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CONTENTS

EDITORIAL

The articles in the 2022 issue of the TESOLANZ Journal address several topical issues including language teaching during the Covid pandemic, further ESOL support for lower proficiency Pacific learners, and support for volunteer EFL teachers. The first article in the issue, by Lauren Kleinsorge, used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to explore teachers' perspectives of teaching English as an Additional Language (EAL) online. Lauren was interested in the pedagogical adaptations and compromises necessary in this mode, particularly adaptations of interaction and collaboration. The study revealed that teachers considered that online lessons provided some new learning opportunities, but the lack of non-verbal cues was highlighted as a challenge, impacting on interaction and collaboration, classroom management and engagement.

Tim Rossiter and Averil Coxhead investigated the vocabulary load of the daily 1pm briefings, which were part of Aotearoa New Zealand's COVID-19 response. They identify the vocabulary challenges that these briefings cause listeners, particularly if ESOL teachers planned to use such texts in their language-learning classes. Using a corpus of COVID-19 briefings they found that higher frequency vocabulary was used in the briefings by comparison with television news, talkback radio, or academic spoken English. Listeners would need a receptive spoken vocabulary size of around 3,000 word families. Rossiter and Coxhead provide scenarios for teachers who might want to use such materials, as well as some suggestions for government communications to consider in any such future events.

Akata Galuvao's report focuses on how Pacific learners experienced online classes during the Covid pandemic. To identify why school engagement amongst this group was relatively low, the author used interviews with learners, their parents, and teachers. Her report suggests that some Pacific learners, parents, and teachers struggled to cope with the expectations to teach, learn and help children to learn from home. The report discusses issues such as difficulties with accessing or using technology, financial problems, and student anxiety consequent on not working in person with teachers and peers.

The fourth contribution is a report by Steve Agnew, Tom Coupe and Cassia-Rose Hingston. The report builds on their prior statistics-based research which found a correlation between language proficiency and problems of school exclusion amongst Pacific learners. The report discusses the implications of these findings for the ESOL sector. A key message of the report is the need for increased research into further resourcing ESOL support in order to improve life outcomes for those Pacific learners with lower language proficiency.

In the final article in this issue, Christine Thomas reflects on her own experience as a volunteer EFL teacher of Tibetan Monastics in India and Nepal. She reports on a lack of teaching resources to develop conversational proficiency for this group. After an analysis of the interactional contexts that monastics experience, and of monastics' needs to converse in English, the article suggests possible resources to meet these needs.

My grateful thanks to the reviewers and editorial board for their work on the articles in this issue.

Jean Parkinson

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ARTICLES

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES: NEW ZEALAND-BASED EAL TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES ON CLASS INTERACTION AND COLLABORATION DURING ONLINE LESSONS

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Abstract

Online English lessons have proliferated rapidly worldwide during the Covid-19 pandemic and increasing numbers of teachers are now teaching online. While many studies have explored how class interaction and collaboration underpins learning in the physical classroom, much less attention has been given to how these pedagogical approaches transfer from face-to-face lessons to the virtual classroom. Using questionnaire and semi-structured interview data, this study examines teachers' practices when conducting English as an Additional Language (EAL) lessons online via Zoom, their perspectives on the benefits and challenges of online teaching as well as any pedagogical adaptations and compromises deemed necessary in this mode. The findings revealed that all three experienced online teachers, working at three different education levels and institutions, thought online classes provided new learning possibilities. However, the lack of non-verbal cues was highlighted as a challenge, impacting on interaction and collaboration, classroom management and engagement. The teachers reported this as being time intensive to manage. Practical implications for how teachers and their education institutions might improve online class interaction and collaboration are discussed, along with suggestions for future research.

Introduction

The global Covid-19 pandemic has catalysed an explosion in online learning, including EAL classes (Bannink & Van Dam, 2021; Cheung, 2021; Hung, 2021). Initially this happened by necessity, with face-to-face (F2F) classes adjourned, but now the world is reverting to 'business as usual', online EAL classes persist—not merely as a F2F substitute, but as a convenient alternative (Hung, 2021; Negoescu et al., 2021). This transition of online EAL classes, from impromptu stopgap measures to viable long-term options, means it has never been more important to critique the pedagogical approaches teachers have transplanted from physical to virtual classrooms. This is particularly true of class interaction and collaboration. Although a lot of research highlights its centrality to F2F learning processes (Walsh & Li, 2016), few studies shed light on which interaction approaches work online (Moorhouse et al., 2021). The present study aims to address this gap by exploring experienced online teachers' perceptions of online EAL classes, in doing so providing insights that other teachers (and education institutions) can use to enhance the quality of online classes going forward.

Research questions
This study was guided by the following research questions:
- What are the benefits and challenges of teaching English using Zoom?
- What adaptations and compromises are necessary when teaching English via Zoom?
- What practical implications for teachers and learners do these insights bring with them?

Literature review
Recreating physical classrooms in an online world
Online learning, education delivered using computer technology and the Internet, has steadily evolved since the Digital Age began, but accelerated in the 2000s (Anderson, 2008). Three separate modes exist: asynchronous (non-real-time, i.e., blogging), hybrid, and synchronous (real-time, i.e., webinars) (Souheyla, 2021). As online English classes today usually employ video-conferencing software with multimodal interfaces such as Zoom (Negoescu et al., 2021), synchronous online learning (SOL) is focused on here.

SOL seeks to emulate the physical language classroom. In F2F lessons, teacher-learner interactions, as well as learner-learner interactions, are crucial to the learning process (Walsh & Li, 2016), positively impacting progression (Alexander, 2013). Considering language is both "the vehicle and the object of instruction" (Long, 1983, as cited in Walsh & Li, 2016, p. 487), interaction underpins the learning conditions of each of the four strands in effective lessons (Nation, 2007). This interaction includes classroom and teacher discourse [e.g., classroom management, Initiate-Respond-Follow-up (IRF) sequences] as well as student-led discourse (e.g., group work, negotiating-for-meaning opportunities) (Newton & Nation, 2021), and often also entails physical proximity and movement (Lombardi, 2008). Further, through a sociocultural lens, Blum (2020, para. 14) contends "the meaning of classroom interaction is never just the 'content'…If it were that, we wouldn't need to interact at all". Paralinguistic social-psychological aspects thus also exist—interaction can be verbal or non-verbal (e.g., feedback signals via gesture or eye gaze) and its role in learning direct or indirect (e.g., zone of proximal development scaffolding, peer support and co-construction) (Nassaji, 2021; Thornbury, 2005). These aspects feed into engagement and flow (and vice-versa) (Aubrey, 2017).

