' difficulties.

Literature Review
Empirical studies investigating teachers' perspectives
Over the last 50 years, a large body of research on teacher cognition has grown to understand teachers' practices in the classroom (Burns, 1992; Peacock, 2001; Richards et al., 2001). According to Borg (2003), teacher cognition refers to "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching—what teachers know, believe and think" (p. 81). A limited number of studies (Graham, 2011; Graham et al., 2014; Siegel, 2014, 2015) have investigated the role of the teacher in L2 listening instruction, highlighting teacher perspectives on L2 listening instruction and their priorities in the teaching of listening. Regarding perspectives, Graham et al. (2014) found that half of the 115 foreign language teacher participants felt they gave equal time to teaching listening compared to the other skills. However, these teachers reported teaching listening twice a week, with 70% of them placing only 'some', 'little' or 'least' emphasis on the skill (p. 59), rather than

giving equal time to listening in the classroom. Lynch (2002) claims that teachers need to pay more attention to listening to enhance the teaching of the skill.

These teachers also reported listening as the second easiest skill to teach after reading (Graham et al., 2014). Graham (2017) argues that this perspective results from these teachers following "accepted" practices to conduct the same kind of activities used by their peers or replicating activities they experienced in learning themselves. Siegel (2015) and Field (2008) note how new teachers may rely on textbook-based instruction to compensate for the lack of support available when being trained to teach listening.

Empirical studies investigating teachers' activity priorities

Graham et al. (2014) asked 115 teachers to report on the listening activities they had used in previous before-/while-/after-listening stages. Table 1 summarises the five most frequent and five least frequent activities prioritised by teachers in their findings:

Table 1:
Stated pre-/while-/post-listening practices (adapted from Graham et al., 2014, p. 49).

Listening activities	Rating Scale (n=115)			
	1	2	3	4
Before Listening				
A. Remind learners of vocabulary linked to the topic	3	20	43	35
B. Ask learners to predict vocabulary they might hear	11	42	36	12
C. Ask learners to think of ideas that might be discussed in the text	15	45	29	11
* D. Give learners vocabulary items that may be used in the text	5	58	28	9
* E. Ask learners to discuss possible answers to the question	25	55	18	2
While Listening				
F. Ask learners to focus on key words	0	21	41	38
* G. Ask learners to verify their predictions	23	49	23	6
After Listening				
H. Ask learners what answers they choose	0	12	50	37
I. Ask learners how they felt about the task	10	39	33	18
J. Advise learners about how to deal with difficulties next time	7	43	43	7
K. Ask learners to answer using target language words/phrases	4	47	45	4
L. Ask learners to use language from text in a productive task	8	47	42	4
* M. Tell learners what the answers are	32	42	13	13
* N. Ask learners what they did to complete the task	25	55	19	2

Note: 1=Never / 2=Sometimes / 3=Frequently / 4=Always
* = denotes the lowest prioritised activities for each stage

Graham et al.'s (2014) results show that teachers use activities that have pre-determined answers in all three stages. Items A, B, F, and H are concerned with vocabulary-based activities which are introduced and verified throughout the lesson. Items C and F show

that teachers also focused on top-down processes, although predictions made in before-listening were not verified in while-listening. Graham (2017) comments on how there is an over-application of focusing learners on before-listening and comprehension tasks more than after-listening activities and suggests that a predominant before-listening focus could result from teachers seeing this as "a surer way of helping learners obtain 'correct answers' to accompanying their comprehension questions" (p. 114).

The lower priorities given to item N and mixed responses to item I indicate that teachers may be hesitant in employing metacognitive strategies in listening lessons. Graham (2017) asks whether listening activities completed as a form of practice with little or no attention to the process is improvement of the skill.

One useful approach to help learners practise listening is to adopt Goh's (2018) TBMIL (task-based metacognitive instruction for listening) framework. Each of the five lesson stages provide process-based task opportunities for learners to practise their mental translation of key vocabulary, direct their general or specific attention, or problem-solve by addressing their listening difficulties (e.g., re-focusing their attention if the presenter speaks too fast).

However, Siegel (2014) points out that teachers do not teach listening because they lack the pedagogic knowledge to do so. This may arise from a lack of input in their training or a lack of guidance in the materials they use. There is an uncertainty from teachers as to what might be useful ways to teach listening. Therefore, further research is needed to elicit teachers' views of listening and understand their teaching decisions to suggest useful pedagogical approaches for them to use in listening lessons.

Research Questions

Based on the review of previous empirical studies, the following two research questions (RQ) were formulated:

RQ1. What do the teachers say about their experience of teaching listening?

RQ2. What activities do the teachers prioritise in before-/while-/after-listening stages when teaching listening?

Methods

Participants

Three teachers were recruited through opportunity sampling from a New Zealand university which had a pre-sessional programme. The programme was selected to investigate the teachers' priorities about their teaching of listening. Two female teachers from New Zealand and one male teacher from Ireland were aged between 40 and 63, and had over 10 years+ teaching experience in New Zealand and overseas. All teachers had taught as a lead teacher on the pre-sessional programme for at least one 14-week course.

The pre-sessional listening programme

The teachers taught English as a Second Language on a pre-sessional programme at a New Zealand university. The programme consisted of 14-week intensive courses that aimed to prepare learners for entry into Foundation Studies, undergraduate, or postgraduate courses in New Zealand universities.

All learners were international students who came to New Zealand to study English as a second language. The learners needed a minimum International English Language Test System (IELTS) level of 5.0 (or Common European Framework Reference [CEFR] level A2) English proficiency to register for either pre-intermediate (CEFR level A2) or intermediate (CEFR level B1-B2) courses. A maximum of 16 learners were placed into classes determined by a placement test administered at the start of each course. Classes consisted of 19-hours of instruction per week. One of two textbooks was used for each course. Each textbook contained four themes, and each theme (e.g., sustainability, crime) was taught across two to three weeks. Each class had one lead teacher (who taught 3-4 days a week) and a co-teacher (who taught 1-2 days a week). The lead class teacher was responsible for working through the textbook that included one to three listening lessons per theme. The textbook included in-house recordings, *TED Talks*, and other online resources. The listening component of the programme provided a range of listening skills and strategies using the in-house textbook and supplementary materials.

Instruments

Two instruments, observation field notes and semi-structured teacher interviews, were used to examine the teachers' perceptions and practices about teaching listening. Three teachers volunteered to be observed teaching one 60-to-90-minute listening lesson each before participating in interviews. Field notes were structured using *classroom procedures* and *justifications* headers modelled on those in Siegel's (2015) and Graham et al.'s (2014) studies to provide a practical account of what teachers choose to do in the classroom (see Appendix 1). In interviews, 10 question prompts, modelled on those used by Siegel (2015) and Graham and Santos (2015), explored what teachers did in their lessons and expanded on their practices from classroom observation (see Appendix 2).

Both instruments were piloted with another three teachers in a pilot study. For field notes, headers (e.g., '*learner focus*' changed to '*classroom practice*') were modified to record notes about teacher instruction instead of learners. It was found that some complex interview questions needed rewording and longer questions were rewritten to include sub-question categories. Teachers were also provided with activity examples mentioned in the interview for easier reference.

Recruitment Procedure

After obtaining Ethics approval, a 10-minute presentation about the study was given at a teacher's meeting. Teachers were given an 'intent to participate' slip to indicate their

classroom observation and interview preferences. Three teachers (teaching intermediate and pre-intermediate level classes), who indicated their interest in being observed and interviewed, were emailed individually. They were sent interview information letters and consent forms in the second week of the course. Additionally, a short meeting in person was arranged to explain teachers' participatory requirements, answer their questions, and decide on suitable dates for the observation and interview. On the day of the observation, each teacher signed a consent form. The lesson was audio-recorded and field notes were taken before being transcribed verbatim after the observation. Each teacher was provided with a summary of the observation field notes to allow them to reflect on their teaching decisions for the upcoming interview two days later. The probing questions and observation field notes were used to follow-up on interview points, allowing the participant to expand on ideas (Dornyei, 2007). Each semi-structured interview lasted about 45 minutes. Each participant was thanked for their time with a NZ$15 gift card.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed using Clarke and Braun's (2013) six stage thematic analysis (data familiarity, allocating codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining/naming themes, reporting method) to code and classify the interview data. After transcribing and anonymising the spoken data by group (e.g., T1), the transcripts were re-read to identify initial or interesting extracts. Second, thematic codes were allocated to the data and organised by the sub-question topic (e.g., *1.1 Teacher Priorities*). Third, initial interview questions were used to categorise the extracts into more specific themes within these topics (e.g., *What's your biggest challenge?* = Teaching challenges), as shown in Table 2.

Table 2:
Example of initial coding of teacher interview

Start–End Time	Int T1/T2/T3	Question/Answer	Research question Initial Theme (Data source)
1.34	**INT**	**So, what's your biggest challenge when you teach with the texts or the theme listening?**	*1.1*
1.38-2.18	T1	Time, possibly. Just having enough time possibly. And that's the beauty of the[computer room], students have time to go over things for themselves. I find that doing a listening in class is difficult sometimes when some students get it quickly and others don't. And you want to replay it for the people that didn't get it. But the others are thinking, we don't, we want the answers right now. So, I think, I would guess, that would be one challenge. I don't know…I can't think of anything else…	**Teaching challenges** (Survey Q6/12) (Interview Q4)

Each coded extract was then categorized by the research question *(e.g., Teaching challenges=RQ1: teacher perceptions)*. The identified individual themes were grouped together by specific emerging topic categories (e.g., *confidence, improvements*), as shown in Table 3. Fourth, the research question themes were then reviewed to check if extracts could be moved to a more relevant emerging topic. Fifth, any remaining general responses were re-categorised using the research question or placed into an emerging theme within an emerging topic. All categories were again reviewed. Finally, the spoken qualitative data was used together with survey data responses to provide contextualised support to the narrative for each of the research questions (Clarke & Braun, 2013).

Table 3:
Example of thematic coding of teacher interview

Who?	RQ1.2: What do the teachers say about their experience of teaching listening?	Emerging Topic
		Emerging theme
INT	**How confident are you teaching listening?**	**Listening frequency**
T1U	I think so. If you gave me 15 minutes, I would take longer because the EPP book is not always clear about what's being asked and what the fit is. I don't set certain things as homework because if even I'm unclear or not 100% on what it's asking, I'm not going to ask the students to go home and figure it out.	Teaching confidence
INT	**What teaching improvements would you like to make?**	**Listening emphasis**
T1F	I suppose different vocabulary teaching techniques would be useful. Pre-teaching things like matching, working with context – like putting the vocabulary into a different context to what the actual listening is about. But I wouldn't know how to come back later to that to review it or be skilled enough to do that.	Teaching improvements

Results

The teachers were observed teaching one listening class each. The following observations were made:

Table 4:
Comparison of the three observed lessons

Lesson component	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3
Before-listening	9 mins	17 mins	40 mins
While-Listening	14 mins	40 mins	42 mins
After-listening	32 mins	23 mins	18 mins
Textbook/ Audio	Yes	Yes	Yes
Own Materials	Jigsaw (phrases)	Vocabulary gap-fill	Vocabulary list
Activities	- Vocabulary: jigsaw - Noticing: table slam - Check/Discuss - Use Transcript: - Information transfer	- Check vocabulary - Discussions: For/against - Gap fill - Comprehension questions	- Prediction strategies - Check vocabulary - Comprehension questions
Strategies	- Vocabulary - Ordering - Specific details - Monitoring/ Evaluation - Comprehension Check - Play in sections	- Prior knowledge - Monitoring/ Evaluation - Inference/Prediction - Elaboration - Play in sections - Comprehension Check	- Prior strategies - Comprehension check - Translation - Evaluation - Monitoring - Explanation
Procedure	* Teacher plays audio once then in sections * No homework * Follow-up last lesson	* Learners play audio * *Before*-in class; * *While*-in computer lab * *After*- homework	* Teacher plays audio * *Before*-in class; * *While*-in computer lab *After*- homework

As Table 4 shows, all teachers used the textbook to teach a three-stage listening lesson. Each teacher allocated a different amount of time to each before-/while-/after-listening stage, with only one teacher completing the lesson in class time. All three teachers used their own supplementary materials focusing on vocabulary-based activities to provide learners with extra textbook support. Each lesson included strategy practice for learners to monitor and evaluate their listening. Using these observations, the teachers were then asked to reflect on their lesson decisions in interviews by expanding on two main themes: *the teachers' experience of teaching listening and* the *teachers' priorities when teaching listening*.

Teachers' experience of teaching listening

The teachers were asked to describe their experience of teaching listening. In response to how they find teaching the four skills (i.e., listening, reading, speaking, writing), the teachers indicated that they find speaking, reading, and writing easier to teach than listening. T1 explained how listening can be challenging for learners while T2 described how the textbook is useful to integrate the four skills when teaching listening:

T1: Can students improve in listening? They can learn formulas like the set language used in listening and speaking, just like reading and writing. You can learn cues (for example, one definition is blah blah) or a set phrase that they can learn. These can act as a signal for what is coming next. There's a lot of listening available now, like six-minute English, BNE, but students need to know how to use them. Just turning it on and playing it doesn't really help. One of my students told me he listens to BNE. He just listens. He doesn't think about the topic, break up the listening, think about what he's heard recently. He will just listen through because if he isn't taught how to do these things, then I don't think they can. It's not necessarily the formula or a lack of formula. We are teaching formula and if the formula is not followed, then 'oh oh'.

T2: I use the listenings in the intermediate theme book. They are clearly laid out. There's already pre-listening (in fact, there may be too much pre-listening). You know that there will be ideas, then something else, then language, then something else. You need to think about which is essential for the class and can I merge it to get through all the work on time.

Second, the teachers were asked how much emphasis they place on teaching the four skills. T2 indicated that all skills are emphasised equally in teaching, explaining how listening skills relate to other skills:

T2: I also ask learners to use [the listening] as examples of how to give a seminar and link that to their presentations and guest lecturers as well. And I can link it to signal language or transition signals and I also ask them what they have noticed so they can use that in their seminars too.

Third, the teachers were asked how frequently they teach listening each week. All three teachers felt that they spent enough time on teaching listening each week. However, in interviews, T1 explained why he would teach listening more if he could:

T1: If I have 40 hours, I would probably do more. But with 19 hours a week, you have to do it a certain way. We may have more time at the start of the course—for example I used a Breaking News English [website resource] lesson partly just to highlight that the resource existed—but I don't have time to do much outside of the coursebooks.

Overall, the teachers described listening as a difficult skill to teach. However, they felt that they placed equal emphasis on all four skills when teaching. Further, the teachers reported spending enough time on listening in their lessons, although they would prefer more time to focus on using other listening resources.

Teachers' activity priorities in before-/while-/after-listening stages when teaching listening

The teachers were also asked about how they prioritised their activity selections in before-/while-/after-listening stages when teaching listening. In response to how frequently they teach activities by stage, the teachers indicated that they prioritised before-listening activities such as previous knowledge, making predictions, and pre-teaching topic vocabulary, when teaching listening. In interviews, T2 described how she uses predictions while T1 explained the importance of pre-teaching topic vocabulary before-listening:

> T2: I always start with the pre-listening, especially using prior knowledge or prediction activities as I say to students, this will help your understanding. I think that this helps with comprehension as even if it's wrong, it's still anticipation of what you are about to hear.

> T1: Vocabulary can be pre-taught through practices within the listening. Content also can be taught from stage to stage, like something typical of a presentation where the stages are introduced.

When asked about the while-listening activities they prioritise, the teachers revealed that they asked learners to verify their predictions and to focus on key words most frequently as these activities follow-up on the before-listening activities presented. In interviews, T3 explained why she follows-up on before-listening activities:

> T3: It's common to discuss [the] topic and predictions and I write these strategies down on my PowerPoint slides. So general to specific, using vocabulary, visual aids, or just basic notetaking (using a grid). Write down key points, use the transcript and add value to the listening.

The teachers also commented that they infrequently interfere with the listening process. In interviews, T2 explained why she prefers for learners, and not teachers, to have control of the listening:

> T2: As the [computer room] slot means they would be listening in [sections] again; they had a lot of control. I can replay parts in class, but everybody wants to listen to a different part. The task sheet that goes with it gives them questions that go with it. I think they were all interested in it. It was nice to hear them compare with and help each other to clarify and check things.

Overall, the teachers followed-up on before-listening prediction and vocabulary activities in while-listening. However, the teachers infrequently paused the recording to answer each question or to identify linguistic boundaries. These results indicate that the teachers used activities with pre-determined answers and were not involved with manipulating the listening process.

In response to asking the teachers about their after-listening activities priorities, the teachers replied that they check answers and provide feedback to learners. The teachers commented on often checking answers to comprehension questions and advising learners on their listening difficulties. In interviews, T1 explained how he checks answers after listening and T2 described how she gives feedback:

> T1: I had made a vocabulary jigsaw activity from one of the theme listenings and used some of the phrases from that. Some ideas were comprehension based and they had to focus on the vocabulary. Using 16 snippets, they had to put it in order, discuss the order and then complete a gap fill with 14 out of the 16 phrases. Then they had to use the phrases to make their own sentences…It went more slowly than I had anticipated. One group seemed to struggle with the ordering, so I got group members to swap and help each other. One group made consistent errors, so I had to play the listening again and asked them to tap the table when they heard the answer. That seemed to help and increase recognition –kinda kinaesthetic teaching? That worked well but it put me behind [on time]. I thought the gap fill went fairly well and [they were able to] put that in order. It was a political topic which they didn't know very well but they were trying to apply language to any situation.

> T2: I give learners feedback though the ILP and also when they are doing the lesson. They usually summarise a TED Talk or a text and give their own evaluation. Some are better than others, but it's all part of learning…

Teachers also reported that they infrequently use reflection-based activities. They seldom asked learners to reflect on the listening activity or their feelings towards the listening. In interviews, T2 explained why she rarely uses reflection activities and T1 commented on the potential benefits of using listening goals, despite not using these activities:

> T2: I don't get [the learners] to use diaries or journals or anything like that or skills sheets. I think that these would probably already be in the book. In Intermediate, we have a paragraph in italics explaining why we do things, which I point out to learners. I do set comprehension activities and use feedback, but not the journal.

> T1: I've never used listening feedback. I would say listening is a goal to get information so the idea of looking at a skill and what [the learners] did well and give feedback on that, maybe I don't do that enough. I think if a student believes they are improving, then they are more likely to be engaged in the process if we highlight what they are doing and what they are not doing. That recognition can be helpful and if they put a belief in the process, they are more likely to be better at it.

Overall, the teachers frequently used activities with pre-determined answers and gave learners feedback after-listening. However, reflection-based activities were allocated a lower priority in lessons.

Discussion
The effects of the teachers' experience and activity priorities when teaching listening
The present study considered two related research questions that aimed to elicit how the teachers describe their experience of teaching listening and identify their activity priorities in before-/while-/post-listening stages when teaching listening.

The findings emphasise that teachers made decisions based on textbook priorities when teaching L2 listening. As the teachers commented, although all four skills were integrated into lessons to include the teaching of listening, they would like more time to address learners' listening difficulties. One option is to raise learners' awareness of their listening difficulties. Goh (2000) identifies how learners' awareness of "knowing why some of the problems occur will naturally place [teachers] in a better position to guide our learners in ways of coping with or overcoming some of their listening difficulties" (p. 57). Recent research has focused on metacognition to provide learners with an effortful and conscious approach to learning. Metacognitive approaches emphasise coping and noticing strategies (e.g., using checklists) for learners to attend to difficulties and address challenges more easily (Rahimirad & Moini, 2015). Vandergrift et al.'s (2006) metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (MALQ) draws on 21 strategies that "enable and empower L2 learners to become self-regulated learners who can better capitalise to the aural input that they receive" (p. 454). The survey has been used in numerous studies (Gagen-Lanning, 2015; Goh & Hu, 2014; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010; Zeng & Goh, 2015) to provide self-reports on learners' beliefs, practices, and strategy use. For example, researchers have examined increasing listening strategy awareness to improve listening comprehension (Zhang, 2012) and using strategy-based instruction with different resources (Chen, 2016). Metacognition is also closely linked to intrinsic motivation, self-regulated learning, and learner autonomy to show how learners can regulate and control their learning more effectively (Vandergrift, 2008).

The teachers also self-reported listening as difficult to teach. One option for teachers to help learners cope with cognitive demands and improve their approaches to listening is to adopt a balanced process-oriented approach. Goh's (2018) task-based metacognitive instruction for listening framework (TBMIL) includes additional metacognitive frames at the start and end of the lesson for learners to reflect on their listening goals, process, and performance. As Vandergrift and Goh (2012) maintain, equipping learners with metacognitive frameworks and input processing skills will help them address real-time listening difficulties. Anderson (1995) describes input processing as non-linear, since input is passed on and sent back for processing simultaneously as new input is processed. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) identify how raising learners' awareness of

input processing can help them manage their listening experiences (e.g., by choosing when to attend to or redirect their attention in listening). Using metacognitive frameworks can help provide learners—and teachers—with a balanced process-based and practical approach to listening.

A further implication is for the selection of listening activities with pre-determined answers. Teachers prioritised comprehension-based tasks but gave lower priorities to perception activities (e.g., distinguishing word boundaries) in their listening lessons. An approach for teachers to assist learners more readily with their speech segmentation difficulties is to use perception-based activities (e.g., counting the number of words heard, identifying the end of a phrase or a sentence to mark word boundaries) so they can monitor their parsing of the input and consciously extract meaning from the speech stream (Siegel, 2016).

Teachers also prioritised problem-solving opportunities (e.g., use key words to check answers) when teaching L2 listening. However, in line with Graham et al.'s (2014) survey findings, the teachers in the current study believed learner difficulties arose from vocabulary ambiguity (e.g., unknown words). Graham and Santos' (2015) textbook analysis of 14 listening task types highlights how teachers prioritise vocabulary tasks or multiple-choice questions rather than opportunities to use previous knowledge to inference. These priorities indicate that the teaching of listening is framed by vocabulary rather than by the context when listening. As Graham (2017) points out, teachers asked learners to solve these immediate problems by working out word meaning from context. Coxhead and Walls (2012) suggest creating vocabulary profiles that classify vocabulary by frequency (e.g., K1, K2) and category (e.g., academic word list, off-list words) to provide teachers and learners with a systematic tool for guiding their vocabulary decisions in listening lessons.

Limitations and further research

As this was a small-scale study, the results should be viewed as preliminary findings. Despite these interesting observations, there were some limitations identified in this study. First, only three teachers participated in the study. It would be insightful to include more pre-sessional EFL teachers in New Zealand and from other locations around the world to compare different approaches to teaching listening. Another option would be investigating teachers in the in-sessional context with different course demands and, in turn, differences in their approaches to teaching listening. Finally, the present study observed the teachers' practice with two different proficiency levels. It would be beneficial to observe and interview teachers who are teaching the same level to explore the variations within each teacher's approach and activity priorities using mixed method data to provide a clearer picture of how listening is taught and offer more accessible research for teachers to interpret.

Conclusion

The present study aimed to identify the role of the teacher in L2 listening by observing how the teachers teach listening and then describe their experience and chosen activity priorities. The preliminary findings outline that the teachers in this study think that listening is the most difficult skill to teach but still give it as much emphasis as the other skills. Further, the teachers prioritised product-based activities in listening instruction but rarely used process-based activities. Although teachers use textbooks to guide their teaching of listening, they still need further guidance to create and adapt lessons to include a balanced product-/process-based approach for learners. Further empirical research in different contexts is needed to understand the teaching trends in listening lessons and, in turn, help educators make more informed teaching decisions.

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Appendix 1. Field notes template—Classroom observation

Classroom observation field notes (e.g. Scale to note teacher' listening approach 'procedures'/'justifications')

Teacher:

Procedure 1	Justification 1	Procedure 2	Justification 2	Procedure 3	Justification 3	Procedure 4	Justification 4	Procedure 5	Justification 5

Time:

Classroom Observation sheets

Time	Teacher instruction	Verbal behavior	Non-verbal behavior	Positive behavior	Negative behavior	Other notes

Appendix 2. Questions—Teachers' interview

Talking About Teaching Listening

1. Tell about how you taught listening last trimester. What has been your biggest challenge when teaching listening?
   What has been the most successful when teaching listening?
   What unanswered questions do you have about how to teach listening?

2. Tell me about the teaching materials/textbooks you use to teach listening. What do you use? Why?
   How do you feel about using these materials to teach listening in English?

3. Tell me about what other resources you use to teach listening (TV, music, teacher, TED, YouTube).
   How often do you use these resources? Why?

4. From the following, tell me about which components are easy/difficult to manage in listening classes. Why?

Vocabulary	Speaker's speed/accent	Listening content	Topic background	Visual aids	Other

5. Which of these approaches and steps do you use teach listening?
   Which approaches and steps do you think would help you teach listening better?

Discuss the topic	Make predictions	Think about previous experience	Understand general Ideas	Understand specific Ideas	Check vocabulary	Use visual aids
Take notes	Write a summary	Write an opinion	Use the transcript	Set listening goals	Answer comprehension questions	Learners talk with each other

6. Please look at the following examples of activities and materials for teaching listening. Which of the following materials do you use to teach listening?
   How would the following materials be useful to help you teach listening better?

Individual skills checklist	Skills sheets	Listening diaries/ journals	Comprehension activities	Listening feedback	Learners talk about their listening	Learners complete activities on their own

7. Have you used any TED Talks to teach listening before?
   How do you think using TED Talks would be useful for teaching listening?

8. Is it possible to teach learners how to listen more effectively?
   What do you understand by 'listen effectively'? How do you think learners can be helped to listen better?

Teaching Listening

1. Did the listening activity go as planned? What was your plan for it?
2. What do you think are the 'best' methods to teach listening skills?
3. Tell me about how you selected that text/task (getting at why they are using texts/tasks)
   - What purpose for them?
   - How did views on 'best' methods influence your choice of text/task/procedure for the listening activity?
4. Justification of why they did certain things?
        (E.g. predicting, procedures, pausing, silence – why emphasis on silence?)
5. Focus on feedback? How well do they feel learners understood? How do they know?
6. Does the listening link with any other aspect of the lesson/course? In what way?
7. What are you confident teaching? Do you feel confident teaching all parts of the lesson?
8. What can help you teach listening more effectively?

10. Any other comments or general ideas?

PROMOTING EXTENSIVE READING BY NEWLY ARRIVED YEAR 11-12 PASIFIKA STUDENTS: OPPORTUNITIES AND OBSTACLES

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Abstract

Research into extensive reading programmes has shown that they are effective in developing students' motivation and ability. While many studies have explored extensive reading programmes in English-remote contexts, less attention has been given to explorations of the literacy needs of students in English embedded contexts; for example, Pasifika students who arrive in New Zealand in their high school years. Using a questionnaire and guided interview instruments, this study investigated the views of a small group of Year 11 and 12 Pasifika students and their teacher about extensive reading, and about factors that appear to hinder or promote development of this critically important skill. Findings revealed students were clearly interested in reading in English if suitable books were available, but that schoolwork and family commitments limited their available free time. Implications for how teachers and their school communities might assist with opening up extensive reading opportunities for Pasifika and other students are discussed.

Introduction

Pasifika[1] students who arrive in New Zealand in the final years of their secondary education need to achieve a level of proficiency in academic English that will ensure success in NCEA (National Certificate of Educational Achievement) assessments. Since reading is a core literacy skill, this study explored with a group of senior high school students how it might be advanced through extensive reading (ER), as well as the obstacles that may affect their willingness to take up opportunities for ER. Studies of secondary Pasifika student experiences in Christchurch (Fletcher et al., 2005; Fletcher et al., 2008) found that any positive attitudes towards and achievement in reading were supported. These included regular visits by students to the school or public library (with teachers and parents or by themselves), parents who were keen readers acting as role models, encouragement by parents to read and complete reading homework, and practice in decoding texts, including recitations from the Bible. Research by Nicholas et al. (2013) explored the perspectives of a range of New Zealand parents about supporting ER by their teenagers, finding not only that parents who are keen readers are valuable role models and that access to libraries is beneficial, but also that not all parents are aware of the connection between reading skills and academic success.

Evidence that weak fluency and comprehension ability are likely barriers to ER can be seen in survey results of reading achievement by Year 8 Pasifika students (Ministry of Education, 2015). Findings included that, on average, they read less (0-1 hour per week)

than the national average of 2-3 hours per week for students in the same age group, and that there was an association between reading outside the classroom for more than two hours per week, school decile level, and students' academic achievement across a range of reading comprehension abilities. Circumstances that may hinder skill development are if students are asked to read books that are too long, that they cannot relate to or feature too many unknown words; if they are teased by more able classmates; or are required to read aloud to other students (Fletcher et al., 2005; Nation & Waring, 2020).

Nearly four decades ago, Stephen Krashen's "input hypothesis" (1985, p. 15) emphasised the value of comprehension in second language acquisition, and early research by Elley and Mangubhai (1983) with ER for primary schoolchildren in Fiji clearly demonstrated its effectiveness in helping advance overall L2 reading proficiency. Krashen (1985) stated that to facilitate learning, reading texts need to be comprehensible, available in large quantities, and at or slightly below students' current level of competence. This description fits well with ER, defined as reading undemanding texts quickly rather than studying more lexically dense and/or grammatically complex texts with reference to a dictionary (Day & Bamford, 1998). A recent review of published studies of over 40 ER programmes (Day, 2015) revealed that the most frequently used core ER principles are that a substantial number of texts are read, that learners choose what they read (although Macalister, 2015, suggests that teachers may help students make appropriate selections in resource-poor contexts), that texts on a variety of topics of interest are available, and that the purpose of ER is primarily for pleasure. On this last point, Robb (2002) and Macalister (2015) suggest that reading may also be used as a way of introducing another curriculum task or skill. Scholars further advise that reading be done individually and silently rather than spoken aloud so as not to slow the reader down (Nation & Waring, 2020). Day and Bamford (1998) use the terms *i minus 1* to describe the optimum level of difficulty of ER texts, with *i* representing the level that the learner is currently at, and *minus 1* signifying that the text is sufficiently undemanding for students to develop sight vocabulary without having to learn new words. Graded readers, referring to "books especially written for learners of English as a foreign language…with strict vocabulary control and with consideration of other factors affecting comprehensibility, such as grammatical difficulty, sentence complexity, use of illustrations, and simplicity of plot" (Nation & Waring, 2020, p.17), are generally acknowledged to be central to any extensive reading program (Nation & Waring, 2020, p.35).

Several studies have explored obstacles and opportunities for motivating young adult L2 readers to read extensively; however, most have been conducted with students in L2-remote contexts such as learners of English in Japan (e.g., Kanda, 2009; Mikami, 2017; Takase, 2004, 2007; Yamashita, 2013) or learners of Japanese in New Zealand (e.g., de Burgh-Hirabe & Feryok, 2013). Many of these students report a general lack of interest in learning English, prioritising of study in other subject areas and exam preparation, lack of suitable resources, and a preference for reading in the L1. Although their attitude towards ER might well be different from that of Pasifika students in an English-

embedded context such as New Zealand, this research provides useful information about possible barriers to participation in ER that may be more generally applicable; for example, difficulties prioritising time for reading and locating appropriate, enjoyable texts, as well as the challenges of texts with many unknown words. One study (Takase, 2004) found two main demotivating factors: if students needed to consult a dictionary to manage new words, and if they were required to complete post-reading tasks. The results of a study by Kanda (2009) added other possible demotivators: books that are very long and/or difficult, those that feature unfamiliar names or terms, plots or genres that readers are not interested in or not comfortable reading, or those that are on topics about which readers have no prior knowledge or experience. Picture books for native speakers of English were also not considered suitable due to the difficulty of vocabulary in their textual components.

Writing more generally about ER obstacles and opportunities, Nation and Waring (2020) advise that lack of motivation can be due not only to the perceived difficulty of the book, but also lack of interest in reading in general. On the other hand, motivation to read extensively is enhanced if a student comes to like the act of reading, experiences a sense of success with each book completed and a sense of making progress through reading, and enjoys the feelings of independence and control during this individual activity. These considerations are particularly relevant for Pasifika students if they come from homes where other cultural values and practices take precedence over ER and if, as new arrivals in New Zealand, they lack confidence and experience reading in English. Nation and Waring (2020) maintain that assigning time for reading during classes as well as at home is also beneficial; however, they also note that creating opportunities for students in the L2 classroom requires the teacher to retreat from the teacher-centred approaches that conventionally characterise instruction in intensive reading.

The purpose of this study is therefore to contribute to and update the existing small body of New Zealand-based research. Since it is very difficult to measure gains from ER in an ESL environment due to other sources of input that can help to progress the skills of students (Nation & Waring, 2020), the study chose to explore the particular barriers to proficiency through ER faced by newly arrived senior high school Pasifika students, and how they can best be assisted by promoting ER. It was guided by two research questions:

1. What are the views of recently arrived senior high school Pasifika students about reading in English?
2. What opportunities and obstacles do Pasifika students identify with regard to advancing their reading skills through ER?

Methodology
This exploratory study drew on the interpretive qualitative paradigm (Dörnyei, 2007) to answer its research questions. Participants were volunteers from two EAL classes at a co-educational Decile 1 (the 10% of schools with the highest proportion of students

from low socio-economic communities) high school in Auckland. There were 15 students in the Year 11 class and 29 in the Year 12-13 class. Pasifika students formed the majority group in each class, together with small numbers of new migrants and students from refugee backgrounds. After ethical approval for the project was obtained, an email providing detailed information was sent by an administrator to students in the two classes. Those who met the sampling criteria of being over 16, from a Pasifika background, and resident in New Zealand for less than five years were invited to participate. Nine students in total volunteered and gave written consent. Parents were also provided with information about the study.

In the Year 11-13 curriculum, teachers select assessments from a range of NZQA approved English language (formerly ESOL) Unit Standards. These can include standards at each level requiring students to read at least four or five texts at a corresponding CEFR level (A2/B1). To meet these standards, students need to read a wide range of texts and write responses to them. They are required to select texts from a variety of genres but should be free to choose their own texts. To explore students' views about reading, participants were first asked to complete a questionnaire comprising the Likert scale and multiple-choice responses to questions related to ER, and to add personal comments if they wished (see Appendix 1). Further information was gathered from semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews about participants' interest in reading in English as well as factors that hindered or motivated ER (see Appendix 2). One of the two classroom teachers of this group was interviewed about the structure of the reading programme and asked to evaluate its strengths and weaknesses (see Appendix 3). Data collection took place during Terms 2 and 3 of the 2020 school year; however, due to Covid19 school closures, some alterations to the original schedule were needed.

The first author counted questionnaire responses, grouped responses to open questions by theme, and transcribed the interviews. Interview statements were analysed following the conventional stages of thematic content analysis (Miles et al., 2014), and coded according to themes of interest to the study. Codes were checked by the second author. Disagreements were discussed and resolved. In the following section, questionnaire responses are reported in either table or summary format. Direct quotations from students (using pseudonyms) are used wherever possible to allow for direct representation of students' views.

Results
Study findings report information gathered from both the questionnaire and interview instruments, presented under the research questions guiding the study: students' views on ER for Research Question 1, and data on locating and choosing ER text, opportunities and obstacles for Research Question 2.

1. What are the views of recently arrived senior high school Pasifika students about reading in English?

Students' responses to questionnaire items about their attitudes to reading were positive, as can be seen from Table 1 below. Almost all the students reported that they enjoyed reading, considered it important, that they had time to read at home, and most found it easy to find reading materials.

Table 1:
Attitudes towards ER in English

	SA	A	D	SD
Reading in English is something I enjoy doing	7	1	1	0
I enjoy reading in English outside of the classroom	6	3	1	0
It is easy for me to find books and other things to read in English	5	4	0	0
It is important to read in English	7	2	0	0
I have free time at home to read for enjoyment.	6	3	0	0

SA = strongly agree; A = agree; D = disagree; SD = disagree

On the topic of reading in both the L1 and L2, four students reported reading texts of some kind in their first language (e.g., books, online resources, newspapers) at least once a week; however, others read less frequently—just once every few months or during the holidays. Reading in English was reported as being slightly more popular across the group than reading in the L1, with six reading regularly and the other three sometimes. There was unanimous agreement by students that ER in English was a means of assisting in the resettlement process, mainly by advancing their knowledge of English (5 students) or improving their chances of finding employment (3 students). Students described reading a range of text types in the L1 and English, including the Bible, non-fiction texts about important events in their own country, famous people, Samoan *matai*, hobbies and travel, as well as full-length and short story fiction in the genres of romance and science fiction, and detective and adventure stories. Several noted that their favourite book for that year had been a Maori love story. The broad range of preferences described by students suggests that library holdings need to meet these different tastes to the fullest extent possible. In questionnaire responses, students declared that if they were able to obtain interesting, readable books in English, they would be willing to read in their own time for one hour (3 students), up to three hours (6 students) or more than three hours per week (1 student).

2. What opportunities and obstacles do Pasifika students identify with regard to advancing their reading skills through ER?

It appears that materials were readily available for students from either the school (library and classroom resources), home, or public libraries. With regard to text choices, they reported that one of their teachers made selections for students, while the other offered free choice. While some students saw benefits in both options, since the teacher would be likely to choose more challenging texts and the student to choose easier texts, others stated that they preferred to make their own decisions:

> I prefer to choose my own book to read on my own free time, so I don't waste my time. (Natia)

> I choose my own books to read so I can understand. (Loto)

In practice, both options were often combined in the two classes. In her interview, the teacher reported that she initially sat with students, talked about their interests and showed them how to identify if a text was at an appropriate level of difficulty. However, she commented on one common aspect of available texts that was potentially off-putting: graded readers tended to feature people and places in the northern hemisphere that were remote from the experiences of Pasifika students. Any stories that connected more closely with their own experiences such romances and books about relationships were well-liked. For example, she noted that for many students, a popular choice was the Baby-sitter Club books (a series of more than 200 titles about a group of US teenagers who run a baby-sitting service) on account of its familiar subject matter, despite its North American setting.

Almost all participants reported they had been reading more in class to prepare for NCEA assessments, but school closures in 2020 had resulted in more reading opportunities at home. It is also possible that the increased amount of time spent reading in class pre-closures encouraged students to continue reading at home. Comments by several students showed that they had definitely become more prepared to read just for enjoyment:

> To me it's just reading the book and I just feel excited like what is the book about and the character what it feels like emotionally and that was the most enjoyable thing for me. (Fetu)

> It's good for me because um I've got a lot of things to learn about it…it's good for my English…my second language. (Teuila)

> The good thing about reading widely is that I learn more stuff about other people's imagination. (Ana)

Although students were clearly aware of the personal as well as academic benefits that reading offered, the teacher commented on the need to offer support and a positive approach in the classroom: "motivation has to be encouraged; it doesn't just come out of nowhere".

From students' responses to two questionnaire items about time constraints on opportunities for ER (see Table 2) these tended to be imposed by schoolwork, and family and church obligations.

Table 2:
Barriers to reading in English

Why don't you read more books in English in your free time? Choose up to 3 responses.	
It's too difficult for me.	4
I don't have the time because of homework and study.	7
I don't have time because of family or church.	9
I don't have any books to read/ I can't find any books to read.	3
I don't want to read in English in my free time.	1
Choose the most important reason why you don't read in English in your free time from this list.	
It's too difficult for me.	1
I don't have the time because of homework and study.	4
I don't know which books to read.	0
I don't have time because of family or church.	3
I don't have any books to read/ I can't find any books to read.	0
I don't want to read in English in my free time.	0
I have many chores to do.	1

In Years 11-12 important NCEA qualifications are a major focus, but in addition to school homework, in many Pasifika families there appears to be an expectation that teenagers will help with household chores and be involved in church activities. Interview responses reinforced views expressed in the questionnaire: that schoolwork restricts the amount of free time available for reading, classmates can be a distraction, while the demands of home life further constrain opportunities for ER.

> Well to be honest, I don't read books at home because if I read books my family or my sisters distract or disturb me reading so I just leave the books for another time and do my homework. (Natia)

> I'm just thinking about the time because I have many on a lot things to do. It's about assessments and about the chores that I do at home. (Malia)

> Just doing chores...and I was distracted by my phone. (Fetu)

> …chores at home and um here at school like doing other subjects. (Sefina)

This view was confirmed by the teacher, who considered the main obstacles to ER to be "the dynamics of family life" and "difficulties gaining access to texts".

With regard to challenges created by the difficulty of English texts, Table 3 shows that one-third of the student group had difficulties with the amount of unknown vocabulary in texts they were reading for enjoyment, while the majority believed they were able to understand all or most of what they read. They appeared to be reasonably confident that they could correctly guess the meanings of unknown words on some or most occasions, but all used a dictionary on occasion.

Table 3:
Reading comprehension

In reading for enjoyment in English how would you rate your understanding?			
Low	Okay	Good	Excellent
I can't understand and need to use a dictionary	I can understand some of what I read	I can understand most of what I read	I can understand everything
0	3	4	2
If you do not know the meaning of a word when reading, are you able to guess the meaning?			
No, I always need a dictionary	Sometimes I can guess the meaning of a new word	Yes, I can usually guess the meaning of words	Yes, I never use a dictionary to guess the meanings of words
1	4	4	0

The teacher revealed her views on the importance of students' understanding of the difference between the purpose of ER as opposed to intensive reading; for example, that encountering new vocabulary should not be viewed as an obstacle. She believed that students needed to be encouraged to view ER as enjoyment and a way of becoming a more fluent reader, and that if students "are highly engaged in the text, it [an unknown word] doesn't necessarily matter, because usually you can pick it [the meaning of new words] up later."

Discussion
The study showed that this group of newly arrived Year 11 and Year 12 Pasifika students were, on the whole, motivated to read in English. Questionnaire responses highlighted positive attitudes and recognition of its value for helping them with their English, their other school subjects, and their future lives in New Zealand. Students had access to reading materials in class, and most continued to read during the periods of school closure in 2020, suggesting that it is possible for learners with support and motivation to overcome barriers to ER. One key finding was that students are more likely to take up ER opportunities outside of class time if they can access texts that are of immediate interest and easy enough for them to read independently, that cater to a variety of tastes, and are chosen by or in consultation with students—a result which confirms a previous study (Fletcher et al., 2005) on the literacy needs and interests of Pasifika students. Enabling learners of English further access to high interest low level reading material could further encourage reading outside the classroom, either online or through libraries.