The same forces also exist in SOL, but unlike F2F learning, no widely-adopted SOL pedagogical framework exists to help understand them (Picciano, 2021). Anderson's (2008) online learning model (see Figure 1 below) visualizing the different types of online interaction is a leading contender. However, Picciano (2021) highlights it as being incomplete—while capturing the more siloed agent interactions, it fails to clarify how the online interactions unfold, technology's role in this and any shifts in pedagogical approach required. Until recently, most research has likewise offered only limited SOL insights.
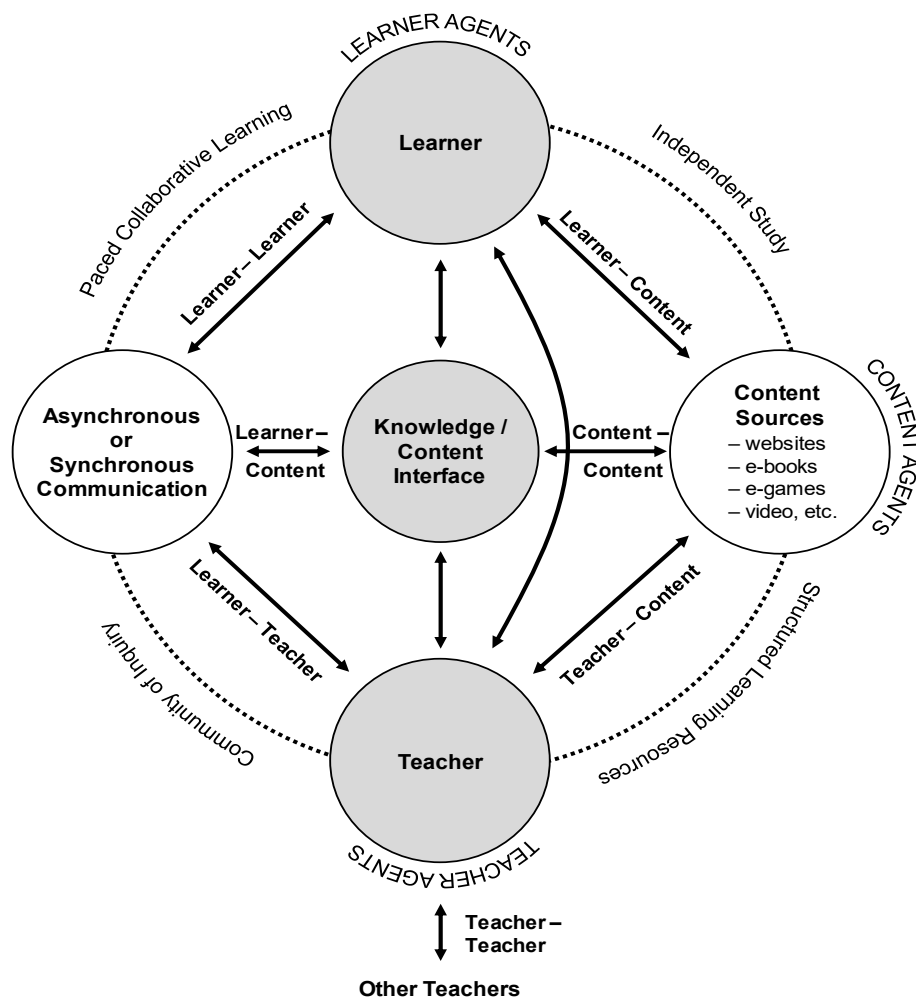
Figure 1:
A model of online learning and its interaction types, adapted from Anderson (2008)

Whereas numerous studies on communicative F2F classroom theory and practice exist (Newton, 2017), research specific to teachers' pedagogical approaches in virtual classrooms has been more limited (Moorhouse et al., 2021). Prior to the pandemic, research by Chapelle (2016), Guichon and Cohen (2014) and Hampel and Stickler (2012) explored SOL interaction and collaboration, but focused on adult learners in tertiary settings. However, the pandemic necessitated a sudden pivot to SOL by English teachers worldwide at all educational levels. Much of the recent research into online lessons focuses on this change (Cheung, 2021), providing opportunities to gain a wider perspective.

The challenges and opportunities of online interaction
Recent qualitative descriptive studies into online lessons explore the experiences of English teachers (Hung, 2021; Negoescu et al., 2021; Nugroho et al., 2020; Ramakarsinin & Baskaran, 2021) and learners (Ameiratrini & Kurniawan, 2021; Björkman & Reinholdsson, 2021; Huang, 2021; Nik Fauzi et al., 2022) across multiple

contexts (primary to tertiary) and places (Europe and the Middle East to Asia). They primarily ask if SOL is as pedagogically effective as F2F classes in terms of interaction and communicative collaboration opportunities. Perspectives differ significantly. Some report SOL is not as effective (Ameiratrini & Kurniawan, 2021; Björkman & Reinholdsson, 2021; Souheyla, 2021). Some contend it is (Huang, 2021; Hung, 2021; Nik Fauzi et al., 2022), although this might have more to do with the local F2F teaching style being more presentation-practice-production (PPP) aligned (Bui & Newton, 2021) and thus more easily transferable to SOL without much discernible difference (Blum, 2020). Others claim SOL is more effective in certain situations, like providing interaction opportunities for introverts in a stress-reduced environment (Negoescu et al., 2021).

Putting the ubiquitous technology glitches aside for now, the teacher-focused SOL research raises three common main challenges, (1) learner motivation (Hung, 2021; Negoescu et al., 2021; Nugroho et al., 2020; Ramakarsinin & Baskaran, 2021), (2) interaction difficulties and management (Hung, 2021; Negoescu et al., 2021; Ramakarsinin & Baskaran, 2021), and (3) online materials preparation (Hung, 2021; Negoescu et al., 2021; Nugroho et al., 2020), whereas the learner-focused SOL research highlights lack of interaction as the biggest common challenge (Ameiratrini & Kurniawan, 2021; Björkman & Reinholdsson, 2021; Huang, 2021; Nik Fauzi et al., 2022). Although the research mostly fails to delve into how and why these challenges arise, examining it overall nevertheless allows some interesting links to be made.

Referring back to the third of the common main challenges above, online materials preparation hints at teachers' struggle with adapting typical physical classroom activities to SOL. Discord exists in the literature regarding this too. Hung (2021, p. 421) views transplanting classroom activities as not "capitaliz[ing] on the dynamic nature of a technologically enhanced teaching and learning environment", whereas Blum (2020) shows no recognition of this opportunity, suggesting that software like Zoom is really only suited for teacher-centred lecturing, not dialogic teaching. This dilemma that teachers' face, trying to make typical physical classroom activities involving dialogic inquiry work in a virtual environment or otherwise trialling new ways of working online, perhaps then exacerbates the interaction difficulties already inherent to SOL. Interaction was the second main challenge raised in the teacher-focused research and the leading challenge highlighted in the learner-focused research. Many studies found the lack of non-verbal cues afforded by video-conferencing software like Zoom impeded both teachers' and learners' interactions, the aforementioned technology glitches only adding further complexity (Hung, 2021; Negoescu et al., 2021; Nugroho et al., 2020; Ramakarsinin & Baskaran, 2021). Additionally, the interaction management challenge highlighted by teachers hints that transplanting F2F classroom interactional competence (Walsh & Li, 2016) to SOL is also ineffective (see Moorhouse et al., 2021, findings below). In all, given the strong link between flow and engagement (Aubrey, 2017), is it really any wonder then that teachers report learner motivation as the leading challenge?

Zooming in on online interaction

A few recent studies have begun to delve into the how and why of the highlighted online interaction challenges, thus positioning themselves in the aforementioned gap highlighted by Picciano (2021). Bannink and Van Dam (2021) investigated Zoom SOL interactional behaviours (e.g., turn-taking, peer scaffolding, IRF sequences) and the effect they had on tertiary-level English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom discourse in the Netherlands. They found both teachers and learners struggled due to "the systematic absence of multimodal contextualization cues like gaze direction and tracing the origin of sound" (p. 1). This aligns with Blum's (2020) claims that SOL causes "communicative signs that…humans rely on [to be] thinned, flattened" (para. 16) and ultimately a "human-technology-semiotic mismatch" (para. 22). Bannink and Van Dam (2021) reported this impacted SOL classroom discourse because ambiguities, normally quickly remedied F2F, became larger issues requiring more time and teacher talk to resolve. They suggest teachers manage this by using more explicit forms of address and feedback and co-constructing online interaction rules with learners.

Moorhouse et al. (2021) surveyed 75 tertiary-level English teachers worldwide to examine the skills required to leverage SOL interactions to full pedagogical advantage. Additional to F2F classroom interactional competence (CIC), they found teachers required "technological competencies, online environment management competencies and online teacher interactional competencies", together labelled "e-CIC" (Moorhouse et al., 2021, p.1). This is a threshold concept for online teachers (see Skinner, 2017), necessitated by the extra demands of simultaneously facilitating multi-dimensional SOL tasks (i.e., text, images, audio, video, websites) and the learning process via complex multi-channels (i.e., chat boxes, annotations, breakout rooms). Interestingly, they detail how SOL's well-reported interaction deficits chew up productive lesson time, i.e., increasing teacher talk (lecturing, classroom management, instructions), wait and activity set-up time. This aligns with Bannink and Van Dam's (2021) time findings, but on a wider scale. Like Bannink and Van Dam, Moorhouse et al. (2021) also advise that teachers set up new online classroom routines and outline clear expectations with learners to mitigate this.