Factors which hindered the development of ER were the demands of homework and assessments as well as family and church responsibilities. Some students who found the books they selected or that were selected for them too hard were less motivated to continue, and half of the group reported using the laborious strategy of looking up unfamiliar words in a dictionary rather than guessing their meanings (see Table 3). Dissatisfaction with the kind of book or level of difficulty of an assigned book were clear demotivators. Students who appeared the most enthusiastic were those who had chosen their own texts and who reported becoming emotionally involved with what they were reading. Findings therefore confirm those of previous studies (e.g., Fletcher et al., 2005; Mikami, 2017; Takase, 2007) with other groups of young learners that assert the importance of making available for students interesting reading texts in the L2 at an appropriate level of difficulty.

We acknowledge that this exploratory study collected information from only a small sample of students who may not be representative of the broad population of Pasifika students, and that it was based on self-reported information. We were not able to verify how many books students actually read, or to link ER with gains in reading fluency and vocabulary knowledge, although other studies (e.g., Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; McLean & Rouault, 2017) have shown the remarkable progress that reading can instigate. Our conclusions can therefore be only indicative.

Implications

Based on study findings, we see several implications for those involved in the promotion of ER at school. In order to build students' positivity towards reading, teachers, librarians and parents need to provide encouragement to boost confidence and opportunities for reading. The range of genres listed by students in their reading preferences means that a considerable quantity of books within a range of genres at a range of levels of difficulty, such as graded reader series, need to be made available through the school and/or public library systems. According to the teacher, students are particularly keen on books that feature subjects and local settings that touch their lives; however, locally produced literature such as the recently published fiction/non-fiction text about the highly successful Tongan rugby league team (Tatafu & Riley, 2020), which is written in simple, straightforward English, is still relatively sparse.

Although students are to be encouraged to read at home, it would seem from the findings of this study and others (e.g., Takase, 2007) that initially they benefit from being given time to read in class. Reading time at school outside the classroom could be provided with lunchtime reading clubs or after school reading time. Some schools provide homework clubs or study times for students to access the library and finish homework. Students need to be able to read without having to look up words in a dictionary; however, from the interviews with students it appears that many believed they needed to check the dictionary, and that it was crucial for them to understand every word in an ER text; so advice and encouragement may be needed on this point. Being required to

complete written reports on the books they had read has been found to be a demotivating influence in some studies (Takase, 2004; Nation & Waring, 2020); so students may prefer to sometimes audio-record their responses to a book through a spoken report or through a discussion with the teacher. Teachers need to find ways to ensure that students can share their reading and insights with their teachers and peers to foster the creation of a reading community, where reading is supported and encouraged (Lyutaya, 2011). Moreover, if the larger community can be educated on the value of reading for pleasure, so it is seen as an acceptable leisure activity like watching television, this might encourage parents to offer support and prioritise reading at home.

Conclusion

We hope that this study has contributed to and updated the small body of literature that currently exists on the particular academic literacy needs of newly arrived teenage Pasifika students. It is clear from previous research and scholarship that promoting ER will advance fluency reading skills that will help students achieve success in their academic studies. However, it is also evident that although these Pasifika students in senior high school classes showed an interest in ER in English, a number of obstacles in terms of time and resource constraints currently exist that may hold back their development. Teachers of these and similar groups of students therefore need to ensure that opportunities are provided to the fullest extent possible for students to benefit from the gains that ER can help them achieve.

Note

The term Pasifika refers to people whose ancestry lies in the Pacific Islands and is used for convenience. The term actually refers to a range of ethnicities, including students and their families from Samoa, Tonga, the Cook Islands, Fiji, Niue, Tokelau, and Tuvalu (The Education Hub, 2019).

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Appendix 1. Questionnaire on reading in English

Section 1

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information on the habits and motivations of students in reading for enjoyment. This reading is for fun, not for school subjects.

1. Email _____

2. Reading in English is something I enjoy doing.
Agree   1   2   3   4   disagree

3. I enjoy reading in English outside of the classroom.
Agree   1   2   3   4   disagree

4. It is easy for me to find books and other things to read in English.
Agree   1   2   3   4   disagree

5. It is important to read in English
Agree   1   2   3   4   disagree

6. I have free time at home to read for enjoyment.
Agree   1   2   3   4   disagree

Section 2

For the questions below, read the questions carefully and choose one answer only

7. In reading for enjoyment in English, how would you rate your level of understanding?
Low. I can't understand and need to use a dictionary.
Okay. I can understand some of what I read
Good. I can understand most of what I read.
Excellent. I can understand everything.

8. If you do not know the meaning of all the words when reading, are you able to guess the meaning of words?
No, I always need a dictionary
Sometimes I can guess the meaning of a new word.
Yes, I usually can guess the meaning of words.
Yes, I never use a dictionary to guess new words.

9. In your free time, how often do you read books in your first language (e.g. Samoan)?
At least once a week (or more often)
Once every 1-2 months
Sometimes (e.g. during the holidays)
Never, I prefer to do other things during my free time.

10. In the last year (12 months) how many books have you read for enjoyment in your first language (e.g. Samoan)?
0 books
1-2 books
3-4 books
6-8 books
more than 8 books

11. How often do you read something in English for enjoyment? *Mark only one oval.*
At least once a week (or more often)
Once every 1-2 months
Sometimes (e.g. during the holidays)
Never

12. In the last year (12 months), how many books have you read in English for enjoyment?
0 (no books)
1-2 books
3-4 books
more than 4

13. Would you like to read more books in English for enjoyment than you do now?
Yes. I definitely want to read more in English
Maybe. I want to read more in English
No. I'm not interested in reading more in English

14. Why don't you read more books in English for enjoyment? From the list below, you can choose up to 3. *Tick all that apply.*
It's too difficult for me.
I don't have the time because of homework and study.
I don't know which books to read.
I don't have time because of family or church.
I don't have any books to read/ I can't find any books to read.
I don't want to read in English in my free time.
Other:

15. If you could get interesting books in English, how many hours per week would you be willing to read?
0
1
2-3
more than 3
16. Do you think reading for enjoyment in English is important?

Yes. Very important
Yes. Quite important.
Not sure.
No.

17. If you answered yes to question 16, why do you think reading in English for enjoyment is important?
Could be useful for other subjects
Could be good for knowing more vocabulary
Could be useful for improving English language
Could be good for getting a good job

18. What type of books/texts in English would you like to read? *You can choose up to 3 types.*
Mystery, spy or detective stories
Adventure
Science fiction
Romance
Hobbies, travel
Fiction, novels
Non-fiction (sports, health, factual information)
Social studies (history and geography)
Real stories about people's lives
Other:

19. Name at least 5 places you could find a book to read:

Appendix 2. Interview questions for students

1. What do you think are the benefits (good things) about reading widely or extensively in English this year?
2. What did you find difficult when you were reading widely in English this year?
3. Where did you find the books or articles that you read for your wider reading?
4. What did you find the most enjoyable about reading widely in English?
5. What kind of things stop you from doing your wider reading?

You were asked to read widely for an assessment this year. In some cases, you were able to choose the books and in other classes, the teacher gave you a book to read. These questions are about when you can choose books to read.
6. Do you read in your first language e.g, Samoan? What kinds of books do you choose to read in your first language?
7. What kinds of books do you choose to read in English?
8. Tell me about one or two books you chose for your wider reading.
9. Where are some places that you would go to find good books or articles to read?

10. Do you prefer to choose your own books or for a teacher to tell you what to read?
11. Do you think you have read more books this year in class?
12. Do you think you have read more books at home or in class this year?

Appendix 3. Interview questions for the teacher

1. What is your interpretation of ER? How does it differ from other types of reading you might do with your class?
2. How will the ER programme work alongside reading for NCEA credits? If level 1 is supposed to be at A2 on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), what will you do if the Year 11 students are not there yet?
3. What resources are available for students to access to enable them to fulfil their reading requirements?
4. What factors do you think stop students from reading outside the class?
5. How can we as teachers overcome these barriers?
6. How much time per week do you plan to spend on ER in your class?

VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF ELT TEACHERS IN ICELAND: SIZE, LEVELS AND INFLUENCES

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Abstract

This article reports on a small-scale study of the vocabulary knowledge and language learning experience of 20 secondary school teachers from six schools in Iceland. The teachers took the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) (Nation & Coxhead, 2021; Nation & Beglar, 2007) and the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) (Schmitt et al., 2001; Nation, 1983). Ten of the teachers took part in individual interviews, while six teachers participated in group interviews. The VST results suggest that the teachers have a large vocabulary size at nearly 16,000 word families on average. The VLT results also indicate mastery of high-frequency, mid-frequency and academic vocabulary. The interview results indicated a range of experiences that have contributed to the vocabulary knowledge of these English teachers. These included lifelong exposure, high-level academic studies, a love of literature, language and arts in English. Implications for language learning and teaching are discussed, along with suggestions for further research.

Introduction

Language teachers are central to the language development of language learners. Tsui (2003, p. 136) points out that in language teaching, "…the target language [English] is both the medium and the object of learning". This point raises a question about the importance of the level of teacher proficiency in English in the classroom. Little is known about the vocabulary knowledge of language teachers in general, and in the Icelandic context in particular. The purpose of this research is to investigate the vocabulary knowledge of English language teachers in Iceland, and to find out more about their language learning and language maintenance behaviours, rather than their knowledge of the development of vocabulary knowledge and instruction which has seen more attention in the literature (e.g., Duguay et al., 2016).

The status of English in Iceland has changed in recent times. At the beginning of the 21st century, English replaced Danish as the first foreign language taught in Icelandic schools (Hauksdóttir, 2016). Understanding the challenges of teaching and learning English in Iceland has become a burgeoning area of research which has focused on survey and interview data at primary school (Ingvarsdóttir & Jóhannsdóttir, 2018), secondary school (Jeeves, 2018) and university (Arnbjórsdóttir, 2018a; 2020). Edgarsson (2018) suggests that preparation is needed for Icelandic learners to cope with academic texts in English. In contrast, such learners report strong beliefs as to their own proficiency in English (Jeeves, 2018). Arnbjörnsdóttir (2018b) carried out a survey on

perceptions of proficiency in English of just over 900 Icelandic adults and finds that between 60-70% report understanding spoken English and reading very well or rather well, and between 56% to 65% report speaking and writing English very well or rather well. This research paints a picture of high confidence levels in English language abilities, but little actual data on vocabulary knowledge.

The pervasive nature of English in Iceland raises concerns as to whether Icelandic can remain the national language (Hilmarsson-Dunn & Kristinsson, 2011). In the tertiary environment, Arnbjórsdóttir (2020) and Arnbjörnsdóttir and Ingvarsdóttir (2014) have reported increasing pressures to deliver courses and to publish in English, despite evidence that students struggle to work in two languages at this level. Icelanders have high levels of exposure to English everyday through media, music, and online activities, but exposure to academic texts and lexis remains largely in the university arena.

How much vocabulary knowledge is needed to cope with written and spoken texts in English?
There is a strong connection between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Laufer, 2020; Schmitt et al., 2011). Research into the percentage of words needed to comprehend written texts (see Nation, 2006; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010;) focuses on 95% and 98% coverage of texts. At 95% coverage, learners may need some help with vocabulary, whereas at 98% coverage, learners should have enough vocabulary to comprehend the text on their own. The second measure is vocabulary size. If reading in English includes novels and newspapers, Nation (2006) found that 8,000-9,000 word families plus proper nouns were needed to reach 98% for these texts. Coxhead (2012) found similar levels for novels, poetry and film scripts used in English literature classes in New Zealand secondary schools. A study of a corpus of written academic English reported that 9,000 word families plus proper nouns, abbreviations, and transparent compounds (e.g. *icecap*, *icecream, icepick*) were needed to reach 95% coverage (Coxhead, 2021).

Spoken academic texts in English require a smaller number of words to reach 95% and 98% coverage than written academic texts. Dang and Webb (2014) found that 4,000 word families plus marginal words (e.g. *um, er*) and proper nouns were needed to reach 95% coverage for university lectures and seminars, compared to 8,000 word families to reach 98%. For university laboratory sessions and tutorials, 3,000 word families reached 95% coverage (Coxhead et al. 2017; Dang et al., 2020b). Vocabulary coverage and size measures can help establish whether learners have enough vocabulary to cope with the demands of written and spoken texts.

Investigating teachers' vocabulary knowledge in English
A study that investigated teachers' English vocabulary knowledge in the Indonesian context (i.e., Wulyani et al., 2019) used the VLT (Schmitt et al., 2001; Nation, 1983) to investigate the written receptive vocabulary knowledge of the following frequency

levels: 2,000, 3,000, 5,000 and 10,000; and academic vocabulary knowledge based on Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List (AWL). This test was chosen for two reasons. The first was that the newer version of this test by Webb et al. (2017) is based on high frequency vocabulary: the first five 1,000 sublists of Nation's (2018) British National Corpus/Corpus of Contemporary American English (BNC/COCA) word lists). This test is unsuitable for teachers who are likely to recognise a large amount of words in English. Secondly, the VLT contains a subsection on academic vocabulary. Also, using the same test as other studies of vocabulary knowledge allows for comparison with the results of other studies.

A total of 62 EFL teachers took the VLT. To determine whether learners have sufficient knowledge of vocabulary, a test threshold indicating level of mastery tends to sit at 26 or 27/30 on the VLT for each band, depending on the context (Schmitt et al., 2001). Applying different thresholds for mastery has an impact on results, as the anonymous reviewer pointed out. A score which is closer to 100% would suggest that test takers would know a greater proportion of the lexical items in a test, as we can see when we compare a score of 26/30 (86%) compared to a score of 27/30 (90%). Wulyani et al. (2019) used a lower mastery threshold of 26/30 and reported a wide range of scores on the frequency and AWL levels: some teachers scored highly while others did not. The teachers reached mastery of the high frequency (2,000) level, and close to mastery of both the 3,000 word level and AWL. The mean score at the 5,000 level (mid frequency vocabulary) was nearly 18.30, while the 10,000 (low frequency) level was almost 7/30. Interestingly, there was a weak negative correlation between years of teaching experience and academic vocabulary knowledge: the teachers who had been teaching longest had lower academic vocabulary scores. In addition to the VLT, 68 survey participants self-reported their vocabulary proficiency. A total of 53 teachers reported that their vocabulary knowledge required some degree of work. Three thought their vocabulary knowledge in English was excellent. Clearly the perceptions of vocabulary knowledge and the test results in the study suggest difficulty in developing and maintaining knowledge of vocabulary beyond high frequency and academic vocabulary.

One reason for interest in EFL teachers' vocabulary knowledge is that today's language teacher is yesterday's language learner. The pathway to becoming a language teacher is often through formal study of English grammar, literature, and culture. Knowledge of vocabulary is part of the content knowledge of a language specialist. Unfortunately, research into the knowledge of secondary school and university level students in English as a foreign language context has suggested that more learning is needed. Studies using the VLT (Schmitt et al., 2001) have reported low levels of vocabulary knowledge of even high-frequency vocabulary in English including countries such as Denmark (Henriksen & Danelund, 2015), Taiwan (Webb & Chang, 2012), Norway (Skjelde & Coxhead, 2020), and China (Sun & Dang, 2020). In a study of academic vocabulary knowledge in the Norwegian Upper Secondary School context, Skjelde and Coxhead (2020) found that nearly 60% of the students tested did not show mastery of an academic

vocabulary task which was made up of academic sections of Versions A and B of the VLT (Schmitt et al., 2001), based on Coxhead's (2000) AWL.

In some cases, vocabulary knowledge can fail to thrive even after years of study. Webb and Chang (2012) reported that 78/166 of the Chinese first language speaking learners in their study achieved mastery of high frequency vocabulary after five years of EFL instruction. Students in an English-medium international school in Germany fared better, as Coxhead and Boutorwick (2018) report. They found that non-native English speakers achieved mastery of high frequency levels (2,000 to 3,000) of the VLT in Grade 6, the 5,000 level and AWL two years later, and nearly the 10,000 level in another two years. The students who had mastery of high-frequency vocabulary in Grade 6 did not receive any extra English language support in the school, whereas those without mastery were offered English as an additional language (EAL) support. The EAL students also showed growth in their vocabulary knowledge over time at school, reaching mastery of the 2,000 level in Grade 9, and the 3,000 level and AWL by Grade 11. The mid and low frequency levels of the test remained outside their mastery.

Factors affecting vocabulary maintenance and growth
The second focus of this article is on the factors that contribute to the vocabulary knowledge of Icelandic teachers. We might expect that the literacy activities involved in being a teacher feeds into their language knowledge, as Tsui (2003) suggests. Novels, newspapers, and academic written texts appear to be commonly used in universities and secondary schools in Iceland. Therefore, it could be that teachers in these contexts maintain their English proficiency and vocabulary knowledge through reading. Being able to read and understand novels and newspapers requires an understanding of vocabulary up to 8,000-9,000 word families plus proper nouns (Nation, 2006). Learners with this size of vocabulary are better able to guess the meaning of unknown words in reading. In addition to reading, there are other factors that can contribute to maintaining English vocabulary. Wulyani et al. (2019), for example, reported their participants kept their English knowledge current through professional development, reading various online media, writing in English, and sharing their knowledge of English with other language teachers. This study aims to explore this area further.

Research questions
The questions motivating this research are as follows:
1. What are the teachers' scores on the VLT and VST and what do these scores suggest about their vocabulary knowledge?
2. What factors have contributed to the English vocabulary knowledge of these teachers?

Materials and methods
Participants
A total of 20 secondary school teachers from six schools in urban areas in Iceland took part in this study. Seventeen are Icelanders, two are first language speakers of English and one is a native speaker of an eastern European language. There were 17 females and three males, aged from 28 years old to over 60. Two participants had been teaching for three years or fewer, two had taught for eight years, and the remainder had taught for ten years or more. The data collection took place in schools, usually at the end of a teaching day.

Tests
Two tests were used in this study. The VLT is described above already. Each section has 30 items and the test uses a matching format whereby test takers select the definitions of three target words from a total of six definitions. Mastery at each level depends on the context of testing (Schmitt et al., 2001) as noted above and was set at 27/30 for this study. Participants were given 30 minutes to complete the test but most finished more quickly. The second test is the VST (Nation & Coxhead, 2021; Coxhead et al., 2014, 2015; Nation & Beglar, 2007). This is a multi-choice, written receptive knowledge test which contains 100 items—five for each 1,000 frequency level based on Nation's (2018) 1,000-20,000 BNC/COCA word lists. The original version of the VST (Nation & Beglar, 2007) is based on the 1,000-14,000 BNC/COCA lists. The 20,000 version by Coxhead et al. (2014, 2015) was developed to test the vocabulary knowledge of first language speakers of English (see Nation & Coxhead, 2021). It was used in this study because it was less likely to have a ceiling effect than the original version. The VST is scored by multiplying the raw score by 200 to get an estimate of total vocabulary size. For example, a score of 56/100=56 x 200=11,200 word families.

Fifteen teachers took the VLT and 16 took the VST. They received either the VST or VLT first (this was done systematically by alternating between participants) and usually completed the tests in a classroom or a staff room with the researcher present. Once they completed one test, they received the next one. In three cases, the teachers completed a test and emailed it to the researcher because they did not have time to do both tests on the day of the school visit or because they worked in another city which the researchers did not visit. Four teachers did not take the tests because they did not have time or were first language speakers of English.

Interviews
Most interviews took place in schools just after the teachers sat the tests. One took place on Skype. Ten teachers took part in individual interviews and six in group interviews. The interview questions did not directly focus on vocabulary knowledge but were more broadly aimed at language skills and development. The participants had likely attended a seminar at the University of Iceland by one of the researchers in the weeks before the interviews and testing took place, and were aware that vocabulary was an area of research interest for her. Here are the interview questions:

1. Can you tell me about your area of expertise/teaching here at this school?
2. Can you tell me about your language learning background in English?
3. How much and often do you use English in your everyday life?
4. What about in your school context?
5. What barriers or challenges do you face in your use of English?

Data analysis
Testing data
The VLT and VST data were analysed using R (version 4.0.3) (R Core Team, 2020). Means and standard deviations were computed for each test. For the VLT, a Shapiro Wils test was computed to determine if the data was normally distributed. As a result, Pearson's product-moment correlation was used for the correlation presented below. To determine vocabulary size, each teacher's total VST score was multiplied by 200.

Interview data
Initially, detailed notes were taken from each recording and examined for descriptions of the teachers' language learning, language backgrounds and teaching. These sections were transcribed, then re-explored for themes which may help to explain their high vocabulary test scores.

Results and discussion
RQ1: What are the teachers' scores on the VLT and VST and what do these scores suggest about their vocabulary knowledge?
Table 1 shows the mean scores and standard deviations on each section of the VLT. The table shows that the teachers have achieved mastery in all levels (27/30) and that there is a ceiling effect. The participants demonstrate an excellent grasp of academic vocabulary in that section of the VLT.