Cheung's (2021) investigation into the online interaction patterns of an experienced SOL teacher and his grade-6 English as a second language (ESL) pupils in Hong Kong is particularly valuable because a paucity of young-learner SOL research exists, even though online English lessons for children in China grow at pace (Gao & Su, 2021). She, like Moorhouse et al. (2021), highlights the need to "reconceptualiz[e] the constituents of classroom interactional competence" (Cheung, 2021, p.1). Using discourse analysis data from 80 lessons, Cheung reports that promoting written responses via chat box or annotation screen allows more learners the ability to interact and co-construct within limited timeframes and without the typical SOL interactional limitations. These can then be leveraged by the teacher using IRF sequence 'F-moves' to elicit verbal summaries or evaluations, a novel workaround to the IRF and time

challenges highlighted above. Cheung is also one of very few researchers to specifically investigate the student-student discourse of Zoom's Breakout Room feature. In an opportunity for further research, she hypothesises that a lack of non-verbal cues likely pushes learners' output via negotiating for meaning.

These three studies provide online teachers with some practical insights into how to maximise interaction and collaboration in virtual classrooms. The purpose of the present study is to therefore add to and update this growing body of research, from a New Zealand-based perspective.

Methodology

Participants and settings

Three professional New Zealand-based EAL/ESL teachers, from three different education institutes (public and private), at three different levels (primary to tertiary), were selected to participate using purposeful and maximal variation sampling (Creswell, 2012). Each individual participant (T1-T3) has 2+ years' total teaching experience and 1+ years' experience regularly teaching SOL classes using Zoom. Table 1 below presents a summary of the participants and settings.

Table 1:
Summary of the participants and settings

Participant	Institution Type	Institution Level	Total Teaching Experience	SOL Teaching Experience
T1	Public	Secondary	5+ years	1-3 years
T2	Public	Tertiary	5+ years	1-3 years
T3	Private	Primary & Secondary	2+ years	1-3 years

Research design and data collection

The participants (T1-T3) were invited via email to respond to a 15-minute online questionnaire self-administered using Google Forms (see Appendices for example). Purposefully developed and pre-piloted, it consisted of three biodata multiple-choice questions and five open-ended long answer questions. Asking such qualitative-descriptive questions promotes participants to describe the research context systematically and accurately in their own words (Creswell, 2012). This questionnaire was designed to collect participants' perspectives on the benefits and challenges of online EAL classes and any adaptations and compromises deemed necessary in this mode.

Additionally, two participants (T1 and T3) volunteered for a follow-up 15-minute semi-structured one-to-one interview. These were recorded and automatically transcribed using Zoom. While the possibility of information filtering in such interviews must be acknowledged, they provide the chance for more targeted in-depth questioning (Creswell, 2012). Purposefully developed and pre-piloted, the interview protocol

consisted of six open-ended question themes to allow for greater exploration of the participants' initial questionnaire insights (see Appendices for example).

Description of data analysis

The questionnaire and interview data were evaluated using Creswell's (2012) 'six steps in analysing and interpreting qualitative data'. The data was first tabulated, before being explored and coded based on the research questions' themes. These codes were then grouped to build broader descriptions contributing to the findings. Next, a thematic discussion was compiled, reporting the findings, before wider interpretations of the findings were considered, with any general conclusions compared against the existing literature. Lastly, an attempt to validate the accuracy of the findings was made by cross-checking them against the original collected data.

Human ethics

Participants were provided with information about the objectives of the study, their involvement and anonymity, information confidentiality, and their right to refuse to participate. Each participant provided formal informed consent prior to taking part.

Findings and discussion

English SOL—A double-edged sword

Thematic data analysis revealed five key themes: (1) interaction and collaboration, (2) classroom management, (3) engagement, (4) technology as a resource, and (5) lack of non-verbal cues. All three participants (T1-T3) acknowledged SOL has positives and negatives—sometimes even both at once.

1. Interaction and collaboration

The teachers highlighted interaction and collaboration as the biggest challenge. New Zealand (school and EAL) classrooms are rooted in cooperative 'inquiry learning' (Naysmith, 2011; Reznitskaya, 2012), yet all teachers faced difficulties generating this online. They reported working harder to get learners talking (especially learner-learner) and lamented the lack of discussion and small talk. T1 expressed a view that SOL provides some benefits for introverted learners, in alignment with Negoescu et al.'s (2021) findings, while T3 expressed opinions in alignment with Blum's (2020) stance that SOL promotes teacher-centred lecturing:

> T1: The big one would have to be the collaboration…that's really important for just everyday kind of conversation and banter in the classroom. That just isn't there in an online learning environment…[Online] the quieter students feel as if they can participate more because they cannot be 'seen'. Often the students don't have cameras turned on, so they feel safer contributing.

> T3: Discussions are mostly teacher led or teacher facilitated, harder to get genuine student-led discussions via Zoom…Reliance on traditional scaffolding/rote learning that is easier to deliver.

This last quote from T3 also speaks to interaction in English being a 'vehicle' of the learning process—any change and English risks becoming simply an 'object' of instruction (Walsh & Li, 2016). These positions echo those in both teacher (Cheung, 2021; Hung, 2021; Negoescu et al., 2021; Ramakarsinin & Baskaran, 2021) and learner-focused literature (Ameiratrini & Kurniawan, 2021; Björkman & Reinholdsson, 2021; Huang, 2021; Nik Fauzi et al., 2022). Björkman and Reinholdsson (2021) also highlight the lost value of small talk.

Another common theme was the inability online to utilize movement and proximity, which research shows is another way to create learning opportunities through negotiating for meaning (Lombardi, 2008). T2 and T1 reported missing:

> T2: Activities involving students standing up and moving around, e.g., role-plays, running dictation, writing answers on the board. Anything involving physical movement with interaction.

> T1: Question Trails are great but cannot be done online…There is the speaking and listening aspect of it, they also have to be able to read and comprehend the question. It's great because it brings in competition and…physical moving around the classroom.

Collaboration can be facilitated using breakout rooms—but teachers found them a mixed blessing. T3 reported breakout rooms afforded 'space' and direct learner-learner communication, but were time and teacher intensive, while T2 explained that the concurrent siloed discussions led to difficulties in teacher attention and oversight but also encouraged more learner-learner feedback:

> T3: The only way to have concurrent discussions is via breakout rooms which is time-consuming and not very effective…Usually when I do breakout rooms, it's just to give [students] some time away from the teacher…they might be able to talk more freely just only with their peers.

> T2: Putting students into breakout rooms for discussion is easy enough, however jumping from room to room and ensuring learners receive enough 'teacher time' for correction is a balancing act…In a F2F classroom I can see all students and get a 'feel' for who needs attention (based on non-verbal cues, calling out); however this isn't possible in breakout rooms as you are 'locked inside' with only one pair/small group…[It's] an opportunity for more peer feedback though.

This last quote from T2, interestingly describes how breakout rooms result in less flexible teacher monitoring and feedback patterns, something not highlighted in the

literature at all. It also aligns with Cheung's (2021) view that breakout rooms offer 'pushed output' negotiating-for-meaning opportunities between peers. More research into learner-learner and teacher-learner feedback in virtual classrooms is warranted.

2. Classroom management

These hidden time-consuming aspects of facilitating SOL also manifest in wider classroom management, the second biggest challenge teachers reported. T2 and T3 detailed more time spent managing turn-taking, activity set-up and instructions, which ultimately increased their teacher talk:

> T2: Giving instructions and starting activities is time-consuming online, with more need for repetition and clarification…but also confusion about breakout rooms, how and when to turn-take etc.

> T3: In a classroom…if someone starts talking, I just put my hand up and they wait…but obviously online, I can't do that. I have to say, 'oh, so and so, you just need to wait a moment.' So, I think a lot of time is spent dealing with those issues. And I think that time we could actually be doing something productive or learning, it's actually spent on managing the online classroom.

This strongly aligns with the literature (Bannink & Van Dam, 2021; Ramakarsinin & Baskaran, 2021) and particularly the findings of Moorhouse et al. (2021). Skinner (2017) warns that teacher talk must be used carefully and monitored to ensure it remains effective, which interestingly T3 in the last quote above seems highly aware of.

3. Engagement

Teachers reported distractions (e.g., technical glitches, the Internet, background noise) as one reason for increased classroom management and decreased lesson engagement. It pulls learners' attention away, interrupting class flow. This "dead time is…deadly to the rhythms" (Blum, 2020, para. 20) and Aubrey (2017) strongly links flow to engagement (and vice-versa). Interestingly, T2 describes flipping such challenges into engagement opportunities by using humour:

> T2: In terms of technological issues, you have to inject laughter into things. I assure students 'these things happen' when we experience audio or video interruptions and make a funny comment about background distractions…It's all about making the meet-up more informal and rolling with the issues calmly…

But engagement is not merely extrinsic; intrinsic factors like personality are also involved (Negoescu et al., 2021). Both T3 and T2 expressed the view that learner personality types become more exaggerated online, and that SOL made this difficult to manage:

> T3: The [students] not being in a classroom space, they're not really in a teaching mindset…getting side-tracked or distracted by other activities. Hard

for teacher to supervise and keep on top of every [student]…those who don't have a quiet/dedicated learning space are disadvantaged.

T2: It's easier for students to disengage unnoticed or more outgoing learners to shine by speaking out…in some ways it makes the more shy and more outgoing students more extreme.

4. Technology as a resource

All three teachers highlighted some benefits of leveraging technology as a resource, as championed by Hung (2021). T1 describes using websites as input for learning, while T2 and T3 explain how SOL lessons can be recorded and used by both learners (to revise or catch up) and teachers (to review their performance). T1 and T3 also noted some unintended consequences, in that learners can use technology to sidestep figuring things out on their own or collaboratively with peers:

T1: Already on the internet, they feel they can access answers for help in giving the right answer, rather than relying on memory, or feel pressure to quickly look the information up in their booklets.

T2: The ability to record the sessions and use these recording for review (tutor and students).

T3: Recorded lessons can be accessed asynchronously…but only by older students with good self-management skills…when it comes to students submitting their work online, a lot of them are using spell check, and so I can't really get a sense of where their spelling is at. Especially the older kids kind of figure out ways to circumvent actually thinking for themselves. They just find it on Google.

5. Lack of Non-Verbal Cues

The elephant in the (virtual) room is SOL's lack of non-verbal cues. All three teachers clearly identified this as a key theme underlying everything. The teachers reported classroom management and interaction and collaboration problems due to the inability to make eye contact, gestures, trace sounds etc. (see also the Interaction and Collaboration section on breakout rooms and the Classroom Management section on teacher talk above). These aspects of SOL are all widely documented in the literature, but especially by discourse analysis studies (Bannink & Van Dam, 2021; Cheung, 2021). T1, T2 and T3 mention learner interaction, turn-taking, and engagement problems, exacerbated by some learners' unwillingness to use cameras. T1 interestingly also highlights the flow versus engagement quandary caused by the lack of non-verbal cues:

T1: I find it hard as I have no non-verbal cues from my learners, they just don't turn their cameras on. It makes it hard for the other learners as well…[they] over talk each other…they tended to put their hands up [using Zoom buttons] before speaking a lot more…but that affected the flow of lessons.

T2: [There's] more confusion about breakout rooms, how and when to turn-take and so on...Learners have to be more active with their listening due to technical sound issues, [have] less chance to decipher non-verbal cues, and [must be] clearer with speech for others to hear.

T3: When we're online…I think because [the learners] can only see me talking to them on the screen, they think I might be talking directly to them…then sometimes they'll just start answering without the typical classroom management of putting up their hands or waiting for someone else to finish speaking before they start speaking.

The teacher as online facilitator—Adjusting the sails

All three participants reported making key adaptions in their approach to better address some of the challenges SOL presents—namely the lack of non-verbal cues and its impact on interaction. T2 and T3 told of needing to be more explicit with instructions and to ask more concept checking questions (in the absence of paralinguistic signals that would usually indicate uncertainty). T2 also mentioned adopting speech modifications for audio purposes, while T1 described a 'virtual flipped classroom' approach, where asynchronous content is utilized prior to maximize online class time:

T2: I think I have purposefully graded down my language for instructions. I have slowed down my speech, used less complex vocabulary, and worked on enunciation. As for breakout rooms, I have made sure I ask, 'do you have any further questions?' before moving to another room.

T1: I ask questions to ensure understanding, rather than 'do you understand?' and let students know in advance what we will be looking at next lesson so they can revise and prepare if they want.

T3 reported needing to make practical individual feedback compromises, which links to the less flexible monitoring and feedback patterns in online classes highlighted by T2 above:

T3: When it comes to feedback for younger students, I try to pick up any general mistakes that everyone is making and just talk about that a little bit…So, nothing really that specific or that targeted.

To aid classroom management, Bannink and Van Dam (2021) and Moorhouse et al. (2021) both emphasise the importance of establishing SOL etiquette. T3 described implementing such online interaction rules with learners, as well as using the 'mute' button when necessary:

T3: A lot of the time I have to remind them, 'I know we're online, but you still need to put your hands up. Because you might only be able to see me, but I can see everyone. So, to make sure everything runs smoothly, you all still have to

put your hands up. And it's really important to listen to other people when they're talking…and if I'm talking, you're not talking'…Using the 'mute' function, if I couldn't…I think it'd be a lot more challenging, just because some of the younger [learners] have trouble controlling themselves…if I didn't have that…it would lead to me having to repeat myself a lot of the time, because instructions aren't being heard.

These adaptions and compromises recognise the benefits and challenges of SOL and represent quite a drastic departure from standard F2F classroom procedures. They thus constitute an entirely new online-specific teaching approach. This finding strongly aligns with those of Moorhouse et al. (2021), who argue that online teachers require extra e-classroom interactional competence (e-CIC) specific to SOL – over and above the core classroom interactional competence critical to all teaching (Walsh & Li, 2016). This idea stands in direct contrast to Anderson (2008) who proports that the crucial aspects of teaching presence remain fundamentally unchanged across modalities.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

Based on the above findings, as well as those of other researchers highlighted in this study, 10 practical suggestions for improving SOL interaction and collaboration are provided in Table 2 below.

Despite these interesting conclusions, the present study has some obvious limitations. Firstly, as a small-scale study of only three participant teachers, the findings should be viewed as preliminary. Secondly, the research was conducted specifically within the New Zealand EAL/ESL context. It would be valuable if future studies addressed these limitations by including more participants, from other locations, and encompassed a wider EAL/ESL/EFL context. Further investigation into the finding of online breakout rooms resulting in less flexible teacher monitoring and feedback patterns is also warranted.

In summary, SOL is a fast-paced multi-dimensional environment that comes with many benefits, but also new challenges for teachers and learners. Whereas English teachers may initially have moved to online teaching abruptly, with minimal training (Nugroho et al., 2020), online English teaching today is quickly evolving into a speciality area in its own right (Rapanta et al., 2020). This necessitates viewing SOL as a separate, complementary, mode of English language learning—e-TESOL—not merely as a substitute to F2F classes. As such, it should not be assumed that F2F interaction and collaboration norms are directly transferable. Enhancing the quality of online English classes instead requires teachers to apply new e-classroom interactional competence (e-CIC) approaches and establish new e-etiquette to guarantee SOL success going forward.

Table 2:
Summary of practical suggestions for improved SOL lessons

		Interaction and Collaboration	Classroom Management	Engagement	Technology as a Resource	Lack of non-verbal cues
Suggestions for Teachers	1. Recognise that F2F and SOL lessons are not the same, requiring different teacher classroom interactive competences (CICs)	●	●			●
	2. Establish new routines and SOL etiquette regarding using names, turn-taking, cameras, muting, breakout rooms, feedback, etc.	●	●			●
	3. Make your teacher talk count—minimise lecturing, make instructions explicit and ask more concept checking questions	●	●	●		●
	4. Implement strategies to consciously reduce time wasting (linked to SOL etiquette and teacher talk above)	●	●	●		●
	5. Make and review lesson recordings to assess and improve your e-classroom interactional competence (e-CIC)	●	●	●	●	●
	6. Embrace technology as a resource—make use of websites, interactive screen annotation, video and e-games	●		●	●	
	7. Make the most of offline-online time, consider taking a 'virtual flipped classroom' approach.	●		●	●	
Suggestions for Institutions	8. Limit class size where possible—the smaller the better, especially with younger learners where class management can be an issue	●	●			●
	9. Schedule SOL lessons to allow time for learners to conduct small talk on the call amongst themselves before the teacher joins	●		●		
	10. Provide more teacher training (i.e., peer opportunities to share e-classroom interactional competence (e-CIC) tips and examples of online collaborative activities and resources).	●	●		●	