Table 1:
Teachers' scores on the VLT (n = 15)

VLT	2k	3k	5k	10k	AWL
Mean	29.8	29.9	29.9	28.5	29.7
SD	0.56	0.52	0.26	2.33	0.62

The VST results suggest that the teachers' vocabulary size is 15,800 word families, with a standard deviation of 2,166 word families. The average score for the VST was 79 out of 100 (SD=10.8). Table 2 shows the estimated vocabulary size in word families for each participant, arranged in the third column from top to bottom score.

Table 2:
Total VST score and estimated size in word families

Test taker	VST total score (out of 100)	Estimated vocabulary size (word families)
7	93	18600
13	93	18600
16	92	18400
6	90	18000
2	85	17000
5	85	17000
10	82	16400
1	79	15800
3	78	15600
9	78	15600
11	77	15400
4	73	14600
14	72	14400
8	68	13600
15	63	12600
12	56	11200

There is no significant correlation between the total VST score and years of teaching ($r(10)=.05$, $p=.87$). Note that three teachers did not report their years of teaching experience. The test results on both the VLT and the VST were much higher than expected. Taken together, these test results suggest these teachers have substantial vocabulary sizes.

RQ 2 What factors have contributed to the vocabulary knowledge of these teachers in English?

Professional development

These teachers had all attained a high level of achievement in English language study through their pursuit of opportunities for professional input (see Tsui, 2003). They had undertaken postgraduate education in English, for example, at Háskóli Íslands (the University of Iceland). The journey to higher education was motivated in different ways. For example, Halfdan's initial degree choice of a BA in English at Háskóli was largely driven by a desire to translate movies. It led to a term studying in Scotland, and then back to Iceland and teaching in a vocational school. Tina noted that she was comfortable using low frequency words in English by the time she finished her university studies. The Teacher Union in Iceland provide teacher education programmes and support travel

to focus on English language skills in English speaking countries, such as Canada and England (Kris; Tina) and short trips twice a year to London for Mary Jane.

Being an English teacher

The enjoyment of being proficient in a language was important to the teachers, and it was strongly connected to teaching. Diana said, "It's nice to teach people what I love". Becoming a teacher was the fulfilment of lifelong dreams for some participants. For Mary Jane, it "was always a dream", Diana decided "when [she] was about 11 or 12 that [she] had to become an English teacher…" and Erik was thirteen when he "decided [he] was going to be an English teacher". Kris said that, "it's [teaching is] a rewarding job, when you see them [the students], the lightbulb above their head, yeah like that, and you, they show you…they are improving".

The teachers reported using a range of English literature texts, including plays, novels and films which can be found in secondary schools in New Zealand and demanding writing tasks. For example, Eyore used *To Kill a Mockingbird* and his students were "finishing an assignment on multiple intelligences". Finna used a range of teenage fiction, such as *Harry Potter*, short fables and novellas by Stephen King (*Rita Hayworth; Shawshank Redemption*) and movies (*The Breakfast Club*). Tove taught using *Burial Rites* by "…an Australian author that used to live…in Iceland and…wrote a book based on true events that happened [there]". Tove asked her students to choose one book out of a list of four to read in her courses. Erik liked novels such as *The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night* because they are "pretty fun to teach". The teachers also develop and deliver elective subjects that involved English language texts: for example film, science fiction and graphic novels.

Exposure and opportunities to use English

Many of these teachers had lived and worked in English-speaking countries. Tove was an *au pair* for four years in the USA and later lived in London. Diana lived in Canada from the ages of 6 to 10. Kris lived in Australia for a year as an exchange student when she was seventeen and left with an Australian accent. Inga spent some years in the USA. These experiences highlight the immersive environments that these teachers have been exposed to, and which are an important factor in their advanced vocabulary knowledge.

A related theme was strong family connections to English speakers or English-speaking countries. Eva's mother, for example, was an exchange student in her youth and her exchange parents became Eva's "American grandparents". They "sent presents and… letters and there was a lot of…warm feelings between the two families". Her mother hosted two American students for a summer, then Eva and her sister went to America for a summer. Eva later married an Englishman who worked for an international organisation in foreign countries where she used French and English to communicate. For these teachers, English is a language of the home in some instances and a language

of lifelong friendships in others. An early foundation in English has continued throughout their lives.

Learning and using more than one foreign language

Another theme was that the teachers had experience of learning multiple languages. All the teachers reported using at least two languages often, and most reported using more (Table 3). Danish was the first foreign language learned at school for the older participants. Diana and Fríða still use Danish often.

Table 3:
Examples of some participants' reported language learning and use

Participant	Languages learned and used
Astrid	Japanese and English
Diana	Swedish, Danish, Latin, French and German
Eva	German, Norwegian and English
Eyore	German and English
Halfdan	Danish and English
Hannah (English L1)	Spanish, French and English
Kris	German, French, Danish and English
Sigrid	Japanese and English
Tina (eastern European L1)	English, Russian and English

Family language use and travel were key to using multiple languages. Eva's grandmother was Norwegian and Halfdan's grandparents were from Denmark. His father and uncles communicate in Danish "when they meet on special occasions". Several participants had family members living in countries such as Sweden.

Motivation and spare time activities

The teachers, on the whole, were motivated to learn English. Astrid described English as her favourite subject at school and Tina similarly said it was her passion. Diana found learning English easy and Kris reported being good at it. For Mary Jane, this feeling developed over time because she had struggled early on. She was determined to be good at English and remembers "the day when I was sitting in class and I got, ah, it was kind of a lightbulb moment and I was like wow I can do this!"

The teachers enjoyed a number of English language activities including reading, playing games, listening to books, and watching television, as well as frequent opportunities to speak English in the classroom, with colleagues, and with partners or family members. Avid and lifelong readers, such as Eyore, Finna, Diana and Astrid, read mostly in English. Finna read Margaret Atwood and Ian MacEwan, and Eyore's most recent reading was *Go Set a Watchman* (Harper Lee). Eyore described listening to English

novels through Audible as "really nice". Eyore played Scrabble regularly with English speakers and enjoyed being the person at the table who let others know whether a word exists in English or not. Halfdan was "sports mad" and had plenty of input watching English football on TV, while Astrid enjoyed watching cartoons and English TV programmes. Erik credited the Cartoon Network with his feeling that he "knew some English before we started formal instruction when ah when [he] was ten". Tina used to keep diaries and write books in English to provide herself an opportunity to use English outside of the classroom.

A couple of teachers noted some deterioration in their English language ability over time. Kris said that ten years after she returned from Australia, she went back to university study and struggled with English. Tina felt she had lost a lot of the "high level academic words" she used to know because no-one understood her when she used them, so she stopped. Astrid acknowledged that she needs to improve her vocabulary but, other than watching TV, she is not actively working on it.

English language exposure in the Icelandic context

Icelandic society is a conducive context for maintaining a high level of English language ability. Tove initially planned to "teach a book" but realised that a play in English was on at a theatre and took her students to it instead. Hannah noted that "now people seem to know more English, therefore they will speak English to foreigners and there seems to be less insistence on or less encouragement really for foreigners to learn Icelandic". Hannah also commented that, "75% of our students at secondary school in Iceland will go on to further education" and at university, this education is conducted in English. Astrid reported that some students completed some of their secondary school English courses at primary school because their language ability was very good. Similarly, Kris mentioned students who went straight to Level 2 English because their ability already surpassed that needed for the first level. It is clear that the Icelandic society is one in which English is encouraged and used regularly.

The teachers took full advantage of the affordances in their environment (Hilmarsson-Dunn & Kristinsson, 2010) and their own enjoyment of English to maintain their proficiency. The connection between the factors that have influenced their proficiency in English and the impressive lexical knowledge of these teachers, as evidenced by the scores on the VST and VLT suggests that these Icelandic teachers live in a vastly different world of exposure and practice in English compared to the EFL environment for the Indonesian teachers in Wulyani et al. (2019). The Icelandic teachers have a strong background and advanced skills in English which allow them to use their English to read, listen and interact with relative ease. Having a large vocabulary makes it easier to maintain their proficiency and to be proficient at inferencing while reading (Laufer, 2020). Their teaching feeds into this language maintenance as they use English literature, film, poetry and non-fiction writing in their classes. That said, attrition may be an issue for some participants. We can see that the teachers use lexically demanding

novels and films in English as part of their professional practice and believe that their students are able to cope with these texts. Icelandic remains the main language of instruction in tertiary studies in this context, but some programmes are available in English. This means that preparation for secondary students for university studies in English in Iceland may well require exposure to academic texts beyond literature-based instruction in secondary school. That said, it is important to note that the teachers in this study were volunteers, and they were not purposively selected to represent a range of instruction across secondary school subjects.

Nation's Four Strands (2013) were developed to guide curriculum design, but they can be applied to conceptualise vocabulary knowledge with the Icelandic teachers. who seek out and have plenty of meaning-focused input through their reading and listening. They pay attention to the meaning being conveyed in the texts, rather than paying attention to the meaning of individual words as a language-learning activity. The teachers also have plenty of meaning-focused output through spoken interaction in school, university assignments, in their communities and through travels in English. There is also evidence of fluency in all language skills and plenty of practice. There was little evidence of language-focused learning in the interview data, perhaps because their vocabulary knowledge has reached a level at which they no longer needed to deliberately learn aspects of words such as their spelling, pronunciation and grammar.

Limitations

The first limitation is a possible bias in this sample of teachers. As Senior (2006) writes, "…teachers who agree to participate in research are typically articulate individuals who are outgoing and confident of their abilities as teachers" (p. 248). Another limitation is the small number of participants which limits generalisability. The teachers in this study were predominantly English literature specialists, which has an impact on the genres and texts reported in the interview data. Finally, there was considerable flux in the interviews because they took place in schools during workdays.

Implications and future research

This study illustrates the importance that English has for these teachers, and how having a large vocabulary helps them maintain their ability to converse, read, and listen in the language every day. The life experiences of these teachers have all played a part in creating a love of language and confidence in using English. Teacher education programmes and higher education also play a role in language development and use. Such programmes in other countries might find ways for creative engagement with English, perhaps using online forums in the current pandemic environment.

This study also speaks to the benefits of understanding more about vocabulary knowledge in our teaching communities. Tests such as the VST and VLT could be used by teachers to assess their own vocabulary knowledge and where needed, set goals around learning vocabulary. This is not a recommendation for punitive actions as a

result of taking vocabulary tests. Nation's Four Strands (2013) are another tool that teachers could use to guide their vocabulary development.

Future research could focus language knowledge and proficiency of teachers in primary schools or consider the challenges of teaching and learning academic English vocabulary in Iceland secondary schools in preparation for university studies. This research could perhaps follow the work of Jeeves (2018), who used interviews with secondary school students in Iceland to identify beliefs about the relevance of English language education in that context. Specific language use in the secondary school and university environments could also be explored through a corpus-based approach of teacher talk in schools and university as an extension of work in the German international school context (Coxhead, 2017). As an anonymous reviewer pointed out, it would be useful to complement the VST with measures other than the VLT, such as measures of depth of vocabulary knowledge and/or productive vocabulary. Finally, a larger-scale study might investigate the impact of studying English literature and culture through demanding texts on the vocabulary development of learners in the Icelandic context.

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DEVELOPING TESTS TO ASSESS KNOWLEDGE OF HIGH FREQUENCY TECHNICAL WORDS IN TRADES EDUCATION

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Abstract
Knowledge of technical vocabulary is important for learners in trades education. This project focuses on developing tests to measure knowledge of high frequency technical vocabulary (e.g. flow in plumbing; load in carpentry) because learners encounter these words frequently in their studies. This paper reports on issues in the development of recall and recognition assessments, including deciding to use a picture format for the tests, selection of items and images, and sequencing. It also reports on consultation with trades education experts to check face, construct and content validity. Lessons, limitations and suggestions for refining the approach taken so far and for future research complete this report.

Introduction

The Language in Trades Education project investigated lexis and discourse in written and spoken pedagogical texts, as well as visual imagery in written texts, collected in four trades from Wellington Institute of Technology (WelTec) (see Coxhead, Parkinson, Mackay, & McLaughlin, 2020). One outcome of the project was a series of technical word lists based on the written and spoken corpora: automotive technology (Coxhead, 2021), carpentry (Coxhead et al., 2016), plumbing (Coxhead & Demecheleer, 2018), and fabrication (Coxhead et al., 2019). These lists aim to support learning and teaching in trades education by identifying technical single words (e.g. *flow* in plumbing and *dwang* in carpentry). Approximately 1,000 items in the lists were translated into Tongan using Talanoa as a research framework (Coxhead, Parkinson & Tu'amoheloa, 2020) to create bilingual technical word lists (Coxhead & Tu'amoheloa, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d). The lists are arranged in order of frequency from the most to the least frequent (Coxhead, Parkinson & Tu'amoheloa, 2020).

This research report describes a follow-up project drawing on the technical word lists to develop a tool to measure knowledge of high frequency technical vocabulary. This project was part of a larger initiative on trades education in Tonga based on the bilingual lists. The project initially aimed to find out more about the needs of Tongan learners in trades education (schools and polytechnics), how the bilingual lists might serve teachers and students, and to develop a size test of technical vocabulary. COVID-19 changed our plans and so we reframed the project to investigate knowledge of high frequency trades vocabulary drawing on the four word lists in English.

Context and Motivation

This research is firmly placed in the Aotearoa/New Zealand trades education context, with a particular emphasis on technical vocabulary. The technical word lists from the project are all large (over 1,000 items) and include single words, along with separate lists of technical abbreviations and acronyms, and proper nouns. One use of word lists is for assessment or diagnostic purposes, such as tests of general vocabulary size in English like the Vocabulary Size Test (Nation & Beglar, 2007. Our initial aim was to develop four size tests based on the technical word lists, but it became clear that there were a large number of methodological and validation procedures which were beyond the resources for our project, so the focus narrowed to the technical items from the four original trades lists that learners would encounter most often in the trades. Hence, we decided to concentrate on high frequency items (Nation, 2013) because they are foundational and important to all trades' learners. Being able to recognise high frequency vocabulary is important, as is being able to recall it. Consequently, the focus of the study became the development of recognition and recall tests for high frequency technical items for learners who are beginning trades education. They could be used for diagnostic purposes, so teachers, programmes and learners could identify any problems and consider what assistance might be needed and given (Nation, 2013).

Gaps and issues

The main gap in the literature was tests which focused on technical vocabulary knowledge in trades education. There are existing recognition tests of high frequency vocabulary, such as the Updated Vocabulary Levels Test (Webb et al., 2017), which measure the first 5,000 word families of Nation's British National Corpus/Corpus of Contemporary American English (BNC/COCA) lists (see Nation, 2016; 2018). Another recognition test is the Picture Vocabulary Test (Nation & Anthony, 2016; Anthony & Nation, 2017; see also Nation & Coxhead, 2021) which was developed for first language speakers of English (up to the age of eight) and young second or foreign language learners of English.

A major issue in our study was the representation and meaning of technical vocabulary in the tests. High frequency technical vocabulary in Automotive Technology, for example, includes items which occur in both technical and everyday contexts but with nuances of meaning, such as *seal, earth* and *fan*. There are also items which occur mostly in technical texts, e.g. *solenoid* and *ohm* (Coxhead, 2021). The second major issue was the need for expert guidance on the development of the tests, particularly in relation to selecting pictures that depicted the target lexical item. This feedback was important for content, construct and face validity. In hindsight, we should have called on our trades colleagues sooner rather than later. We expand on this point below.

The Research Project

The research questions which guided our project overall were:

1.   What recognition knowledge do trades education learners have of high frequency technical words in their trade?
2.   What recall knowledge do trades education learners have of high frequency technical words in their trade?

We have yet to answer these questions because the high frequency technical vocabulary recognition and recall tests are yet to be trialled or released. In this section, we outline the steps taken so far in their development. The first step was to determine what should be tested and how. First, we decided for several reasons to use a picture-based matching format. One reason was that text-based explanations of technical vocabulary would likely be long and difficult to control from a vocabulary perspective. For example, an explanation of *screwdriver* would likely include words such as *screw*, *cross-tipped end* and *tool*. Also, in trades education, much of the learning is based on spoken language, watching, doing (see Chan, 2013) and listening (Coxhead, Parkinson, Mackay & McLaughlin, 2020) rather than on writing, and pictures are commonly used in trades-based teaching materials. We used the same items in the recall and recognition tests to compare these different types of knowledge.

The second step was to select the items for the tests. We decided to focus on the first 300 most frequent word list items because the original word lists are large and any test based on all of those items would be very long. Using pictures meant that only concrete nouns could be examined (Nation, 2013). Happily, Table 1 shows that nouns make up a substantial proportion of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd 100 word lists in each trade, such as 79 of the first 100 words in the Automotive Technology Word List (Coxhead, 2021). A random number generator was used as a first pass on all three high frequency lists from all four trades individually, but not all the nouns are concrete (e.g. *method* and *load* in carpentry; *position* and *service* in automotive technology). We replaced items that were difficult to represent in pictures with the noun that appeared above or below the word. We aimed to create 30 questions from each 1st, 2nd and 3rd 100-word levels of technical vocabulary because 30 items in a test is a good number (Schmitt, et al., 2001) and the sampling ratio would be one in three. We needed 30 items per frequency level per trade (x4), or a total of 360 items, plus up to ten or more extras.

Table 1:
Number of nouns in the first 300 words of each of the trades

	Trade			
Word List	**Automotive Technology**	**Plumbing**	**Carpentry**	**Fabrication**
1st 100 words	79	78	82	71
2nd 100 words	73	71	71	67
3rd 100 words	74	68	68	69
Total	226	217	226	208

The next step was to consider the format and sequencing of the tests. The recall test

would be administered first and require test-takers to look at a picture and write down the word. The first letter of the word was provided. The recognition test had a multichoice format, with one correct item and three distractors which were taken from the same frequency level as the target item, based on the VST format by Nation and Beglar (2007).

Next, we needed to identify pictures to use in the tests. This was time consuming, and at times trying. Each search began with a search using Google. Any item that was a possible candidate was checked for copyright by doing a reverse image search using TinEye (n.d.). Items found on multiple websites (3 or more) were retained, and those which were not found were replaced using copyright free websites such as pixabay.com, pexels.com or unsplash.com. Permission was sought for 11 pictures where the source was a single website.

Outcomes

Once complete, we took the carpentry, plumbing and automotive technology tests to trades' tutors at WelTec in Wellington to get feedback on the first 30 questions (i.e. the questions related to the first 100 most frequent technical words) as a starting point. We had consulted with the tutors when developing the original word lists (see, for example, Coxhead & Demecheleer, 2018) on the technicality of items in the word lists. Differences arose, for example, based on the level that tutors were teaching (first or second year). Tutors in each trade commented that approximately half the questions in the tests were appropriate and could be retained. This was good news. However, clearly the other half of the items needed attention. In some cases, tutors recommended that images only from a New Zealand context should be used. They also identified questions that depicted the wrong item. For example, the meaning of an item may be trade dependent, so a particular type of pipe may not be the same if it is used within the building envelope (for plumbing) or outside of it (for drainlaying). Technical vocabulary in the trades is highly specific within and across trades. As one tutor commented,

> Though there are some things that are transferable across trades e.g. a spanner is a spanner no matter who is using it. However, there are a lot of things that are trade specific e.g. a spark plug and an ignition probe both do the same thing (create a [s]park) are made of similar materials but are completely different objects used in completely different applications (Paul Costelloe, WelTec plumbing tutor, *personal communication,* May, 2021).

The tutors found some of the distractors made the questions too obvious and that they were not focused on technical meanings. This feedback suggests that decontextualising a word can result in a focus on the general, rather than technical, sense. The tutors also noted that sometimes the combination of words make up a technical multiword unit. Collocations are an important component of technical vocabulary (Schmitt, 2010), but were not part of our assessment tools. Research is underway and initial findings are reported in Coxhead (2019) for Automotive Technology (e.g. *cooling system; control*

valve). Being able to identify a hammer from other types of tool (such as a screwdriver or drill) is not sufficient if it is the word *crosspein* that makes *hammer* a technical word. In this case, the individual word *hammer* has the same meaning as its general sense in English (Ha & Hyland, 2017). General meanings are also true of words that represent a category of items e.g. *roof, ceiling, floor* and *door* (carpentry), *pump* (automotive technology) or *tank* (plumbing). The technical items include solid or hollow doors; water, fuel or diesel mechanical fuel pumps; and water or ceiling tanks.

Reflection and future steps
One main point of reflection was the importance of working more closely with the tutors at the start of the project. We could have saved time and effort by consulting them earlier. That said, we have gained a great deal from those interactions and have decided to concentrate our efforts on a recall and recognition test for one trade, rather than trying to tackle four at once. We plan to take on board the feedback, revise and then validate that test. In hindsight, it would have been useful to analyse the written and spoken corpora for each trade for the coverage of the first 300 words and, also, for the items in the tests. This step would provide nuance for the frequency profile of the items in the tests once finalised.

Two potential research directions were identified with tutors. One was working with secondary school trade training students which they considered to be a worthwhile project which we have laid some of the groundwork for. The purpose would be to provide a diagnostic tool and to give students feedback about areas they need to spend time learning. The second strand was asking instructors what words from the first 300 words are used in learning units and basing the vocabulary tests on them. One instructor felt that any test with 90 questions was long, potentially difficult for learners and two such tests would be too much. Any such research needed to be useful across tertiary institutions in Aotearoa/New Zealand and not specific to WelTec. Te Pūkenga—New Zealand Institute of Skills and Technology, formerly known as Industry Training Organisations (ITOs), has strict guidelines about the criteria tradespeople need to achieve to meet industry standards. Therefore, future work could establish industry needs for technical vocabulary tools and what kind of tool would serve those needs. In any of these projects, it may also be worth considering a test of multiword units rather than limiting the test to single words.

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ENGLISH FOR THE CUSTOMER SERVICE INDUSTRY: CONSIDERATIONS FOR CURRICULUM DESIGN

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Abstract
Educational institutions have had to make major adjustments in response to the Covid-19 pandemic. In 2020 English Language Partners NZ (ELPNZ) developed a new course designed to prepare learners to enter the customer service industry. Following delivery, a study was conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of this course. As part of the study, this paper focuses on an analysis of linguistic and socio-pragmatic features used in the customer service industry in New Zealand and a comparison between the requirements of the target context and content in commercial course books. The findings emphasised the context dependent, cultural nature of interpersonal communication, strengthening the case for specifically designed course resources. Course design considerations and pedagogical implications which emerged are also presented and discussed.

Introduction
The year 2020 will be recorded in history as the year of the Coronavirus pandemic, with Covid-19 affecting every corner of the globe. New Zealand was no exception and, as was the case throughout the world, the country faced an uncertain social and economic future. Expectations were of an increase in unemployment, with job cuts and business closures as a result of lockdowns, which were introduced as public health measures. Increased competition in the job market would affect everyone looking for work, a situation which often hits immigrants harder: lacking English language skills means getting a job is even more difficult. This article reflects one ESL provider's response to the changing economic and employment situation. The provider chose to focus on the provision of English for working in the customer service industry, as this was a field that learners were historically known to enter and it was felt that skills learned here would be transferable to other industries.

Literature review
English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a branch of the more general field of English Language Teaching (ELT) and focuses on the English required for a particular context. Hyland (2002) defines ESP as teaching "the literacy skills…appropriate to the purposes and understandings of particular communities" (p. 386). Its purpose is to prepare learners to enter or participate in these particular communities. According to Strevens (1988), ESP, as distinct from ELT, is designed around a specific context and the language used in that context to meet the needs of learners in or planning to enter that context. The focus of ESP therefore is on real-life situations with specific and pragmatic goals. Learners are considered in terms of their study or work and rather than viewing

language as a set of "phonological, grammatical and lexical items" it seen as a vehicle for communication in a particular situation (Basturkmen, 2010, p. 1).

There are many different types of ESP courses designed for various applications; the "specific" purposes of ESP range from academic purposes (for example, for essay or thesis writing) to professional (such as law or medicine) to vocational purposes (tourism, hospitality) (Celik et al., 2018). Meeting the needs of learners is the basic premise on which ESP is founded and much research has considered the many factors involved in this process, such as analysing needs in terms of the learners, the environment and the target context (Ferguson, 2001; Sullivan & Girginer, 2002), design and development of ESP curricula and materials (Bosher & Smalkoski, 2002), and teaching methods or approaches and assessment (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Furthermore, English for workplace courses can be generic and can occur in an educational setting, such as in a university or other place of learning, or they can be more specific and occur in a workplace for learners already working in the industry (Lockwood, 2019). Additionally, workplace English courses are typically focused on either performance, which refers to the use of English at work, or proficiency, which is the use of English for work (Lockwood, 2019). These distinctions provide a few examples of environmental considerations that have implications for course design.

However, since its earliest days, much of the application of ESP has been in universities or other higher education settings (Basturkmen, 2010; Hyland, 2002). Many studies have been conducted looking into various aspects and issues related to such courses (e.g. Basturkmen & Bocanegra-Valle, 2018; Bruce, 2002; Stoller & Robinson, 2018; Sullivan & Girginer, 2002). Additionally, most ESP research has been conducted in non-English speaking contexts, where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) or used as a medium of instruction (EMI) (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018) and has focused more on written than spoken genres (Belcher, 2006). Studies of ESP in second language (ESL), non-university and more oral contexts are lacking (Belcher, 2006). A notable exception, which is particularly relevant to New Zealand, is Victoria University of Wellington's Skilled Migrant Programme (Riddiford, 2011). This programme "was designed to address a gap in the provision of employment training courses for highly skilled migrants unable to break into the workforce" (Joe & Riddiford, 2017, p. 258). This very successful programme targets learners from various professions or occupations and achieves employment outcomes for around 75% of participants (Joe & Riddiford, 2017). However, it is taught within a university setting and is not available to less skilled migrants.

Another New Zealand example, and one that is more closely aligned with the context of this investigation was the study by Edwards (2019). This, however, was restricted to the case study of a single lesson on an English for Cleaners course and because of time and resource constraints the needs analysis did not include authentic interactions. Other, non-New Zealand, examples from both EFL and ESL, non-university and more oral contexts include studies by Jasso-Aguilar (1999), Cowling (2007) and Cutting (2012).

Central to ESP, however, is needs analysis. Determining the needs of the learners in relation to the target socio-linguistic environment is an integral and inherent aspect of course design, as, by definition, an ESP course is designed around the language required in a particular context. A needs analysis informs decisions about what the goals of a course will be and what is to be included in a course (Macalister & Nation, 2020). To determine this, both the proficiency levels of the learners and the socio-linguistic requirements of the target situation must be assessed in some way. This includes investigating the necessities of the target situation; i.e. what is necessary or required (Macalister & Nation, 2020). The goal is to compare what learners already know with what they need to know to determine the size of the gap and ways to bridge it. Decisions must be made about what learners need to learn in terms of language skills, both linguistic items and socio-pragmatic skills: the relational aspect of language and communication. This is not as simple as it may sound. Who does the course designer consult to determine such needs? One option is the learners themselves, but their identity may not yet be known, or they may not actually know what they need, especially if they are still unfamiliar with their respective professions or occupational fields, or they may lack the language skills needed to express their needs (Basturkmen, 2006). Institutions or corporate entities may also not be the most accurate or reliable sources of information and may even present conflicting views (Belcher, 2006).

One way to assess target language requirements is by analysing written and spoken texts from the particular context in which language and discourse features are used. When specialised language is unfamiliar or simply not clear, having authentic data in the form of spoken or written language samples will be essential in determining the linguistic outcomes for a course (Sullivan & Girginer, 2002). Ethnographic studies or recording interactions can be useful methods for obtaining language samples for analysis. One issue with such methods is "observer's paradox",; that is, how to conduct ethical recordings with minimal influence on the interaction (Pride, 1972, p. 181). In addition, how can the validity or reliability of these methods as assessments of needs be affirmed? There are limits to the extent of such studies; since not every possible situation can be observed, how does one determine if the data obtained is an accurate representative sample of the whole? Different researchers may identify differing needs, as language and its uses are complex and multi-faceted, often leaving findings open to interpretation. The collection of authentic data may not be practical as it is a time-consuming process that places an additional burden on the teacher or course designer in the design of ESP courses (Basturkmen, 2010).

Drawing on authentic data in needs analysis does not necessarily imply the use of authentic texts in the language classroom, however. There is a long history of debate around authenticity in ELT and in materials design, and much attention has been given to text authenticity. Day (2003, p. 23, original emphasis) suggests that advocates of authentic text use confuse "the *goal* with the *means*". Rather than focussing on the text, authenticity can be achieved through the activities or tasks, or the learner experience of

the task. The modern consensus, then, is that there can be a place for both authentic and 'inauthentic' texts within a course but that a crucial question is determining whose authentic language use is informing the curriculum (Harwood, 2010, p. 6).

In summary, then, meeting the 'specific' in ESP can be a challenging process. In the next section, details of a specific needs course in a New Zealand context and its challenges are outlined. As an orally-focused, non-university course in an ESL setting it is a type of course under-represented in the ESP literature.

Research context

English Language Partners New Zealand (ELPNZ) is a not-for-profit community organisation that provides former refugees and migrants support with English language needs and effective settlement in New Zealand (ELPNZ, n. d.). One of the ways in which this is achieved is by offering various in-class programmes (for more information see ELPNZ, n. d.).

Two of the more targeted courses offered by ELPNZ include English for Employees (E4E) and Work Talk. E4E is for learners who already have a job and aims to help them improve their English in the workplace, with classes made up of learners from a range of different workplaces. With no set curriculum, the content of the course is negotiated with the learners to suit their needs. Work Talk is a more intensive course to help learners prepare to enter the workforce. The curriculum for this course is more prescribed, though still allowing for some flexibility to ensure the learners' needs are met, and includes topics such as finding and applying for jobs, CV and cover letter writing, preparing for job interviews, culture and language of the New Zealand workplace, as well as work-related issues such as ACC, rights of employees and the application of the Treaty of Waitangi to the workplace.

The first New Zealand lock-down due to Covid-19 in March 2020 required all teaching to be moved online. This presented a challenge in that many learners did not have access to suitable devices or possess the technical know-how for adapting to online learning, but with the help of dedicated teachers across the country, the majority of ELPNZ's classes successfully made the move to online teaching. Unfortunately, learner numbers reduced significantly, as some learners were not able or willing to learn in this new way. This led ELPNZ to investigate and trial new approaches to boost enrolments and meet the changing needs of the immigrant population, with the move to online teaching also providing new opportunities.

One new initiative was the introduction of nationwide, online courses with a targeted, work-related focus. For local centres to run a programme, enrolment numbers must be sufficient. This limits the range of courses that can be offered by a local centre. Making courses available nationwide thus allows ELPNZ to offer a wider range of courses. The first author was approached by ELPNZ during the lock-down period to design one such course and deliver the first module as a pilot. This course was to be an intensive ESP

course entitled 'English for Customer Service'. It was to cover language requirements for customer service type jobs, primarily face-to-face interactions but also incorporating a secondary focus on telephone and online communications with customers. The length of the course would be 20 contact hours (10 hours per module) spread over five weeks of two-hour online Zoom classes held twice weekly. The course was promoted nationwide and attracted learners from centres all over New Zealand. It was delivered as a pilot course to a class of 10 learners during June-July 2020.

Due to the rapidly evolving Covid-19 situation, the curriculum was designed at short notice and, rather than being based on a needs analysis as would usually be expected in an ESP context, drew on existing resources. These included the ELPNZ Work Talk course. This course has only one lesson on communication and cultural competency in the New Zealand workplace that focuses largely on the informal and indirect style of communication, which is demonstrated by an example of making a request in an indirect way. It is then suggested that this is practiced in role plays. This allowed the introduction of additional activities and greater attention to informal and indirect communication.

At the conclusion of the course, the first author conducted a study of the effectiveness of the course both to gauge learner satisfaction and to consider changes before the course was offered again. This acknowledges the importance of evaluation in language curriculum design (Macalister & Nation, 2020). As well as data from the learners and course records, the study included the first author's own reflections. Among these reflections was the thought that making a request is just one linguistic function and that, in order to create better awareness of what workplace communication in New Zealand can actually look like, learners need opportunities to consider informal and indirect styles for multiple functions. A survey of the ways in which a range of linguistic and socio-pragmatic features are depicted in readily-available materials was undertaken and then compared with samples of authentic interaction in the New Zealand context, with the ultimate goal of better meeting the needs of learners in an English for Customer Service course. This leads to the proposal of the following research questions as the focus of this article:

    1) How is workplace communication performed in the New Zealand service industry?

    2) To what extent do commercially available materials meet the needs of learners preparing to enter service industries in New Zealand?

Methodology

To answer the research questions, authentic service industry encounters were compared to encounters found in commercially available materials. Following is a brief description of the process of collecting and analysing authentic encounters, which was necessary before a comparison could be made. The analysis of authentic encounters will

be reported in the Findings section, with the comparison being addressed in the Discussion.

Data collection
Authentic service encounters were collected to ascertain what learners preparing to enter the service industries would need to know and do in terms of linguistic requirements and interactional social language skills (Macalister & Nation, 2020; Vine, 2020). Linguistic features are a demonstration of how transactions are performed while the interactional skills are pragmatic and relate to the "relational aspect of language" and how "the particular norms of (a) community" are adhered to (Angouri & Locher, 2017, p. 220).

The data came from three sources; observations and two different corpora. Firstly, face-to-face customer interactions in hospitality and retail environments were observed while keeping an observation journal. These observations occurred mostly during busier times such as lunch and dinner periods (for hospitality), over a period of one month, with 15 interactions observed. Hospitality and retail were chosen as it is easy to be 'a fly on the wall' and make observations without intruding or influencing the interaction. There was no recording involved, but observation notes were written either while sitting at a table (in a cafe, bar, or restaurant) or immediately after leaving a shop. Phenomena observed included linguistic features; for example, how was an apology given (words and phrases used, pronunciation features) as well as socio-pragmatic features; for example, the manner in which the apology was given (such as how and why certain levels of politeness and directness were demonstrated), how often and at which points in an interaction it was offered and how it was received and responded to. Observation notes were anonymous with no reference made to the identity of either the business or any individuals.

Further data came from two New Zealand English corpora: the Wellington Corpus of Spoken New Zealand English (WSC) (Holmes, 2000; Holmes & Vine, 1998) and the Wellington Language in the Workplace project (Vine, 2020). Transcriptions of service encounters were extracted from both sources. Total data from all three sources consisted of over 50 service encounters, ranging in length from just one or two turns by each speaker to around 10 minutes/over 200 turns long. Having multiple sources of data increased the reliability of findings by allowing for a comparison of these.

Data analysis
The transcriptions and observation notes provided qualitative data which was analysed using a content analysis process in which the data was first read multiple times to discover emerging themes and patterns. These were coded, then the comments from each theme were extracted and grouped together, before being analysed for various features (Barkhuizen & Ellis, 2009). Figure 1, (adapted from Gottipati et al., 2017), is a conceptual framework of the content analysis process used for the qualitative data.
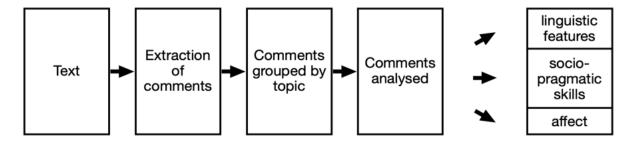
Figure 1:
Conceptual framework of analysis (adapted from Gottipati et al., 2017)

The transcriptions and observation notes were analysed for language patterns and norms seen in customer service encounters to identify linguistic and socio-pragmatic skills required for working in the customer service industry. The text was firstly coded for the functions seen in each interaction. Individual comments were then extracted and grouped by general purpose or function, such as requesting and apologising. Functions can be achieved in different ways and usually one service encounter contained multiple functions. Classification by function allowed comparison of various ways of achieving that function and increased the depth of analysis. The data for each function group was analysed for linguistic features such as vocabulary and grammatical patterns, use of pronunciation features such as stress and intonation, hesitations, and fillers. The data was analysed in terms of socio-pragmatic skills, such as the way in which a "risky or face-threatening speech act" like a refusal or complaint is performed (Joe & Riddiford, 2017, p. 259). Only features which occurred multiple times in the data sources were included as these were assumed to be more frequent items and therefore most useful to learners (Macalister & Nation, 2020). Multiple times was defined as three instances or more and features seen only once or twice were not included. This figure was arbitrarily chosen as it was considered a reasonable representation of instances from the relatively small sample size.

Findings
Tables 1 and 2 show common linguistic and socio-pragmatic functions and features observed in the interactions in the data. For most, only one example is selected from the multiple options available; further examples are given only when these were considered quite different ways of realising a function or feature.

Table 1:
Linguistic features found in the data

Linguistic function or feature	Example	Reference [1]
Idiomatic expressions and multi-word chunks	That just about wraps it up	WSC DGZ042
Apologising	I'm so sorry…I'm really very sorry	OBS
Making a request	Anyone need another drink or anything?	OBS
Responding to a request	one of each page okay (repeating customer's request)	WSC DGZ055
Greetings	Can I help you? (instead of hello) Thank you (instead of goodbye)	WSC DGZ055 OBS
Responding to thanks	No problem, thank you	OBS
Small talk	How are you? Not very nice weather we're having.	LWP 4.2 WSC DGZ089
Making a suggestion	How about yellow and purple?	WSC DGZ047
Clarifying or checking	The 20th of October? Everything alright here? So that's one beef burger…(repeating the order to check)	WSC DGZ105 OBS OBS
Refusing	Not at the moment, no	WSC DGZ049
Using of pronunciation features such as intonation or stress	All right? (rising intonation to check transaction is finished) It's been on sale ALREADY for a while (stressed word to indicate customer shouldn't delay)	WSC DGZ042 WSC DGZ051
Using adverbs as softeners when giving advice, correcting someone who is wrong, or to persuade	You really, probably should reinforce that buttonhole Oh, this voucher's actually expired It's already extremely overly booked	WSC DGZ049 OBS WSC DGZ048
Eliciting feedback from customers	So how was everything?	OBS
Incomplete sentences, repetitions, overlapping speech and use of fillers as normal features of interactive language	yeah oh no the nights it's all very quiet here what's that, that one … the the vases um Can I have another card please? (overlapping) Yes, of course. Mhm...um	WSC DGZ099 WSC DGZ043 LWP 3.B LWP 3.B

The linguistic features observed in Table 1 largely relate to transactional purposes and appropriate ways of achieving language functions. For example, when apologizing to a customer a simple "I'm sorry" may not sound sufficiently sincere and may be expected to be intensified by use of adjectives and/or adverbs: "so sorry", "I'm really so very

sorry". This also has the effect of softening the affective impact, as can also be seen in, for example, the use of "not at the moment" in refusing. Further, being dependent as an industry on customers, there is an attitude of "customer is king" in the hospitality and service sectors which may lead to a lowered level of tolerance on the part of the customer toward service workers (Wang, 2016, p. 266). This may include an expectation of not only understanding and being understood but also of customer assistants demonstrating a correct, native-like understanding and use of, for example, idiomatic phrases and multi-word chunks such as "that just about wraps it up" in Table 1; they are expected to "sound right" (Wang, 2016, p. 271).

The socio-pragmatic features in Table 2 have a more relational purpose, for example deflecting an apology or minimising a problem caused by a customer as face saving devices. For example, the addition of "a bit" in "You're actually a bit late" serves to de-emphasise the customer's lateness. Keeping a conversation going and filling in silences which could make a customer feel awkward were also observed as phatic functions of language such as through the use of small talk, utilised to create and maintain a relationship between the interlocutors with the goal of helping to make a customer feel more comfortable (Vine, 2020). The example from the WSC given in Table 2 shows the sales assistant engaging in small talk to occupy the customer while waiting for a transaction to be completed.

Table 2:
Socio-pragmatic features found in the data

Socio-pragmatic feature	Example	Reference[1]
Showing politeness by use of softeners and indirect language (in bold)	**Just** have a look at this one	WSC DGZ048
	Sorry but we have a surcharge today for the public holiday	OBS
	If you don't mind **just** checking …	WSC DGZ048
Minimising a problem caused by a customer	You're actually a bit late (to a customer who was 15 minutes late for a hair appointment, placing the stylist in the awkward position of now having two customers at the same time)	WSC DGZ114
Repeating apologies	I'm so sorry (at the start of interaction) … I'm really very sorry (later in the same interaction)	OBS

[1] Examples from the transcriptions are referenced as follows:
Wellington Corpus of Spoken New Zealand English files: WSC followed by file code, eg WSC DGZ042.
Language in the Workplace (Vine, 2020): LWP followed by in-text reference, eg LWP 3.8
Personal observation notes: OBS

Acceptance of an apology by deflection	no, no that's okay, oh don't worry	WSC DGZ105
Creating a connection with the customer	You know… You guys Thanks guys	OBS
	Use of person's first name when known (e.g. after asking for it): Thank you Sarah	WSC DGZ024
Filling in silences, keeping a conversation going	Use of small talk while waiting for payment to go through: Busy afternoon?	LWP 4.2
	Customer: She's very good at making conversation. Assistant: Yeah, she's pretty good Pam …(pause) actually, her mother died this week, that's why she's not in. Customer: Oh right Assistant: yeah…I usually work for her off and on you know if she wants to take a day off here and there	WSC DGZ114

Tables 1 and 2 present the findings as separate categories of linguistic and socio-pragmatic features. These divisions provide distinction and focus but are in some ways artificial and an oversimplification of the data as they are all interconnected. Transactions take place in a relationship and the relationship of customer/customer service representative would not exist without a transaction. Socio-pragmatic skills in service encounters demonstrate an awareness of levels of politeness and culturally relevant ways of conducting interactions. This is achieved within a linguistic function through linguistic features; many of the features observed are examples of culture and context appropriate ways of achieving a function, for example indicating a refusal not just with a no, but softening it by adding 'not at the moment, no' (WCSNZE DGZ049), or by the use of other softeners and indirect language seen in Tables 1 and 2. Using these linguistic devices in appropriate ways for relational reasons are an indication of socio-pragmatic awareness and skill.