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Appendix 1. Self-administrated online Google Forms questionnaire

Teachers' Perspectives on Class Interaction and Collaboration During Online Zoom

1. CONSENT TO SURVEY

I have had the following documents provided to me and acknowledge having read and understood them:

(Please email the completed consent form plus your data preferences to: XX)

- ☐ Online English Teaching – Questionnaire/Interview Information Sheet
- ☐ Online English Teaching – Questionnaire/Interview Participation Consent Form

2. BASIC TEACHER DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION
   a) I have been teaching English (all delivery modes) for …
      - ☐ Less than 2 years
      - ☐ 2-5 years
      - ☐ 5+ years
   b) I have been teaching English ONLINE for …
      - ☐ Less than 1 year
      - ☐ 1-3 years
      - ☐ 3-5 years
      - ☐ 5+ years
   c) I teach English ONLINE to learners at …   (choose any that apply)
      - ☐ Primary and intermediate school level
      - ☐ Secondary school level
      - ☐ Tertiary level
      - ☐ Other

3. YOUR PERSPECTIVES ON ONLINE CLASSROOM INTERACTION AND COLLABORATION
   a) What are some main benefits of teaching English online (i.e., using Zoom) that you've experienced?
   b) What are some main challenges of teaching English online (i.e., using Zoom) that you've experienced?
   c) What adaptations have you made to your teaching to address these challenges?
   d) What are some examples of activities you'd like to be able to do in your online classroom, but feel unable to do (or restricted) because of the online mode of delivery?
   e) How does teaching online compare to face-to-face teaching in a normal classroom?

4. INTERESTED IN TAKING PART IN A 15-MIN FOLLOW-UP RECORDED INTERVIEW? (entirely optional)
   If so, please kindly provide your details: name, email address and phone number or WhatsApp/WeChat information:

Appendix 2: Semi-structured one-to-one interview protocol

Time of Interview: XX
Date: XX
Place: Zoom meeting
Interviewer: XX
Interviewee: XX
Position of Interviewee: EAL teacher at XX
[Start recording – Thank the interviewee for their survey response and for volunteering for the follow-up interview.]
[If needed, briefly tell the interviewee again about (a) the purpose of the study, (b) the data being collected, (c) what will be done with the data to protect the confidentiality of the interviewee, and (d) how long the interviewee will take (can all also be found on the emailed information sheet).]
[Briefly acknowledge again the signed written consent form having been received and confirm with the interviewee the fact that the interview will be video and audio recorded]

Q1-3) CHALLENGES
In your survey response, you mentioned some challenges of online teaching are XXX.
Can you tell me what effect XXX has on classroom management? Why?
You also mentioned XXX, what effect does this have on your teacher talk?
You also mentioned XXX, what causes this do you think?

Q4-5) BENEFITS
In your survey response, you mentioned some benefits of online teaching are XXX.
Can you tell me what effect XXX has on students' learning? Why?

Q6-7) ADAPTATATIONS & COMPROMISES
In your survey response, you mentioned some adaptations you make when teaching online are XXX and XXX.
If you didn't make these adaptations, what would the effect on the class be?
By making these adaptations, what is the effect on the class?

Q8-9) RESTRICTIONS
In your survey response, you mentioned not being able to do XXX in your online classes.
What effects do these restrictions have on your teaching/the class?

What is it exactly that causes XXX?

Q10-13) COMPARISONS
Comparing face-to-face lessons with online lessons:
When teaching face to face, what percentage of XXX do you aim for in your lessons?
How does this change in online lessons? Why?
How do you do XXX in online lessons compared to face-to-face lessons?

Q10-13) ZOOM WISH LIST
What modifications to the Zoom platform would make it better suited for online teaching/learning?
[Conclude the interview and thank the interviewee – Stop recording]

LISTENING IN A PANDEMIC: THE VOCABULARY CHALLENGES OF THE 1PM BRIEFINGS

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Abstract
This study investigates vocabulary used in a sample of the New Zealand government's regular Covid-19-briefings in 2020 and 2021 and its challenges for listening for second or foreign language speakers of English in particular. A corpus of 50,782 tokens comprising 20 prepared speeches by Prime Minister Jacinda Ardern and Director General of Health Dr Ashley Bloomfield (ten each from 2020 and 2021) was developed. The first 3,000 word families plus supplementary lists covered nearly 98% of the corpus. Proper nouns (e.g., Pakuranga, Wellington) and borrowing from Te Reo Māori which were not place names (e.g., motu) reached nearly 3%. Suggestions for using such texts for listening in language classrooms and government communications include focusing on high frequency words, particularly those being used in a new way (e.g., bubble, test), common Te Reo Māori words, and, planning for mid or low frequency words which are important for the new context (e.g., vaccination, asymptomatic).

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has had an impact on the vocabulary of our everyday lives as we talk about *masks*, *vaccines*, *clusters*, and *social distancing*. We can think of other examples in New Zealand/Aotearoa when an event sparks the use of new words or known words used in new ways, such as *liquefaction* and *munted* during the Christchurch earthquakes. Some of these words are high frequency in English (e.g., *carry*) but with a potentially new or extended meaning, others may be familiar to some (e.g., *genome sequencing*) with medical knowledge or special interest and other words may be formed through compounding or blending (e.g., *superspreader*).

This article draws together the threads of the language of the pandemic in the form of New Zealand government public briefings in 2020 and 2021 and the challenges of listening to and understanding these 'stand-ups' from a vocabulary perspective if teachers decided to use them in language classes. It also provides practical suggestions on how teachers and learners might take on the challenge of vocabulary posed when listening to/watching these briefings. It is important to note that while this research looks into the past, the findings and suggestions here may well be useful for teachers and learners who are interested in current events in general and the kinds of vocabulary that might be encountered in spoken briefings such as the ones explored in this study.

The vocabulary of a pandemic

The emergence of Covid-19 has caused words, phrases, and acronyms to be introduced into the general lexicon; some are novel terms and others come from specialist domains such as medicine. It can be fairly easy to find vocabulary lists related to coronavirus,

such as Bateup and Henderson's (2021) practical categorisation of 'COVID vocabulary' into areas such as shopping habits (e.g., *hoarding*, *panic buying*) and interventions and treatments related to medicine (e.g., *track and trace*, *hand sanitiser*). Bateup and Henderson also focus on pandemic neologisms such as *social distancing*, *bubbles* and *PPE* (personal protective equipment) and explore ways to investigate metaphors used by politicians and journalists, such metaphors of war (e.g., *battling the virus*, medical staff *on the frontline*) and ways that new words have been formed (e.g., the '*rona*'*=Coronavirus; Blursday=when days are similar and blur into each other*) with learners. The New York Times (n.d.) produced a COVID-19 glossary for English language learners and a set of resources (2020) to stay up-to-date, develop critical thinking skills about information related to the pandemic, ask critical questions about the pandemic and our current situation globally, as well as support teaching and learning online.

The language of the pandemic has been explored using large-scale corpora. Davies' (2021) coronavirus corpus is an international collection of thousands of English language newspaper texts from 20 countries containing the keywords coronavirus, COVID, or COVID-19. Beginning in 2020, this corpus now has over one billion words (Davies, 2021). The corpus shows the use of COVID-related multi-word units (MWUs) such as *flatten the curve*, for example, increased dramatically after March 2020. Meanwhile, Jiang and Hyland (2022) created a subcorpus of the Davies' (2021) corpus made up of 120,000 news texts collected from January to December 2020, equalling 12.3 million words. *Symptom*, *guideline*, and *restriction* were amongst the most frequent words in their corpus and many new or previously infrequently used items were found including *contact tracing*, *herd immunity*, and *face mask* (Jiang & Hyland, 2022).

The issue at hand in this article is not so much the technical vocabulary of the pandemic, even though it is important to comprehension. Rather, we focus on the categories of vocabulary in spoken texts and the knowledge language learners might need to understand these texts. The research was prompted by experiences of both authors. The first author was concerned about low frequency vocabulary being used in important briefings. The second author found that students were relying on information from their home countries during the pandemic either because they were unaware of the local broadcasts or because the use of the first language (L1) was more comprehensible. Relying on information from another country caused some problems. Anecdotally, one international student at a New Zealand university had not left her house in over a week during the first lockdown in New Zealand because she thought she would be arrested on sight.

Frequency and vocabulary
One way to conceptualise vocabulary in texts is to categorise them by frequency (Nation, 2013). High-frequency vocabulary includes the 1st, 2nd and 3rd 1,000 word families. This lexis is the most useful for all language learners because it makes up the

largest proportion of spoken and written texts (Nation, 2013). The 1st 1,000 word families cover the largest proportion of any text and the coverage drops quickly from the 1st 1,000 to the 2nd 1,000 and to the 3rd 1,000. Mid-frequency vocabulary is made up of 4,000–9,000 word families and low frequency words are from 10,000 word families onwards. This research is based on the British National Corpus/Corpus of Contemporary American English (BNC/COCA) frequency lists (Nation, 2013; Nation, 2018). The unit of counting is word families. For example, *play*, *playing*, and *played* would be part of one word family (Nation, 2013), as would *replay*, *replayed*, *replaying*. Lu and Coxhead (2019) investigated the vocabulary of a written corpus of Traditional Chinese Medicine and found that the 2nd and 3rd 1,000 word families contain items which are used in everyday English and in medical contexts (e.g., *medicine* and *tongue* in the 2nd 1,000; *symptoms* and *clinical* in the 3rd 1,000) (p.44). We might, therefore, expect that our corpus of COVID-19 briefings might well contain such items across high, mid and low frequency lists.

Other kinds of vocabulary in texts sit outside frequency categories. These include proper nouns (e.g., *Wellington*, *Ardern*), transparent compounds (e.g., *workplace*), marginal words in speaking such as *ah* and *um*, and acronyms/abbreviations such as *RATs* (*Rapid Antigen Tests*). In the New Zealand context, we would expect proper nouns to include place names in Te Reo Māori and English (e.g., Tāmaki Makaurau/Auckland), as well as the names of people and businesses. We would also expect borrowings from Te Reo Māori into English, including *tēnā koutou katoa, rohe, manaaki, kia kaha, iwi,* and *kōrero*. Categorising the vocabulary of a text is important for language learning because it helps us understand what vocabulary is being used in what context and what challenges and opportunities the texts might present for learners and teachers.

Vocabulary load and spoken texts in English
The vocabulary load of a text is a measure of the number of word families needed to support comprehension of a text (Nation, 2006; 2013). Vocabulary load research has focused on reading and comprehension of texts (e.g., Hu & Nation, 2000; Nation, 2006; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; Schmitt et al., 2011) and on listening and comprehension (Bonk, 2000; Nation, 2006; van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013). The figures of 95% and 98% are key to this research and refer to the relationship between comprehension and lexical coverage of a text. The more vocabulary learners know, the more likely it is that they will understand a text. With listening texts, Bonk (2000) found that when coverage was over 90%, comprehension was better and van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) recommended 95% because of variation in scores at 90%. In the present study, we report vocabulary load at 95% and 98%. It is important to note that vocabulary load and comprehension is disputed (see McLean & Stoeckel, 2021 but see also Webb, 2021), and this discussion is not the main object of the present study.

Vocabulary load differs across general and specialised domains and written and spoken texts. It is important for our study to focus on vocabulary load and spoken texts (Table 1 below). Webb and Rodgers (2009) found that 3,000 word families plus proper nouns

and marginal words provided 95.45% coverage of a television corpus, and 7,000 word families (plus proper nouns/marginal words) provided 98.27% coverage. They found that both US and UK spoken news programmes have a higher vocabulary load than other television programmes. This point is important for our research because the COVID-19 briefings in our study are more like television news than other kinds of programmes. TED Talks are another form of scripted public talk. Coxhead and Walls (2012) and Nurmukhamedov (2017) found 4,000 word families provided 95% coverage plus proper nouns, and 8,000-9,000 word families plus proper nouns provided 98% coverage. In a study of film and other media, Nation (2006) found 7,000 word families plus proper nouns were needed to reach 98% coverage of *Shrek* and that 6,000-7,000 word families plus proper nouns were needed to reach 98% coverage of the Wellington Spoken Corpus (see Holmes et al., 1998) which contains conversation, talkback radio and interviews.

Table 1:
Vocabulary load inclusive of supplementary lists across spoken discourse

Word families	Int. school teacher talk (Coxhead, 2017)	Movies (*Shrek*) (Nation, 2006)	Television (Webb & Rodgers, 2009)	Ted Talks (Coxhead & Walls, 2012)	Ted Talks[1]	Academic Spoken Corpora (Dang & Webb, 2014)
2,000	95% (Maths/EAL)					
3,000	95% (Science)		95.45%			
4,000	98% (EAL)	96.74%		95.47%	96.89	96.05
5,000						
6,000	98% (Maths)					
7,000	98% (Science)	98.08	98.27			
8,000					98.07	98.00
9,000				98.09		

[1] (Nurmukhamedov, 2017)

Academic spoken English (e.g., lectures) are another example of semi or fully scripted discourse. Dang and Webb (2014) found that 4,000 word families (plus proper nouns/marginal words) provided 96% coverage and 98% was reached at 8,000 word families (plus proper nouns and marginal words). Coxhead (2017) investigated teacher talk in three subject areas in an International School in Germany with 11-year-old students. She found that English as an Additional Language (EAL), Maths and Science teacher talk reached 95% at 2,000-3,000 word families but at 98% the three subjects required had very different vocabulary load profiles (Table 1). A series of large-scale studies by Brysbaert and colleagues has examined word frequencies in corpora of television subtitles called SUBTLEX in American (Brysbaert & New, 2009) and British

English (Van Heuven et al., 2014) and their use in psycholinguistic research on word processing.

The focus of the current research is to investigate the vocabulary load of the government COVID-19 briefings to complement the analysis of the kinds of vocabulary in these texts.

Research questions
1. What is the lexical profile of the overall corpus, by year and by speaker?
2. What is the vocabulary load of the overall corpus, by year and by speaker?

Methodology
Developing the corpus
The principles for developing the corpus were (1) only briefings when both Prime Minister Jacinda Ardern and Director General of Health Dr Ashley Bloomfield spoke were included, (2) both speakers needed to produce at least 700 words in each briefing (3) an equal number of briefings were needed from both speakers and (4) an equal number of texts were needed for 2020 and 2021 (Table 2 below). Note that the ten Bloomfield texts contain 21,521 tokens and the ten Ardern texts total 29,261 tokens. This is because Ardern usually spoke twice in the briefings.

Table 2:
Total word count for the COVID-19 briefings corpus

2020	2021	Total
25,956	24,826	50,782

Seventeen of 20 briefing transcripts are official records from the Beehive website (https://www.beehive.govt.nz/feature/covid-19-updates, n.d.). Not all briefings were available through that source. Therefore video files of 14 February, 17 February and 1 March, 2021 briefings were sourced from the Ministry of Health YouTube page and transcribed (https://www.youtube.com/c/minhealthnz/videos, n.d.).

Data analysis
The Range Program (Heatley et al., 2002) was used for the vocabulary analysis. It draws on Nation's (2018) BNC/COCA 25 1,000 frequency-based word lists and supplementary lists of proper nouns, marginal words (i.e., *um*, *ah*), acronyms, and transparent compounds. An advantage of this software is that the analyst can add new words to the lists as they go, or create new lists of different word types. We created a list for words in Te Reo Māori from the corpus. All the words in the corpus were categorised using these words lists.

Findings and discussion
RQ 1 focused on the vocabulary profile of the overall corpus, by year and by speaker. The most frequent 1,000 word families accounted for most tokens at 81.43% (Table 3). Coverage decreased with each subsequent word family from the 2nd 1,000 word

families (7.63%) to the 3rd 1,000 (5.01%) of tokens. In total, high-frequency vocabulary covers 94.07% of tokens. The coverage of the 3rd 1,000 lists is surprisingly high, but this list contains *isolation* (66 occurrences), *restrictions* (49 occurrences), and *update* (49 occurrences). Another surprise is the coverage of the 6th 1,000 word family at 0.51%, but it includes both medical (e.g., *vaccination* with 71 occurrences and *hygiene* with 14) and non-medical vocabulary such as *reiterate* (8 occurrences) and *infringement* (5 occurrences). Low frequency word family items include *asymptomatic* (11th 1,000, 6 occurrences) and *triage* (14th 1,000, 1 occurrence) and non-medical lexis which all occurred just once in the corpus, such as *bespoke* (11th 1,000), *apace* (12th 1,000), and *doffing* (14th 1,000).