Discussion
The overall purpose of the course delivered was to prepare learners for entering the customer service industry in New Zealand. A key question was whether it would be necessary to design a course and materials specifically or if ready-made, commercially available course curricula would be suitable to achieve the purpose. In other words, are the socio-linguistic features found universal or are they context and culture specific? A random sampling of course books and curricula suggested that the features of service encounters are dependent on both culture and context. In other words, commercially available materials were not meeting the needs of learners preparing to enter service industries. The course materials inspected are listed in Appendix 1. Following are examples of why these do not meet the needs of the target situation.

Firstly, general course books often include language functions similar to those identified by the needs analysis, such as apologising and making a request or complaint. However, it is unusual to find these in the context of a service encounter, and even when this is the case the focus tends to be on the customer's part of the interaction, rather than that of the customer service representative. Many examples of this were found in the course books; the following is one example of an exercise containing sentences spoken by a customer which learners are asked to identify as a preference/requirement or a complaint:

1.	My food is not very hot.
2.	This steak is rare. I wanted it well done.
3.	I can't use chopsticks. Could I have a fork, please?
4.	I'm massively allergic to nuts.
5.	I tried sushi once. I'm afraid I didn't like it.
6.	I'm afraid I don't eat meat. I'm a vegetarian.
7.	Excuse me, we've been waiting for an hour.
8.	I'm sorry, but this soup is much too salty.
9.	I'm really not very keen on shellfish.
10.	These vegetables are undercooked.

Figure 2:
Excerpt from Barrett and Sharma (2010, p. 35)

Conversations that included the customer service representative's part were far less common but when present, many of the socio-linguistic features of New Zealand service encounters found in the study were lacking. Following are several examples to illustrate this:

Receptionist: Could I look at that, please? Thank you. I also understand that you've got your passport? (*Yes, yeah*) Can I take a look at that? Thank you. And I also understand that you've got a utility bill? (*Yes.*) Wonderful. Do you mind awfully if I go and copy it? (*Yes, you can, yes.*) Thank you. That's fine, thank you. Everything's in order, everything's fine. Now I need you to complete two registration forms (*Yes.*) for me. Would you like me to stay and help you?
Patient: Yes, please.

Figure 3:
Excerpt from Badger (2014, p. 119)

This extract, from a service encounter between a medical practice receptionist and a patient, was taken from an upper intermediate course book. The requests made by the receptionist are much more direct than the New Zealand-based ones found in the study. In addition, the many questions from the receptionist are continuous, without a break in terms of small talk or another way of softening the interaction as seen in the New

Zealand data. Linguistically, the adverb awfully did not occur as a softener in the data set and does not seem to be a commonly used New Zealand term.

The following conversation, from an intermediate level course book on spoken English for business, takes place in a restaurant, between a waiter and two customers:

> **Waiter:** Good evening, are you ready to order?
> **Woman:** Yes, I think so.
> **Man:** Yes, I'd like the asparagus and leek soup to start, please.
> **Waiter:** Certainly.
> **Woman:** And I'll have the same.
> **Waiter:** Two asparagus and leek soup. And for the main course?
> **Man:** Grilled chicken for me, and could I have potatoes with that?
> …
> (later in the same conversation)
> **Waiter: Ok,** one sea bass…Would you like to order the dessert now or later?
> **Woman:** Later, please.
> **Man:** Yes, later.
> **Waiter:** Fine. And to drink?
> **Man:** Some mineral water.
> **Waiter:** Still or sparkling?
> **Woman:** Sparkling please. A litre.
> **Waiter:** One litre. Would you like to see the wine list?
> **Man:** Yes, please.
> **Waiter:** I'll bring it straight away.

Figure 4:
Excerpt from Tulip et al. (2014, p. 91)

Some observations to be made about the differences between the waiter's part in this conversation and New Zealand target context features include limited checking of the order (only the entrees and one main, not the whole order at the end of the conversation), no thanking the customers, the directness of the requests (*…and for you, madam?*; *fried or steamed?*;*…and to drink?*) and the lack of small talk (the *good evening* greeting suggests this is the waiter's first interaction with the customers and, based on the findings, some small talk would be expected such as *how are you?*). Additionally, the term of address, *madam*, was not encountered in the New Zealand data.

Table 3 further illustrates socio-linguistic differences between the course materials and the New Zealand data, particularly in the level of directness, use of softening language and small talk:

Table 3:
Comparison of data

Function	From the course materials	From the New Zealand data
Offering	Need some help? (Boyer, 2007, p. 78)	How can I help you? (OBS)
Greeting	Yes, sir, can I help you? (Clare & Wilson, 2004, p. 119)	Good morning, how are you today? What can I get you? (OBS)
Apologising	Sorry, I didn't catch that. (Boyer, 2007, p. 10)	I'm so sorry (OBS)
Requesting	Hold the line, please (Telephone service encounter, Boyer, 2007, p. 108)	Would you mind holding please? (OBS)

Two curricula aimed specifically at preparing learners for Customer Service work were also examined; Workplace Communication skills for food services (Bow Valley College, 2018) and ESOL Customer Service training curriculum (Montgomery College, 2007). No New Zealand-based course book could be found; the two investigated were from Canada and the US. Ways in which socio-linguistic features differed from those found in the New Zealand context included:

- Levels of directness: for example, in making a suggestion: "I recommend …" (Montgomery College, 2007, p. TG 2:48) rather than asking a question: "How about…?" (Table 1).
- There was a lack of the use of small talk, idioms, and multi-word chunks (this was true also for the general course books examined).
- There was no explicit focus on inter-cultural differences in communication, such as through discussions or activities.
- Politeness was addressed only in terms of using language functions such as apologising and thanking or by using the word *please*. There was no mention of levels of directness or use of softening language, as this example demonstrates:

> **Polite language**
> - Sorry about that.
> - One moment please.
> - Could you wait a moment?
> - That's a good question.
> - Thanks for waiting/asking.

Figure 5:
Excerpt from Bow Valley College (2018, p. 142)

Comparing these examples to the socio-linguistic features of New Zealand-based service encounters showed that such interactions are culture and context dependent, indicating a need for course designs suitable to the specific target context. If a teacher or course designer working with learners in the New Zealand context relied on commercially available materials, they would not be preparing learners for the New Zealand workplace as linguistic and socio-pragmatic features of an New Zealand-appropriate form of communication would not receive sufficient attention; for example, an apology framed as "sorry about that" would not achieve the affective impact of "I'm really so very sorry".

Pedagogical implications
As stated earlier, a needs analysis informs decisions about what the goals of a course will be and what is to be included in a course. In this study, needs analysis processes revealed that socio-pragmatic skills formed an important part both of the necessities of the target situation and the lacks of the learners (that analysis is not reported here), requiring a focus not primarily on what to do or say, but on how to do so in a way that creates or maintains a good relationship with a customer. These skills therefore should be central to the course, which could be achieved by structuring the syllabus around frequently found features such as softening language and the use of small talk. The principle of frequency could then be applied to determine functions most often encountered and how these are used as socio-pragmatic strategies, such as using softeners when making a request of a customer or using small talk when greeting a customer. Softeners, introduced early in the course as a strategy for making a request sound less direct, could be revisited later as a way of making a refusal more polite. Setting goals based on socio-pragmatic strategies, such as knowing how and when to use small talk when talking to customers or demonstrating how to make an indirect request, would be more relevant than having goals related to language skills and functions as is commonly seen in commercially available materials.

Drawing on the approach outlined above would go some way to addressing possible objections to a curriculum based on the kinds of functions set out in Tables 1 and 2 as it would, for example, allow decisions to be made about the selection and sequencing of content. However, there remains a risk of 'phrasebook learning' as functions can, by their very nature, be non-generative. For example, while Riddiford (2007) demonstrated the effectiveness of teaching pragmatics to ESL learners in a New Zealand classroom setting she also drew attention to the possibility of over-reliance on a limited set of forms. At the same time, however, the consciousness-raising nature of the classroom instruction combined with the fact that the learners were in an ESL rather than an EFL context meant that they had the strategies to continue developing pragmatic awareness beyond the classroom.

Another pedagogical implication arising from the study relates to the principle of the four strands, which states that any English language programme should contain an approximately equal focus on meaning-focused input and output, fluency and language-

focused learning (Nation, 2007). All of these play an important role in successfully facilitating the meeting of learners' needs in preparation for entering the customer service sector. Yet, three of these strands were found to be lacking in the reviewed course materials. Firstly, the often brief, context-devoid encounters found do not provide meaningful input and using an entire conversation set within a particular, relevant context as input would be much more meaningful. Secondly, while several of the course materials analysed contained role plays for producing meaning-focused output, these were minimal and there was a lack of discussion-type activities that provide opportunities for language-related episodes, (where learners notice and discuss linguistic features, facilitating language focused learning) to occur (Kim & McDonough, 2008). Without being made explicitly aware of them, such as through discussions, cultural norms, which "serve an important function in interactional processes", are not readily recognised (Marra et al., 2020, p. 1). A lack of such awareness may be an obstacle to gaining employment and being accepted into a community (Holmes et al., 2009). Finally, opportunities to develop fluency were also lacking in course materials as new structures or ideas tended to be introduced and practiced once or twice in an exercise or activity before moving on to the next item. Fluency is developed through repeated use of what learners already know to enable them to have more ready access (Macalister & Nation, 2020).

Another pedagogical implication relates to the principle of ongoing needs analysis (Macalister & Nation, 2020). There should be continuous evaluation and monitoring of the requirements of the target socio-linguistic context found and the lacks of learners in meeting these requirements. Ready-made course materials allow for minimal flexibility in the selection, sequencing and presentation of teaching materials and activities to meet the changing needs of learners.

Limitations
One limitation of this study relates to the data obtained from the Wellington corpus. While it did comprise the largest available data source with the greatest range of different types of service encounters, being more than 20 years old this data is possibly somewhat out of date. Some colloquial expressions appear to have changed. For example, a more common contemporary version of *that's all right* may be *all good*, or *no worries*, while words and phrases such as *haven't diddled them* or *goody* seem slightly old-fashioned now. The results of the necessities analysis may have varied if a larger amount of more recent data had been available. However, the amount of time required to collect this made it impractical. Furthermore, as this older data was supplemented with recent data its impact on the findings was mitigated to some extent.

Conclusion
This study has gathered and identified linguistic and socio-pragmatic features of workplace communication in New Zealand. It has also assessed the suitability of commercially available materials for the New Zealand teaching context and found that

the requirement of an awareness of context-dependent, shared socio-pragmatic cultural norms precludes the usefulness of such materials. However, as this was a small-scale study further research covering a range of ESP situations is needed to make generalisations or more extensive application.

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Appendix 1. Course Materials Evaluated

The following coursebooks from those available in the ELPNZ Wellington library and the Wellington Public Library were selected for evaluation as they were found to contain relevant potential course materials:

Heads up 1: Spoken English for business (Tulip et al., 2014)
Language to go: Upper Intermediate (Clare & Wilson, 2004)
English for life Listening: Upper Intermediate (Badger, 2014)
Networking in English (Barrett & Sharma, 2010)
Understanding spoken English book 2 (Boyer, 2007)
Workplace Communication skills for food services (Bow Valley College, 2018)
ESOL Customer Service training curriculum (Montgomery College, 2007)

IMPLEMENTING E-LEARNING USING ONLINE INTERACTIVE MODULES: A CASE STUDY IN A CHINESE COLLEGE CLASSROOM

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Abstract

E-learning presents a new learning environment to enable students to acquire a different set of skills to be successful learners (Romiszowski, 2004). Some researchers found that students become more independent and motivated when courses are run via an electronic mode than through the traditional face-to-face setting. Drawing on this perspective, an online module using Articulate, an e-learning toolkit, for the course 'Assessment and Evaluation' was designed. The present study, at a Chinese college, aims to analyse students' e-learning experiences by investigating: 1) their perceptions of using online interactive module; and 2) benefits obtained when using online interactive materials. A mixed-methods approach was used to collect data. The results revealed that students generally accepted the online module and considered it an effective learning tool to a certain extent. These findings also suggested that students tend to moderately and cautiously accept the online module.

Introduction

In recent years, rapid changes in technological invention in the field of education have impacted learning in many ways. The sudden global outbreak of Covid-19 has also accelerated the shift from traditional face-to-face instruction to online instruction (Crawford et al., 2020). Hence, educators in various fields are faced with a greater challenge of helping students transition from being teacher dependent to active learners within a short period of time. Central to this process is to design e-learning activities to promote active student participation and engagement, which will in turn facilitate student learning (Li et al., 2018; Bohassoan et al., 2020, Logan et al., 2021). Defined as the integration of face-to-face teaching methods with online learning activities, 'blended learning' (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Graham, 2006; Sharma & Westbrook, 2016) is an innovative pedagogical approach and it is timely that this becomes the norm in the 21st century learning environment. In this respect, it is vital for educators to find the types of e-learning materials that work best for them and their learners. Ultimately, the goals of blended learning are to increase teaching effectiveness and promote student learning.

Ur (2012) observed that using the computer and accessing the Internet are as common as using the chalkboard or whiteboard in the teaching and learning environment. Students in the 21st century are referred to as digital learners and, as Prensky (2001) observes, they are regarded as 'digital natives' because technology has played a

significant role in their academic world. In Tapscott's (2009, p. 18) words, "using the new technology is as natural as breathing" to the students of this generation.

Contrary to the beliefs that e-learning has positive effects on student performance (Lim & Morris, 2009; O'Tootle & Absalom, 2003), there are negative views that e-learning does not necessarily reduce the workload of teachers and that students spend more time completing tasks online. In response to these contrary beliefs, this study investigated current practices involving e-learning by exploring students' perceptions towards the use of e-learning as a mode of teaching and learning.

In this article, I present the methods and outline the interactive features of the online module designed. The next section presents the findings and discussion. The paper concludes with some recommendations for developing effective online modules.

The Study
The current study is part of a larger scale e-learning project 'Developing Online Interactive Lessons' initiated by the English Language and Literature Studies (hereafter ELLS) programme at Beijing Normal University-Hong Kong Baptist University United International College (hereafter UIC) and supported by a special fund awarded by the University Innovation and Strengthening Project in the Guangdong Province. The goal of this project was to introduce e-learning phase-by-phase as a transition from traditional face-to-face classroom teaching to electronic medium to enhance teaching and learning.

In this e-learning project, Articulate 360, an interactive e-learning toolkit/software, was used to develop online modules that were hosted by iSpace (a Moodle Learning Management System) as a teaching and learning platform for all UIC students. This e-learning course development toolkit has a rich content library of a wide range of photos, icons, illustrations, videos, characters and templates. It also allows users to access the e-learning course from desktop computers, laptops, tablets or smartphones.

The present study aims to explore how online materials with Articulate can be integrated into the course content of 'Assessment and Evaluation' to boost students' engagement, motivation and knowledge. Two research questions were formulated:
    1) What are students' perceptions toward using online interactive module?
    2) To what extent students benefited from using online interactive module in enhancing their learning of the course content?
The feedback obtained is important to improve the effectiveness of the online interactive module as learners may become confused due to poorly designed and implemented online interactive lessons (Jih & Reeves, 1992).

What e-learning means
E-learning which stands for electronic learning refers to education that takes place over the internet via an electronic media such as a computer or tablet. It includes all forms of

learning: web-based learning, digital learning, interactive learning, and internet-based learning (Lara et al., 2020).

E-learning plays an important role in education as it is seen as "a digital transformation of the traditional education system and content into a digital one" (Alsoud & Harasis, 2020, p.1405). The two main components of e-learning are the presence of computer technology and the Internet (Aboagye et al., 2020). It can engage students through the use of games, use of videos or audios as learning materials.

There are various definitions of e-learning. It is defined as "the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) to support learning and teaching" (Gaebel et al., 2014, p.17). Romiszowski (2004) defines e-learning as a combination of both asynchronous and synchronous communication to include self-study and group collaboration. Synchronous or real time refers to simultaneous communication when all the participants are engaged in the teaching and learning at the same time. Asynchronous or flexi time, on the other hand, means that e-learning can take place at any time and participants do not need to be co-present simultaneously.

Markus (2008, p.3) defines e-learning as "a learning process created by interaction with digital content, network-based services and tutoring support". From a theoretical perspective, e-learning refers to the cognitive science principles of effective learning using all forms of electronically and digitally supported technologies.

Romiszowski (2004) states that e-learning presents a new learning environment to both students and teachers as they require a different set of skills to be successful. To be successful, students need to learn to navigate through a large amount of information available to them while teachers need to master many new skills so that they are able to keep up with the latest technological tools. Some researchers (Ke & Hoadley, 2009; Zaheer et al., 2015; Rajhans et al., 2020) found that students are more independent when courses are run entirely via an electronic mode than in the traditional face-to-face setting.

In the context of this current study, e-learning is defined as learning with the aid of an electronic medium to access an educational curriculum outside of a traditional face-to-face classroom. In the present study, an online platform, Articulate Rise, is employed to deliver a course.

Benefits of e-learning
Numerous studies have shown that e-learning is beneficial to both students and teachers (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2015; Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020; Mukhtar et al., 2020; Rajhans et al., 2020). For students, e-learning offers many benefits. First, it provides a flexible learning environment (Chambers, 1999; Tam, 2000; Smedley, 2010). Second, it offers a flexi-time approach which allows learning to take place any time and at any place. E-

learning provides students the freedom to choose the time and location that best suit their personal needs (Dhawan, 2020). Third, it encourages students to take control of their own learning according to their own pace and relate new information to past experiences (Leidner & Jarvenpaa, 1995; Amer, 2007). Self-paced learning is said to "increase learner engagement, thus improving learning outcome and satisfaction" (Zhang et al., 2006, p.19). Fourth, it allows unlimited access to online learning materials (Zhang et al., 2004; Mukhtar et al., 2020). One integral characteristic of e-learning is its ability to integrate a variety of media, including texts, images, videos, audios, etc. to create different types of instructional and interactive materials (Wagner et al., 2008; Dhawan, 2020). Ideally interactive e-learning modules and activities can enable students to engage in the learning process more effectively compared to traditional classroom settings in which learning relies solely on lectures and textbooks (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2015). In addition, interactive activities which employ videos, graphics, and other media applications facilitate reinforcement of concepts and knowledge learned in class. Lastly, e-learning promotes students' reading willingness and interests. Holmes and Gardner (2006) also claim that an important characteristic of e-learning is its focus on learners.

From the teachers' perspective, an e-learning course enables them to track and monitor their students' progress, helping them to understand their students' performance and needs better (Marc, 2002). Ideally e-learning can shift the passive teacher-centred approach to active student-centred learning while offering higher motivation to students to become more engaged with learning (Leidner & Jarvenpaa, 1995). In addition, self-paced learning can be successful if teachers provide enough guidance to help students focus on their own learning (Murday et al., 2008). Another benefit of e-learning for teachers is that it offers more opportunities to extend the knowledge presented in classrooms with a large number of students (Singh, 2010). Finally, e-learning overcomes the constraints of time and space in traditional face-to-face classroom learning (Sun et al., 2008). With online modules, teachers can integrate technology and resources to enhance learning.

In Vygotsky's (1962) terms, because learning is a social experience, students learn better when they interact with each other and with the teacher. Moore (1989) identifies three types of interaction that promote learning: learner-instructor interaction, learner-learner interaction and learner-content interaction. In the past, most studies focused on learner-instructor and learner-learner interactions but not on learner-content interaction. In traditional face-to-face classrooms, learning occurs during informal student discussions and student-teacher interactions. This type of social learning is absent in e-learning because "physical presence is absent in an online environment" (Stodel et al., 2006, p.3). Therefore, the present study aims to investigate the effects of learner-content interaction through the implementation of an online module and explore whether the online interactive module is beneficial for successful e-learning.

Design of the online interactive module

In the present study, an online interactive module was developed using Articulate 360 (Rise), a web-based application. Seven sub-units for the topic 'Assessing Listening' from the course 'Assessment and Evaluation' were designed, exported and uploaded as a SCORM (Sharable Content Object Reference Model) file on iSpace. The online module contained various types of interactive features which were grouped into three categories—(1) multimedia (videos, audios, and URLs to different websites); (2) quizzes (drag and drop matching, multiple choice questions or pick one answer, fill in the blanks, multiple responses or picking multiple answers); and (3) non-linear text displays (labelled graphics, accordion, flash cards, and tabs). The presence of interactive features in an online module is important "with the potential to engage the learner" (Domagk et al., 2010, p.1025).

The online course module had seven headings: (1) Pre-test; (2) What is listening?; (3) Listening process; (4) Listening stages; (5) Types of listening; (6) Tell Laura I love her; and (7) Wrapping up. The online module began with a pre-test (using the quiz interface) and contained eight questions to test students' understanding of the topic (see Figure 1).
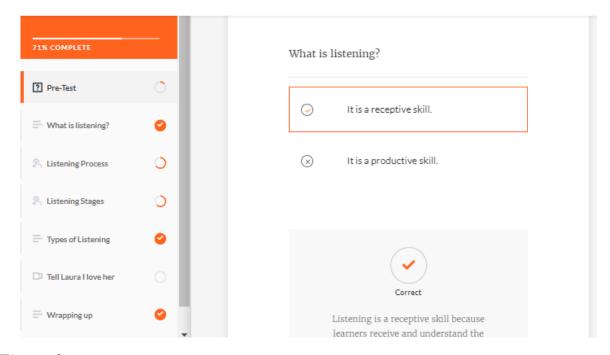

Figure 1:
Screenshot of a quiz interface

Students' performance was tracked in two ways: 1) a score would be given for each student who attempted the pre-test; and 2) the number of attempts a particular student took for the pre-test was noted. Students who attempted several times with low scores would be given extra tutorials.

Each sub-component was designed with a different interactive feature (text, blocks,

labelled graphic, video, audio, flash cards and quotes) to cater to the students' different learning styles and promote learner-content interaction (Moore, 1989). For example, labelled graphics were used to design contents of headings (3) and (4) [see Figure 2].
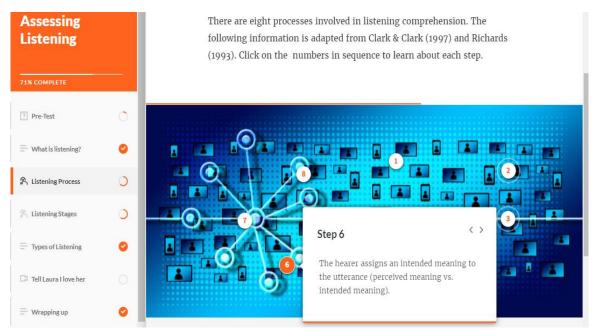

Figure 2:
Screenshot of labelled graphics in its published mode in a Rise module (displaying text frames)

Another major feature selected in the module was the use of video and audio files (see Figures 3 and 4) and selection of these multimedia files was done with careful consideration, taking into account that the students were second language learners (Cakir, 2006). In summary, these multimedia files were used to: (1) accommodate different learning needs; (2) respond to students' personalities; and (3) cater to different proficiency levels of students.
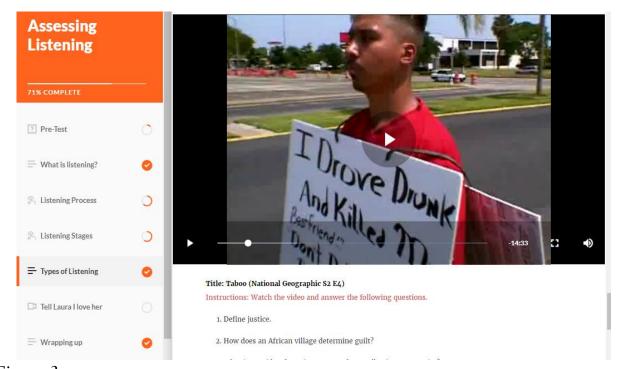
Figure 3:
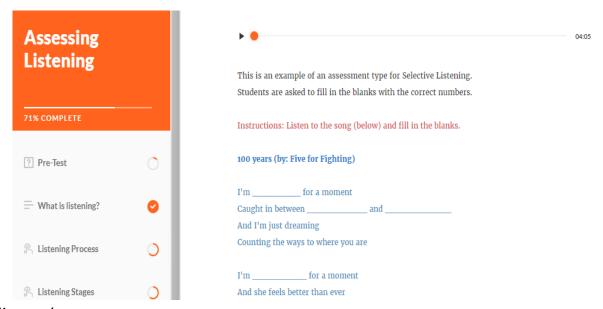Screenshot of a video file embedded in a Rise module

Figure 4:
Screenshot of an audio file embedded in a Rise module

Flash cards interface (see Figure 5), which allows users to control the display of text frames by clicking on the frames and buttons, were used to promote students' engagement. This interface helps to strengthen the grasp of difficult concepts introduced in this course (Senzaki et al., 2017).
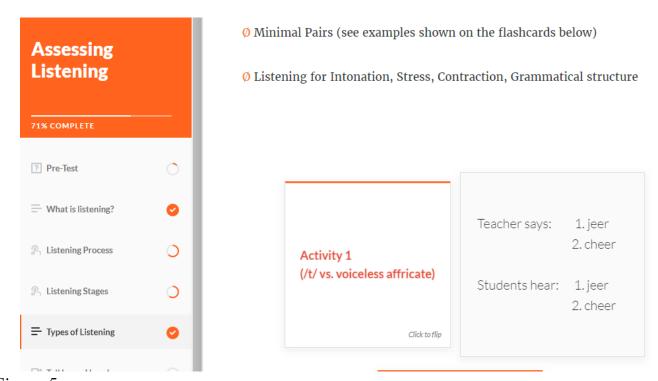
Figure 5:
Screenshot of flash cards interface in a Rise module

In the last section, a quote from Ernest Hemingway ("When people talk, listen completely. People never listen.") is used to conclude the online module. This quote was chosen as it is related to the topic 'listening', based on the view that it is important and timely to end the module with a word of advice as face-to-face interaction is absent during e-learning.

Methodology
Participants
The course selected for study was a TESL pedagogy course titled 'Assessment and Evaluation'. This 3-credit major required course was offered to Year 3 students of the Teaching English as a Second Language (hereafter TESL) programme in the second semester of 2017/2018. As this was a pilot study, only one topic, 'Assessing Listening', from a total of 13 topics in this course was selected. Participants comprised 27 students from the Year 3 TESL cohort, all of whom were local Mainland Chinese students.

Data Collection
Two research instruments were used: (1) a 52-item student survey (or questionnaire); and (2) a focus group (FG) interview with the Year 3 students. The student survey which was written in two languages (English and Chinese) was divided into four parts:

     Part A: participants' demographic profile (5 items)
     Part B: participants' computer-mediated communication (CMC) competence (22 items)
     Part C: participants' acceptance of online interactive modules (22 items)
     Part D: participants' active engagement with online interactive modules (9 items)

Appendix 1 provides some examples of the questions for each part of the student survey (Yan et al., 2019).

While the student survey aimed to collect information about students' feelings towards the effectiveness of implementing the online interactive module in the course, the objective of the FG interview was to allow students to describe their perceptions of the interactive e-learning toolkit and e-materials designed.

Four students were invited to participate in the FG interview on a voluntary basis. The interview which was conducted in Chinese was audio-recorded, and its data were transcribed and translated into English. Ten open ended questions and leading questions were posed to explore and clarify issues raised by students in the survey (Yan et al., 2019). See Appendix 2 for more.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics was used to calculate the frequency and percentage for demographic profiles and students' CMC competence in Part A and Part B of the student survey. In Part C of the student survey, Pearson correlation coefficients were applied to determine the relationship between the scale of acceptance of online interactive modules, the scale of active engagement with online interactive modules, and other variables such as cumulative Grade Point Average (cGPA), self-rated performance in class, motivation to study the course, time spent on reviewing this online module, average time per week to log on to iSpace for this course, average time per week to study this course, or the CMC Competence scale variables. For the analysis of the FG interview, thematic analysis was employed to determine the perceptions of students towards the online interactive module.

Results

Student survey

In Week 10, a student survey was administered to a total of 27 students enrolled in this course. The class was predominantly female (74.1%), and almost half the class (48.1%) has a cGPA of 3.00 to 3.49. Table 1 shows the demographic details of the participants.

Table 1:

Demographic details of participants

Variable		Frequency (Percent)
Gender	Female	20 (74.1%)
	Male	7 (25.9%)
cGPA	3.50 or above	2 (7.4%)
	3.00-3.49	13 (48.1%)
	2.50-2.99	11 (40.7%)
	2.00-2.49	1 (3.7%)
	1.99 or below	0

Table 2 below indicates that 55.6 percent of the students surveyed reported that they have moderately high motivation to study this course. Only one student (3.7%) reported his/ her lack of motivation or enthusiasm to study this course.

Table 2:
Motivation to study the course

Variable		Frequency (Percent)
Motivation to study this course	High	5 (18.5%)
	Moderately high	15 (55.6%)
	Moderate	6 (22.2%)
	Moderately weak	1 (3.7%)
	Weak	0

Sixty-three percent of the students rated themselves as average achievers in the class while 18.5% considered themselves as slightly above average performers in class. These findings are presented in Table 3.

Table 3:
Self-rated performance in class

Variable		Frequency (Percent)
Self-rated performance in this class	Considerably above average	0
	Slightly above average	5 (18.5%)
	Average	17 (63.0%)
	Slightly below average	4 (14.8%)
	Considerably below average	1 (3.7%)

The survey also investigated the average time per week students spent studying this course. Table 4 shows students spent an average of 2.1 to 3 hours to log on to iSpace for this course with an average of 1.1 to 2 hours dedicated to review this online module. Students reported that they allocated an average of 2.1 to 3 hours per week to study this course (see Table 4).

Table 4:

Average time per week spent on this course

Variable		Frequency (Percent)
Average time per week to log on to iSpace for this course	More than 3.0 hours	4 (14.8%)
	2.1 to 3.0 hours	11 (40.7%)
	1.1 to 2.0 hours	8 (29.6%)
	1.0 or less than 1.0 hour	4 (14.8%)
Average time per week to study this course	More than 4.0 hours	5 (18.5%)
	3.1 to 4.0 hours	6 (22.2%)
	2.1 to 3.0 hours	12 (44.4%)
	1.1 to 2.0 hours	3 (11.1%)
	1.0 or less than 1.0 hour	1 (3.7%)
Average time spent on reviewing each online interactive module	More than 3.0 hours	4 (14.8%)
	2.1 to 3.0 hours	7 (25.9%)
	1.1 to 2.0 hours	10 (37.0%)
	1.0 or less than 1.0 hour	6 (22.2%)
	Never	0

As indicated in Table 5, the overall mean ratings for the three scales (CMC Competence, Acceptance and Active Engagement) ranged between 5.07 and 5.66. This indicates that students generally: (1) considered themselves competent to a great extent in CMC, (2) accepted the online interactive modules provided in the course to a moderate extent, and (3) considered themselves actively engaging with the online interactive modules to a moderate extent.

Table 5:

Student Responses to CMC Competence, Acceptance of Online Interactive Modules, and Active Engagement with Online Interactive Modules (Mean and Standard Deviation)

Variable	*N*	Overall Mean (*SD*)
CMC Competence Scale[1] (15 items)	27	5.07 (.99)
Acceptance Scale[2] (22 items)	27	5.66 (.63)
Active Engagement Scale[2] (9 items)	25	5.38 (.75)

[1]A seven-point scale was used: 1=*Not at all true of me,* 2=*Rarely true of me,* 3=*Somewhat true of me*, 4=*Moderately true of me*, 5=*Reasonably true of me*, 6=*Very true of me*, 7=*Extremely true of me*
[2]A seven-point Likert scale was used: 1=*Strongly disagree*, 2=*Disagree*, 3=*Somewhat disagree*, 4=*Neither agree nor disagree*, 5=*Somewhat agree*, 6=*Agree*, 7=*Strongly agree*

In Part C of the questionnaire, by using Pearson correlation coefficients to determine the relationship between the scale of acceptance of online interactive modules, the scale of active engagement with online interactive modules, and other variables were calculated. It revealed a strong and positive correlation between the Acceptance Scale and the Active Engagement Scale ($r = .91$, $N = 25$, $p < .001$). The range of correlation coefficient is from -1 to 1. The result showed .91 which means the variables had a strong

and positive correlation. In other words, students with higher level of acceptance tended to engage more actively with the online module. However, there is no significant correlation between either one of the scales and any one of the other variables, such as the cGPA, self-rated performance in class, motivation to study the course, time spent on reviewing this online module, average time per week to log on to iSpace for this course, average time per week to study this course, or the CMC Competence scale variables.

Focus group (FG) interview

In Week 11, four students (namely Ja01, Ja07, Ja21 and Ja24) were interviewed on their perceptions towards the effectiveness of implementing the online interactive module in the course. Their responses were identified and grouped into emerging themes (design of online module, value of learning via online module, and effects of e-learning) and are explained in the sections below.

Design of online module

All the students interviewed concurred that the online module has engaging and interesting interactive features. Although they liked the various interactive features such as flashcards and labelled graphics, the feature they liked most was multimedia because the audio and video files could be embedded as listening exercises. This increased their level of engagement with the course, thus motivating them further. The following two quotes illustrate this:

> I actually like the features that I just mentioned. You can't see these videos, you can't hear these music's if you use PPT slides. I also like that there are a lot of different types of questions in this module. (Ja07)

> If I have to read lots of reading, it must be a pretty boring class. But these online materials will make me feel quite different, and then I may be more interested in this course. (Ja21)

There was also evidence that the design of the online module was generally perceived as positive. For example, Ja24 commented "It suits my way of learning", while Ja07 reported that "there are more opportunities to practise listening".

However, not all aspects of the online module design were viewed positively. The main contention expressed by the students is they were not able to view the module in full screen and would have preferred PPT slides or word document files so that they can print or make notes. Interestingly, this finding is in stark contrast with Prensky's (2001) study who regarded students in the 21st century as digital learners who would have preferred viewing materials online.

Value of learning via online module

All the students said that they appreciated the value of learning via the online module as it has helped them to develop a sense of learner autonomy, and be more responsible for their own learning. To support this, some of their feedback is given below:

Do it carefully and can summarize the key points by yourself so that you can learn something. (Ja01)

In fact, we have to study by ourselves when we outside the school, so this is also a good way…Students need to get more accustomed to online learning. (Ja24)

The online module allowed them to learn at their own pace and time. As second language learners, they said that they sometimes struggled to understand the course materials due to the speed and pronunciation of the speakers. So, the module provided them with the option of self-paced learning, as revealed by Ja07:

The purpose of putting videos and songs in it is we can do it according to our own speed. We can stop and look back at any time.

Effects of e-learning

Feedback is a vital element in teaching and learning as it provides students with information on how and what to improve (Molloy & Boud, 2014). In e-learning, feedback is particularly important because face-to-face interaction is absent. Three students interviewed felt that they did not receive any feedback for their answers immediately, and one of them reported this:

Another problem is that it doesn't give any feedbacks. If it's in the class, I'm a bit confused, I can immediately ask the lecturer. But if I have a doubt or I cannot understand something online, I may just neglect and forgot where I have problem later. (Ja01)

Only one student expressed satisfaction when he received prompt feedback (referring to the quiz interface):

I get immediate feedback when I finished each question for the quiz. (Ja24)

However, he said that although he received immediate feedback, it was inadequate because the feedback given was based on correct or incorrect responses (see Figure 1). Because Articulate is a web-based app, responses are based on coding which means that instructors should put all possible answers to the questions and explanation to incorrect answers. A solution to this problem is for the future e-learning toolkit to be developed based on a machine learning system which could enable instructors to tailor-make the feedback to individual answers and facilitate interaction based on real time data gathered.

All the students agreed that the online module was only useful as a supplementary tool and not as a replacement of the teacher because face-to-face interaction is important, as reported by two students:

I will like online modules if they only play an auxiliary role in teaching and learning. (Ja24)

> The teaching effect is not as good as face-to-face interaction. (Ja01)

Contrary to the belief that e-learning is time-saving (Saleem & Rasheed, 2014), two students felt that using the online module as a learning platform was time consuming, as reported below:

> The least thing I like is that it is too time-consuming. I probably did it for more than two hours, because it had videos and songs in it…so I constantly went back and changed my answer, which took me too much time. (Ja07)

> We spent more time doing it online than offline. (Ja24)

Discussion

The present research focused on the effectiveness of e-learning using an online interactive module as perceived by students. The analysis of data suggested that they were receptive to the online interactive modules to a moderate extent. Qualitative analysis indicated that the interactive features in the module, particularly in the form of multimedia files and quiz, were accepted by the students to a great extent. The acceptance may suggest enhancement of students' autonomous learning as these features engaged the learners to learn effectively (Domagk et al., 2010; Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2015).

Based on the responses to the questionnaire administered, the students generally considered the online module an effective learning tool. The FG interview data supported this view, where students commented that the module was flexible and allowed self-paced learning (Smedley, 2010). Findings from the FG interviews also indicated students' awareness of other benefits of e-learning, namely ability to practise multiple times and develop learning autonomy, to enhance their learning.

Findings from this research also included students' perception of feedback on teaching and learning. Qualitative data from the present study supported Vygotsky's (1962) theory that learning is a social experience indicating that students learn better when student-teacher interaction is present. From the FG interview, students indicated that although the online module was a great learning tool, it should not replace the teacher because face-to-face interaction is important for successful learning. This view echoes the findings found in Aboagye et al.'s (2020) study. In addition, the online module lacked the ability to provide detailed feedback, an element students considered important for achieving academic performance.

Conclusion

The present study revealed many students were receptive to the idea of e-learning and revealed a high level of acceptance towards the implementation of an interactive online module. The findings also indicated that while learner-content interaction was evident via an interactive online module, students needed time to adapt and adjust to this new concept. For students to benefit fully from e-learning and embrace this new approach to

learning, its implementation must be introduced gradually. With proper guidance and training from teachers, students will eventually learn to be independent and take charge of their own learning.

While the context of the present study is in China, lessons learned can be applied in contexts outside of China. With the Covid-19 pandemic, the need for effective e-learning toolkits is crucial as schools and higher institutions around the world need to continue to implement e-learning. To promote e-learning, course designers require extensive training not only to gain the basic skills and knowledge to develop online modules which fulfills the factors of successful e-learning (Holmes & Gardner, 2006) but also to understand the diversity of technological tools and techniques involved in e-learning. In addition, they must include teaching and learning theories to ensure that online modules adhere to the principles outlined by Vygotsky (1962) and Moore (1989) to enhance learning effectiveness.

Acknowledgement

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Appendix 1. Sample questions from student survey
Part A: Participants' demographic profile (5 items)
Four sample questions are as follows:
  i.   What is your cumulative GPA?
  ii. How would you rate your overall motivation to study this course?
  iii. As compared to your classmates, how would you rate your overall performance in this class?
  iv. What is the average time ***per week*** for you to log on to iSpace for this course?

Part B: Participants' computer-mediated communication (CMC) competence (22 items)
In this section, participants were required to rate: (1) their own assessment of CMC competence, (2) their acceptance of the online interactive modules in the course, and (3) their extent of active engagement with the online interactive modules using a 7-point Likert scale (1=not at all true of me, and 7=extremely true of me). The scale of CMC

competence consisted of items which measure the respondents' motivation to use CMC (5 items), their knowledge of CMC (5 items), and their skills that are relevant to CMC (5 items). Some sample statements are as follows:

   i. I enjoy communicating using computer media.

   ii. I know a lot about how to communicate through personal computing devices (e.g. smartphones).

   iii. I manage the exchange of CMC interactions (e.g. WeChat interactions) skillfully.

   iv. I am *never* nervous about using the personal computing device (e.g., smartphone) to communicate with someone I don't know.

   v. I am *never* at a loss for something to say in CMC (e.g. WeChat).

Part C: Participants' acceptance of online interactive modules (22 items)

In Part C, participants were asked to indicate their acceptance of online interactive modules using a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, and 7= strongly agree). The scale of acceptance of the online interactive modules comprised items that elicited respondents' opinions related to the online interactive modules in areas such as information quality (4 items), information presentation (4 items), perceived usefulness (4 items), satisfaction of use (4 items), expectation confirmation (3 items), and behavioural intention of use (3 items). Some sample statements are provided below:

   i. The online module(s) in this course provide the right amount of information for my study.

   ii. The online module(s) in this course provide useful information for my study.

   iii. The difficulty level of the contents provided by the online module(s) in this course is appropriate.

   iv. The online module(s) in this course have motivated me to prepare for my study.

   v. The online module(s) in this course have improved the effectiveness of my study.

Part D: Participants' active engagement with online interactive modules (9 items)

Finally, in part D, participants rated their agreement related to active engagement using a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, and 7=strongly agree). The scale of active engagement with online interactive modules measured the cognitive presence of the online interactive modules, which contained items that solicited rating on triggering problems (3 items), exploration and integrated of problems (3 items), and resolution to problems (3 items). Some examples of statements are as follows:

   i. Problems posed in the online module(s) have increased my interest in course concepts/issues.

   ii. I have used various information sources to explore problems posed in the online module(s).

   iii. Activities of the online module(s) have aroused my curiosity.

Appendix 2. Sample questions from focus group interview

Q1. Can you describe the online interactive module(s) found in iSpace of this course?

Q2. Did you have to complete the online interactive module(s) before the lectures/ after the lectures?

Q3. How well do you understand the information or content provided by the online interactive module(s)?

Q4. What difficulties have you encountered when downloading and navigating the online interactive module(s) for studying?

REVIEWS

De Houwer, A. (2021). *Bilingual Development in Childhood*. Cambridge University Press. ISBN: 978-1-108-79139-7 (pbk.), 85 pp.

Reviewed by Jennifer Yates, Auckland University of Technology, Auckland, New Zealand

Annick De Houwer's *Bilingual Development in Childhood* is part of the Cambridge Elements Child Development series. Other publications in the series deal with childhood developmental concerns such as depression, socialization and gender identification. It is important to note that this series is published through Cambridge Core, the recently revamped online platform for academic content from Cambridge University Press, and that De Houwer is a professor of language acquisition and multilingualism. This contextualization, along with the fact that of the publication's 85 pages, 25 are devoted to a list of references, give an early indication that this is a seriously academic text. If you are a parent looking for ideas on how to support your bilingual child, this is probably not the ideal place to start. However, for existing or potential scholars of developmental science, De Houwer presents a vast landscape of untouched research territory waiting to be explored.