Table 3:
Tokens, and word families at each word level for the Covid-19 briefings corpus

BNC/COCA List	Tokens %	Examples
1st 1,000	81.43	*and, of, today*
2nd 1,000	7.63	*community, staff, risk*
3rd 1,000	5.01	*facility, ensure, border*
4th 1,000	0.66	*staggered, sincerity, viable*
5th 1,000	0.38	*surveillance, notified, robust*
6th 1,000	0.51	*infringement, pharmacy, onward*
7th 1,000	0.11	*footage, impart, mammoth*
8th 1,000	0.09	*metro, outreach, afloat*
9th 1,000	0.09	*embers, geriatric, tertiary*
10th 1,000	0.07	*recap, flout, hibernating*
11th 1,000	0.04	*tracer, gondola, reconvening*
12th 1,000	0.02	*pandemic, apace, bandied*
13th 1,000	0.01	*bandanna, serology, versa*
14th 1,000	0.01	*apposite, doffing, triage*
17th 1,000	0.01	*comms*
19th 1,000	0.00	*luge*
21th 1,000	0.00	*ANZAC*
25th 1,000	0.01	*marae*
Proper nouns	2.39	*Auckland, Middlemore, Americold*
Marginal words	0.10	*um. ah*
Transparent compounds	0.75	*outbreak, website, healthcare*
Acronyms	0.23	*ESR, GP, PPE*
Te Reo	0.43	*motu, rohe, whanau*
Miscellaneous new words	0.01	*yoyoing, onboarding, Bluetooth*

Table 3 above shows that proper nouns including names of people, locations, businesses and community organisations (e.g., *Papakura*, *Crowne Plaza* [*Hotel*]) cover 2.39% of the corpus. Their coverage is the highest of the supplementary lists. Transparent compounds such as *timeline* and *workplace* covered 0.73% of tokens. Te Reo Māori words (not including place names, for example *motu*), covered a small but significant part of the corpus at 0.43%. Acronyms such as *ESR* (*Institute of Environmental Science and Research*) and *MIQ* (*Mandatory Isolation and Quarantine*) covered 0.23% of the corpus. Note that in Table 3, the 15th, 18th and 20th 1,000 lists are not reported because no items from these lists occurred in the corpus and that three words did not fit any category (see the final row).

The Ardern texts contain more high-frequency words at 94.43% compared to Bloomfield's 93.58%. Ardern also used more mid-frequency words (1.96%) than Bloomfield (1.69%). However, Bloomfield used more low frequency items (0.25%) than Ardern (0.10%). Bloomfield used slightly more proper nouns (2.66%) than Ardern (2.19%) and acronyms (0.33%) to Ardern's 0.15%. The coverage was similar between 2020 and 2021. The 2020 texts contain 94.77% high-frequency, 1.60% mid-frequency and 0.14% low-frequency tokens. The 2021 texts contain 93.34% high-frequency, 2.10% mid-frequency and 0.21% low-frequency tokens. However, sample sizes are small and no definite conclusion can be drawn from this comparison. It is important to note that the first 3,000 word families plus supplementary lists (proper nouns, marginal words, transparent compounds) provide coverage of 97.94% of the corpus. This finding is slightly higher than Nation's (2006) Wellington Spoken Corpus talkback/interviews (96.52%) and Webb and Rodger's (2009) coverage of British television news (95.79% at 3,000 plus supplementary lists). It is also close to the coverage of high frequency vocabulary in Dang and Webb's (2014) analysis of the British Academic Spoken Corpus (BASE) (94.70%).

RQ 2 focused on the vocabulary load of the corpus (Table 4 below). Note that the data in Table 4 is a cumulative representation of the data in Table 3. The left column shows coverage without transparent compounds, proper nouns and marginal words, while the right includes them. They are considered equivalent to the first 2,000 word families in line with Webb and Rodgers (2009) because they present a low vocabulary burden for the listener.

Table 4 shows 95% coverage is reached at 3,000 word families (97.94%) plus proper nouns, transparent compounds and marginal words. The 98% coverage figure is reached at 5,000 word families (98.35%). Without proper nouns, transparent compounds and marginal words 98% coverage is not reached and 95% coverage is only reached at 5,000 word families (95.11%).

Table 4:
Vocabulary load of the Covid-19 briefings corpus without and with proper nouns, transparent compounds, and marginal words

BNC/COCA List	Coverage without (%)	Coverage with (%)
1,000	81.43	84.67
2,000	89.06	92.30
3,000	94.07	97.94
4,000	94.73	97.97
5,000	95.11	98.35
6,000	95.62	98.86
7,000	95.73	98.97
8,000	95.82	99.06
9,000	95.91	99.15
10,000	95.98	99.22
11,000	96.02	99.26
12,000	96.04	99.28
13,000	96.05	99.29
14,000	96.06	99.30

Comparing results displayed in Table 5 below for both 2020 and 2021 texts, 98% coverage is not achieved in either subcorpora without proper nouns, transparent compounds and marginal words. At 95%, the 2020 corpus requires 4,000 word families to reach 95% coverage and the 2021 requires 6,000 word families. When including supplementary lists, 95% coverage is reached in both corpora at 3,000 word families and 98% is reached at 4,000 word families (2020) and 5,000 word families (2021).

Table 5:
Vocabulary load of the 2020 and 2021 Covid-19 briefings with and without supplementary lists

BNC/COCA Lists	2020		2021	
	With	Without	With	Without
1,000	81.70	84.62	81.14	84.71
2,000	89.54	92.46	88.56	92.13
3,000	94.77	97.69	93.34	96.91
4,000	95.41	98.33	94.03	97.60
5,000	95.76	98.68	94.44	98.01
6,000	96.03	98.95	95.21	98.78
7,000	96.17	99.09	95.29	98.86
8,000	96.23	99.15	95.41	98.98
9,000	96.37	99.29	95.44	99.01
10,000	96.41	99.33	95.55	99.12
11,000	96.45	99.37	95.59	99.16
12,000	96.48	99.40	95.61	99.18
13,000	96.48	99.40	95.62	99.19
14,000	96.48	99.40	95.63	99.20

Because the supplementary lists have such an effect on the vocabulary load, we only report results including them from now on. Table 6 below shows Ardern's texts reach 95% coverage at 3,000 word families (97.46%), as did Bloomfield (97.10%). However, Ardern's texts reached 98% at 4,000 word families (98.17%), whereas for Bloomfield it took 5,000 word families (98.01%). Note that without supplementary lists, Bloomfield's texts do not reach 95% coverage until 7,000 word families (95.10%). This is noticeably later than the Ardern 2020 or 2021 subcorpora. The 3,000 word families plus supplementary lists coverage over the COVID-19 briefings overall, by speaker and by year is similar to levels in television programs (Webb & Rodgers, 2009) and talkback/interview texts from the Wellington Spoken Corpus (Nation, 2006) but higher than teacher talk (Coxhead, 2017).

Table 6:
Vocabulary load of the Ardern and Bloomfield Covid-19 briefings without and with proper nouns, transparent compounds, and marginal words

BNC/COCA Lists	Ardern coverage without (%)	Ardern coverage with (%)	Bloomfield coverage without (%)	Bloomfield coverage with (%)
1,000	82.41	85.44	80.09	83.61
2,000	89.69	92.72	88.20	91.72
3,000	94.43	97.46	93.58	97.10
4,000	95.14	98.17	94.18	97.70
5,000	95.57	98.60	94.49	98.01
6,000	96.10	99.13	94.98	98.50
7,000	96.21	99.24	95.10	98.62
8,000	96.30	99.33	95.18	98.70
9,000	96.39	99.42	95.27	98.79
10,000	96.42	99.45	95.40	98.92
11,000	96.43	99.46	95.47	98.99
12,000	96.46	99.49	95.48	99.00
13,000	96.47	99.50	95.48	99.00
14,000	96.47	99.50	95.49	99.01

The overall Covid-19 briefings corpus returned word family coverage levels indicating suitability for general comprehension. The corpus reaches the significant 98% coverage figure at 5,000 word families (98.35%). In comparison with analyses of spoken corpora in the field, 98% coverage is reached with fewer word families than talkback and interviews from the Wellington Spoken Corpus (Nation, 2006), television shows (Webb & Rodgers, 2009), the film *Shrek* (Nation, 2006), academic spoken texts (Dang & Webb, 2014) and TED Talks (Coxhead & Walls, 2012; Nurmukhamedov, 2017). Note that the 98% coverage figure is not reached without supplementary lists. This may be due to the high proportion of proper nouns (2.39%), which is explained in part by the fact that the briefings included names of towns and cities throughout the country and frequently identified 'locations of interest' for example, *Pakuranga* and *BurgerFuel*.