These research opportunities, however, are not immediately apparent. Although the text has a similar structure to an academic essay, it lacks a hypothesis or academic argument. There are glimpses of why creating an environment of 'harmonious bilingualism' is optimal for a bilingual child's academic development, but the reasons for this are vague until the final pages. In fact, I would recommend using section six, comprising the summary and conclusion, as a point of entry. This five-page section outlines 14 facts about bilingual development in children from infancy to the age of 11, which the reader can explore further under the relevant heading in the body of the text. The conclusion goes on to provide a subsection describing 'harmonious bilingualism', not with examples of what this might look like but rather with examples of situations where it is lacking. Included here are challenges bilingual children themselves can often encounter, such as depression resulting from social exclusion, and the adverse effects these challenges may then have on parents of bilinguals, such as feelings of remorse or guilt. A strategically placed link to De Houwer's Harmonious Bilingualism Network page at the end of this section extends an offer of support to parents facing these challenges.

The link to De Houwer's webpage is one of many that give the online version of *Bilingual Development in Childhood* the added dimension of video examples. These YouTube videos give practical illustrations of concepts and are particularly helpful given that the focus is on oral bilingual development. The hard copy version of the book references these video examples in footnotes, which still enrich the text despite requiring the additional step of having to manually type in the address. One clip showing a four-year-old conversing in English, Russian and Spanish with her parents is interesting not only because it highlights how the child

negotiates between languages to fill any gaps in vocabulary knowledge but also because it gives an insight into how parents can encourage bilingualism at home. Many TESOL teachers will recognize the strategies of substitution and scaffolding being used along with realia to revise and extend vocabulary.

While section summaries and video links make the text more accessible, other aspects make it a challenging read. One of these is keeping track of the initializations used to refer to a child's first and second language at different stages of life. When discussing bilingual development in infancy (up to two years old), the learning setting is referred to as Bilingual First Language Acquisition (BFLA). In early childhood (two to six years old) it becomes Early Second Language Acquisition (ESLA) and then for middle childhood (six to 11 years old) the setting is Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Although each section of the book deals with a different stage of development, the further the discussion progresses, the more cross-referencing between age groups occurs. Add to this the external influences of the societal language (Soc-L) and non-societal languages (Non-Soc-Ls), as well as subtle differences between a child's Language A and Language Alpha, and whatever concept the author is attempting to describe often becomes lost in technical language. Given the book is targeted at academics and purposed as a source text that can be delved into rather than read from start to finish, this overabundance of jargon is to be expected. The novice or merely curious reader, however, would do well to create a glossary of terms and keep it handy to avoid becoming overwhelmed by information overload.

For a slim publication, *Bilingual Development in Childhood* gives a remarkably broad overview of the studies that have been done (and are yet to be done) into this vast area of developmental science. It poses exciting challenges for academics and opens up plentiful opportunities for further investigation. For budding researchers, this is an excellent starting point and reference guide. For those new to the field of bilingual research, De Houwer's Harmonious Bilingualism Network website provides a gentler introduction.

Seals, C. & Olsen-Reeder, V. (Eds.). (2019). Embracing Multilingualism Across Educational Contexts. Victoria University Press. ISBN 981776562916. 383pp.

Reviewed by Simon Crosby, Ormiston Senior College, Auckland, New Zealand

This is a very timely collection of writings by a range of scholars on translanguaging in a variety of educational settings. In introducing the collection, Seals and Olsen-Reeder set the scene by defining translanguaging as the choices multilinguals use which "*go beyond* the use of state-endorsed named language categories…and the dynamic process of using language to make meaning" (p. 12, italics in original). The book adopts a translanguage lens to explore practice theory and pedagogy and thus makes a pitch to appeal to both an academic and practitioner audience.

What is significant and refreshing about this volume is that the first three chapters are New Zealand focused, in contrast to much of the translanguaging literature which is primarily from the US and European perspectives. Chapter two is a description of translanguaging in a dual language Samoan and English early childhood center. The focus of the study was on the ways dual language stories can prompt responses from children in varied language choices. The text intermingled Samoan and English which normalised translanguaging practices.

Chapters three and four look at translanguaging in Kura Kaupapa Māori schools. Here Seals, Pine, Ash, Olsen-Reeder and Wallace discuss their research into translanguaging practices of a teacher in a puna reo. They conclude that the teacher was a skilled practitioner "intertwining languages" and thus by "normalizing translanguaging and incorporating tikanga while doing so, knowledge of te reo is given status and encouraged among children" (p.62). Sophie Tauwehe Tamati takes a different approach to her research into students' transition from a kura to high schools with a particular focus on reading literacy, using Read-to-Retell-to Revoice-to-Review (R2R). She labels such a reading intervention as 'trans acquisition pedagogy' which she describes as an "approach to transition kura students from literacy in Māori to literacy in English" (p. 71). The writer concludes that a systematic approach to building biliteracy is needed for students to make successful transitions between different mediums of instruction.

In other chapters translanguaging practices are global in scope. Madoke Hammine examines the struggles for language rights among the indigenous peoples of the Ryuku Islands and how they are suffering language loss through assimilation processes of Japanese language policies. Chun-Mei Chen examined the sustainability of indigenous languages in Taiwan and, in particular, Paiwan speakers who originate in southern Taiwan. The author concludes that social networks of family and school, and the agency of the actors have promising results in

language maintenance. In chapter seven through to chapter nine the focus shifts to Europe and, in particular, the gap between language policies and multilingual practices on the ground. Judith Purkarthofer examines heritage languages in a global environment with a particular focus on translanguaging practices in heritage language education (HLE) in Austria. In a similar vein, Jenny Rosén, Boglárka Straszer, and Asa Wedin discuss Mother Tongue Tuition (MTT) in Sweden as an elective in mainstream schooling that can contribute to an ideology that embraces multilingualism (p. 183).

Next, Simone Plöger and Galina Purjata examine a German integrative model that places newly arrived pupils in the mainstream with support from "assigned immigrant teachers" as part of the multilingual shift in a school in Hamburg (p. 215). The writers conclude that the focus tends to be on cultural rather than linguistic bridge building and there is a need to build more robust structures and practices that embrace the multilingual reality of German classrooms. In Sweden, Vesna Busic and Kirk Sullivan report on their findings on the dissonance between what trainee teachers expected to see and the reality of what they found. The writers call for greater awareness of translanguaging and the promotion of multilingual perspectives "to percolate all subjects and levels" (p. 269).

In chapter 11, Suriati Abas takes a US viewpoint where the influx of migration has meant that the monolingual perspective has moved to a multilingual one. From her perspective "we need to value and reframe the concept of minority languages as a community based schoolscape" (p. 275) to describe spaces that are fluid and unfixed. The focus in chapter 12 is on academic writing among multilingual students in universities in Switzerland and South Africa. The research by Vebra Pfeiffer suggests that students process thoughts and language use in their home languages and then encode these into academic English. This code-switching is seen as a valuable tool to assist writing to convey meaning (p. 313). Pfeifer views "translanguaging in writing as a self-regulating mechanism in which bi/multilingual students can engage, rather than a pedagogy to be used in the teaching of writing" (p. 314). The focus shifts to Colombia in chapter 13 and the use of translanguaging practices to improve the mandated acquisition of English. Enrique Arias Costaño and Isabel Christina Sánchez studied how teachers included the students' home language to mediate content instruction in English classes. They discovered that "the implementation of translanguaging was purposeful and systematic: the vocabulary was taught in English; inference was carried out in Spanish" (p. 363).

In their concluding remarks Seals and Olsen-Reeder suggest a number of themes which have emerged from their book, namely translanguaging strategies, teacher education and literacy. Of profound importance is the development of a translanguaging stance which includes teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and ideologies.
This is certainly a book I would recommend to all those faced with the challenges of teaching in multilingual classrooms. It is thought provoking and offers some practical advice for practicing teachers, administrators, and academics.

Wen, Z. & Ahmadian, M. J. (Eds.). (2019). Researching L2 Task Performance and Pedagogy: In honour of Peter Skehan. John Benjamins Publishing Company. ISBN 978 90 272 0336 6 [paperback]. 328pp + xxiii.

Reviewed by Marilyn Lewis, The University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand

The title of this 13th book in the *Task-Based Language Teaching* series, might lead people to wonder what more could possibly be said on the topic. The answer lies in the 13 detailed chapters of this book which was timed for Peter Skehan's 75th birthday. For anyone not in the know, he is the author of many books and articles on SLA, language teaching and in particular the use of tasks. Not surprisingly, therefore, the editors have been able to collect articles from an impressive list of names, many of them reporting close ties with Skehan.

There are three parts plus a preface, a nine-page profile of Skehan, including a list of his publications, a foreword, an introduction and overview, then an epilogue. Part one is labelled 'underlying constructs and emerging perspectives', part two is on 'task complexity and performance' and part three discusses 'task pedagogy and L2 development'. However, as often happens in an edited volume, there is plenty of cross-referencing, and different editors could well have chosen different divisions.

The variety (and yet connections) between chapters is illustrated in part one, starting with Rod Ellis explaining how teachers prepare students through a "rich range of pre-task and within-task options" (p. 32). The next two writers mention areas they consider under-researched. In chapter two, Parvaneh Tavakoli, currently at a British university but originally from Iran, has suggestions for investigating fluency in task performance. Then, Zoltan Dornyei investigates which aspects of tasks engage students most. As he often does, the author livens his explanation with anecdotes, in this case his own teenage example of "directed motivational currents" (DMCs) when "enjoying…preparing for the theory part of the driving test" (p. 61). In the fourth chapter, also investigating motivation, Qiong Wang and Shaofeng Li report on interviews and questionnaires administered at a large, unnamed university in northern China. An impressive 96 participants wrote about the connection between motivation for a task and the more general SLA motivation.

Theory and methods in task performance come in part two's four chapters, where the research details are as interesting as the results. The 10 authors continue to represent the book's diversity of contexts. At the time of writing, they were based in Japan, the Netherlands, Great Britain, China and New Zealand although, as we know, applied linguists tend to keep moving round the world. A study reported by the four contributors to chapter six considered task demands, linguistic complexity and accuracy amongst second language speakers of English or German. Perhaps

unsurprisingly, the results showed that task accuracy and complexity depended on "task type and speaker status" (p. 148). Chapter seven changes country and method. Thirty-four students from another unnamed Chinese university were recruited. It could have been interesting to know how these invitations were worded to encourage participation. Chapter eight analyses "Skehan's influence in research on task difficulty" (p. 183) via a method with very 21st century wording: "a bibliometric analysis using CiteSpace" (ibid). The authors used the Web of Science-SSCI database collection.

Geographical diversity continues in part three, 'task pedagogy and L2 development', with contributors from four different parts of the world. The three authors of chapter nine are interested in the speech production of second language learners of English at a university in Brazil. In chapter 10, Rosemary Erlam builds on an earlier study with her co-researcher Rod Ellis to report an investigation of a French classroom for New Zealand secondary school students. In Chapter 11, Gavin Bui, from Hong Kong, contrasts students' performance based on two factors: their different proficiency levels and differences in the tasks' complexity. Craig Lambert in chapter 12 reports on just one learner, a Japanese adult in a study labelled micro-genetic, a term used in psychology. The pictures illustrate types of clothing the learner had to describe. The method and materials could be interesting as a class activity, with or without the research element.

The one-chapter epilogue is an appropriate conclusion. It brings together MacWhinney's roles as professor of psychology, computational linguistics and modern languages by comparing and contrasting Skehan's 1998 task-based analysis of learners' second language production with MacWhinney's own Competition Model from 2012. In summary, the book is full of ideas for looking at classrooms in a fresh way, and for conducting research.

Seals, C. (2020). *Choosing a mother tongue: The politics of language and identity in Ukraine.* **Multilingual Matters. ISBN9781788924993 (hardback). 213 pp.**

Reviewed by Sue Edwards, Waikato Institute of Technology, Hamilton, New Zealand

Those interested in the concept of mother tongue will no doubt be intrigued by the title of this book, 'Choosing a mother tongue', but may then be deterred by the sub-title: 'The politics of language and identity in Ukraine'. The book is centred around a study, carried out by the author, which obtained data in 2014 and 2015 from 38 Ukrainian participants aged 18-40. The participants were selected because they "grew up during the switch from Russification to Ukrainisation policies, including the language policy changes and ensuing ideologies" (p. 43). Twelve of the participants were living in the Ukraine, and 26 were in diaspora communities—14 in New Zealand and 12 in North America. As the daughter of a member of the Ukrainian community in North America, and through association with this community in New Zealand, the author had become aware of ideological conversations relating to language and identity which became common after the 'Russian Language Bill' of 2012, and which have continued throughout the current war in Eastern Ukraine (sparked by the annexation of Crimea in 2014).

The aim of the study was to "capture some of the dialogues taking place" (p. 2) regarding the political and linguistic changes that have occurred in Ukraine over this period. Chapter one summarises key events in the linguistic history and linguistic politics of modern Ukraine, providing readers with essential background knowledge for understanding participants' accounts and the author's analysis. The concepts of dialogism, intertextuality, and positioning are also introduced.

Chapter two focuses on 'identity' as the central concern of the study, and includes a discussion of the overarching theoretical approach to the analysis of the data—post-structuralism. This approach "allowed for the recognition of the moment-to-moment shifting and ever-changing nature of identity" (p. 188). Other key post-structural concepts which the author draws on throughout the book are also introduced here—subjectivity, positioning, performativity and intersectionality—as are theoretical constructs from applied linguistics and applied sociology such as investment, imagined identities, and identity.

Chapter three outlines the study, and the voices of a number of participants are heard as the author outlines some of the common topics that emerged in participants' narratives, including how they talked about the war, and what being Ukrainian meant to them. The author notes that the sampling technique (friend-of-a-friend) means that the findings are not generalisable. Chapter four expands on the theme

of the participants' views on who is responsible for the war. Various linguistic strategies were found to be used by participants as they expressed their opinions.

Chapter five could be seen as the heart of the book in that it focuses on the concept of 'changing your mother tongue', described as an "exciting and unexpected finding" (p. 17), as it challenges conventional ideas of a mother tongue as "something fixed and dependent upon the language used by a person as they grow up" (p. 190). Participants saw the concept of changing their mother tongue as including both a shift in the dominant language they used, and an internal shift in the language they most identified with (both from Russian to Ukrainian). Interestingly, the participants, including those in the diaspora, reported that this shift was something they had decided to make, either as a "conscious self-re-positioning" (p. 128) in response to a rise in Ukrainian national identity, or for those in the diaspora, because they perceived it as a way of showing solidarity with the people and events occurring in their homeland. Chapter six examines the issues of investment and loyalty in the Ukrainian diaspora in more depth, and highlights additional challenges of Ukrainian language maintenance in the context of the diaspora.

Chapter seven presents further perspectives on language and identity, with the author's analysis showing that some of the participants expressed the view that "it does not really matter which language you speak" (p. 168), implying that language is not inextricably linked to identity. This, the author suggests, allowed participants to accept linguistic diversity and align themselves to a "shared multilingual, multicultural Ukraine" (p. 185).

There is no getting away from the fact that this text is heavily theoretical and may present challenges even for those used to academic reading material. The author has included discussions of the theoretical approaches and concepts used throughout the text, but careful reading and re-reading will likely be required for those wishing to obtain a thorough understanding of the theory underpinning, and the themes emerging from, the study. However, these are brought to life by the numerous excerpts from participant interviews which are included throughout, enabling the reader to gain insights into the political and linguistic journeys made by participants in Ukraine and the Ukrainian diaspora. Although the book centres on the experiences of Ukrainians in the recent past, and the author concludes with the surprisingly strong statement that "we must reconceptualise what a mother tongue is" (p. 191), the findings may have wider application to speakers of other languages who are also faced with questions about what language to prioritise, and what constitutes their mother tongue.

McConnell-Ginet, S. (2020). *Words matter: Meaning and power*. Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-1-108-44590-0 (pbk.) 320pp.

Reviewed by Patrick Coleman, Lincoln University

Isn't speaking grammatically important anymore? What might be meant by "hate speech" or "dangerous speech"? "Does "free speech" license saying anything at all in any context? (pp. 1-2). These kinds of issues are a focus of this book. The ideas articulated by Sally McConnell-Ginet are an analysis of everyday linguistic interactions. While McConnell-Ginet is an Emeritus Professor of Linguistics, she appeals to the general reader by challenging them to develop an awareness of these kinds of encounters. The concept here is that language is not some abstract idea but is socially situated.

While the book is organized into eight chapters it has three all-encompassing social and linguistic practices. Although the target audience is the general reader, all chapters have notes and there is a sizable list of texts to read at the end. In this sense, there is still an academic flavor to the book. The first three chapters cover what the author dubs as *identifying*. This includes labelling, marking and generalizing. In themselves these seem quite generalized. The first chapter, dealing with labelling, tells a story about H. Samy Alim who was the founding director of UCLA's Center for Race, Ethnicity and Language. He was "raced and reraced" about eight times over an 18-hour period (pp. 9-10). People thought he was anything from Algerian to Mexican to Turkish, all based on either his appearance or the language he was speaking at the time. Essentially, people were asking, "What are you really?" McConnell-Ginet is making the point that many of the labels around race or ethnicity are based on appearance and are used to put people into alleged "inferior groups". She is also attempting to demonstrate that we need to be aware of labels and the way they are often used to oppress people.

McConnell-Ginet goes on, in chapter four and five, to focus on *placing*. This means the way people push others around the social landscape or put downs. Again, the titles are quite innocuous as they conceal the venom behind the use of these words discussed. These chapters delve into the taboo areas of slurs, both racial and gender-focused. The section on putting down does, in some ways, replicate the section on labelling as the use of language to put women down or keep them "in their place" (p. 158) involves labels. McConnell-Ginet shows the evolving nature of language with examples like "gay" or "queer" that had been used in derogatory ways but have now been reclaimed. While this does not preclude people still using them as slurs, McConnell-Ginet notes that the ground has shifted.

In chapters six and seven the focus turns to *change* and the disputes associated with it. Chapter six, which is about reforming and resisting, has a great section on preferred gender pronouns (PGP). Here there is a discussion about nonbinary pronouns.

McConnell-Ginet notes that many hundreds of years ago (no specific time was given), there was a debate about the possible loss of gendered pronouns. This was where "she" was introduced as there was difficulty distinguishing *hē* (the Old English masculine pronoun) and *hēo* (feminine form). The unstressed final syllable of *hēo* was dropped. If *hēo* had been dropped by Chaucer's time there would have been only one personal pronoun (p. 205).

The final chapter, chapter eight, explores case studies arising from the previous chapters. For example, the term Latinx used to refer to Latinos who want a non-binary identity that is not gendered like Latino or Latina. McConnell-Ginet acknowledges this is a new term that may or may not last but is an identifier that is above the gendered words to describe one's identity. She finishes by noting her own difficulty with the nonbinary use of "they": "My persisting hang-up here may have more to do with a gender conservatism that, while finding changes in people's identities relatively easy to accommodate, is still caught in the binary" (p. 282). This is an important example of self-awareness as McConnell-Ginet is doing what she challenges the reader to do—to develop an awareness of the language they use.

Ultimately, this book is an insightful look into the power of words. The target audience is not the specialist but the general reader. McConnell-Ginet has provided what could be used as a handbook to challenge and inform readers about the use of words in a range of contexts. To her credit, McConnell-Genet has self-identified the constraints of her book but nonetheless has not shied away from the controversial and current issues around gender and race. I would recommend this book to anyone—whether in the field of linguistics or simply the general reader who wants to be informed by a leading linguist who challenges our prejudices and perceptions around the power and use of words.

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

1.   Contributions to *The TESOLANZ Journal* are welcomed from language educators and applied linguists both within and outside of Aotearoa/New Zealand, especially those working in Australia and countries in the South Pacific.

2.   Empirical **Articles** should in general be no longer than 5000 words, and they should be accompanied by a 150-word abstract.

3.   **Reports** on research or practice should be 2000-2500 words. Reports should a) describe the context and motivation for the study, b) highlight gaps or issues, c) describe the innovation, action or research, d) report on and discuss outcomes, and e) include a reflection and future steps. Reports should be accompanied by a 100-word abstract.

4.   Referencing conventions should follow the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (7th Edition). The reference list at the end of the article should be arranged alphabetically. The reference list should only include items specifically cited in the text.

5.   As far as possible, comments should be incorporated into the text but, where necessary, endnotes may be placed after the main body of the article, before the list of references, under the heading Notes.

6.   All graphics should be suitable for publication and need no change. Grayscale photographs: use a minimum of 300 dpi. Line drawings: use a minimum of 1000 dpi.

7.   It is understood that manuscripts submitted have not been previously published and are not under consideration for publication elsewhere.

8.   Enquiries and submissions should be sent by email to the editor, Victoria University of Wellington, Jean.Parkinson@vuw.ac.nz. The preferred format is MSWord.

9.   All submissions should be anonymised and accompanied by a separate 'Author's details' document providing the full name, full mailing address, telephone number and email addresses of all authors.

10.   Those interested in submitting a book review should contact the Reviews Editor, Dr. Elizaveta Tarasova, ETarasova@ipu.ac.nz.

11.   The closing date for submission of manuscripts for 2022 is **Monday 1 August.**