Implications for language teaching

This study was based on transcripts of video recordings which raises several issues for teachers when it comes to adapting vocabulary in recordings (thank you to an anonymous reviewer for pointing out this problem). In this section, we focus on common classroom activities and working with transcripts.

A key consideration in any listening activity in relation to vocabulary is that the more learners know about a topic, the more likely it is that they will know the vocabulary related to it (Nation, 2013). Brainstorming vocabulary as a class or in small groups may quickly establish what learners already know about a topic in their first or second languages, and what gaps there might be. Table 7 below focuses on the categories of vocabulary highlighted through the findings for Research Question 1.

Table 7:

Categories and features of vocabulary in the COVID-19 briefings and knowledge needed

Category	Features of these words	What knowledge do learners need for listening?
High frequency words	Cover the highest proportion of vocabulary in the listening texts; may contain technical vocabulary; make up many two-word collocations and multi-word units	Knowledge of this vocabulary; practice with hearing the vocabulary in context; exploring technical meanings which are new or an extension of meaning from the everyday (e.g., *test* does not mean taking a language test).
Mid and low frequency words and phrases with technical meanings	May be repeated in the briefings because they are closely related to the topic	Explore technical meanings of these words; understand that they have frequency and meanings which may differ from everyday English
Proper nouns	May include place and people names from a variety of languages including Te Reo Māori and English	Recognise the words in context and what they refer to; understand that these words refer to people and places
Te Reo Māori words	May occur with English translations alongside or not; are likely to be high frequency words (e.g., *whanau*—meaning *family* in this context)	Recognise the words in context and what they refer to
Low frequency words in English (e.g., *apposite*, *donning* and *doffing*)	Tend to occur only once	Replace words in the transcript with higher frequency alternative words such as putting on and taking off (*doffing and donning*); use Lex Tutor vocabprofile with Nation's BNC/COCA lists— https://www.lextutor.ca/vp/comp/ —to identify these items; consider using these items for practising guessing meaning from context

A reviewer suggested the following scenarios for working with the transcripts with language learners once the knowledge in the last column in Table 6 is addressed:

    1.   Use excerpts from some of the 2020-2021 recorded briefings to recreate the experience of following this kind of story over a period of time.

    2.   Use the transcripts as the basis for speaking activities, such as recreating the 1pm briefings or holding interviews with members of the press.

    3.   Implement narrow listening (e.g., Chang & Renandya, 2021) with less advanced learners by selecting a particular strand of the briefings, such as progress in tracking a particular cluster of Covid cases or the initial rollout of the vaccine once it finally arrived.

    4.   Draw on the suggestions in Table 6 and scenarios above in the case of large-scale emerging situations such as the COVID-19 pandemic or major news stories.

There are also some implications for government communications from this research. The first is a recognition of the potentially heavy burden of listening to these briefings from a vocabulary perspective. Unlike TED Talks, the briefings in 2020 and 2021 tended to be devoid of images, pictures or slides to help with comprehension. Technical words could be glossed consistently to help with comprehension and low frequency words could be perhaps replaced with higher frequency items, unless they have a particularly important technical meaning or cannot be replaced without causing unnecessary confusion. Technical acronyms such as *Community Based Assessment Centres* (CBACs) could be either expanded into full words at least once per presentation or referred to perhaps just as *testing centres*.

Limitations and further research
Firstly, the Covid-19 briefings corpus is small and localised which affects generalisability. Taking a sample of a much larger group of texts would provide confirmation of the findings in this report and allow further insight into patterns of vocabulary use. Secondly, lexical coverage and profile results need to be treated with caution (Webb, 2021). They do not actually tell us about actual comprehension of texts by actual second or foreign language learners of English. Our quantitative analysis of vocabulary does not include evidence of comprehension or listeners' experiences. Thirdly, COVID-19 briefings may be accessible only for learners with a well established foundation of high frequency vocabulary and proficiency in English. Finally, the corpus sources dealt with marginal words in slightly different ways. We tried our best to standardise them. The impact on the corpus is small.

An interesting avenue for future research could be the metaphorical use of language likening the pandemic to sport and war (e.g., *the team of five million*, the vaccine as *our armour* and the virus as a *dangerous enemy*) and its comprehensibility (Boers et al., 2007). Another avenue could focus on terms which may be common in the corporate or civil-service sector but less frequent elsewhere, such as *stand up* (either to *have a*

meeting or *commence a process*), *onboarding* (*inducting new employees*), and *step down* (*moving to a lower level*). Finally, an analysis of the repetition of the key terms in the data in the year and speaker corpora would provide a fuller picture of the data (thanks to an anonymous reviewer for that suggestion).

Conclusion

This analysis of the vocabulary of the 1pm COVID-19 briefings has highlighted the importance yet again of high frequency vocabulary in spoken English as well as several possible challenges for language learners. Using media during fast changing times might not be easy for teachers, but these recordings and their transcripts are easily accessible. With some preparation and planning, decisions can be made around what vocabulary is worth paying attention to or not. Encountering the words in context is only one part of the listening journey. We can also ensure that learners have plenty of opportunities to use these words in context in their own speaking and writing.

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COVID-19 PANDEMIC ADDS TO THE DILEMMA OF PACIFIC STUDENTS IN SOUTH AUCKLAND

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Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has impacted hugely on education systems. This article offers insight into how some students, parents and teachers in South Auckland dealt with the sudden rise of the pandemic. As a teacher in one of the local colleges in the area, the author draws on observations and communications with teachers, parents, and students in the local community about their struggle to stay afloat during the prolonged lockdowns. The expectations were of teachers to suddenly be experts in their capacity to teach remotely and parents and students to be accepting of the digital educational response. The schools, too, were expected to be prepared almost overnight to address the students' diverse academic, social, emotional, and financial needs. This article discusses how the pandemic added to the deeply embedded multifaceted dilemma of Pacific students in South Auckland.

Introduction

Across all levels of education in New Zealand, Pacific students are not achieving as well as they should (Galuvao, 2016a). This educational disparity between Pacific and non-Pacific students is an on-going issue and has been argued as occurring due to a combination of factors. For example, Marriott and Sim (2015) contended that inequity in education for Pacific students is due to inequality of opportunity, economic growth, and development. Benseman et al. (2006) found that Pacific students' own commitment to their families, communities, work, and church affected their academic progress. In addition, Galuvao (2016b) concluded that limited success of Pacific students in schools is due to the mismatch between their language, culture, and experiences and those expected to succeed in school. Kokaua et al. (2014) on the other hand, questioned the preparedness of Pacific students with the necessary study skills to succeed in schools. This article highlights how COVID-19 has added to this prolonged plight of Pacific students in New Zealand.

As mentioned previously, the author draws on conversations with students, parents, and teachers from a secondary school in south Auckland. This co-educational college is for students from Years 9 to 14. It is a well-established school with strong links to its community. The school roll of approximately 1000 students reflects the cultural diversity of the community, with about two-thirds of the students of Pacific heritage.

This article hopes to draw attention to some of the realities Pacific students (and parents), as well as their teachers, face during the pandemic. As a teacher working with Pacific students in their school, the author hopes that revealing some of these realities can help trigger constructive conversations amongst educators working with Pacific

students. The author also hopes these conversations can lead to sharing resources and ideas to best address the learning needs of our Pacific learners who have been deeply affected by the pandemic.

This article starts by presenting the perspectives of several groups of participants who contributed to this article. The participants' conversations with the author are referred to as evidence throughout the article. The Pacific students' viewpoint is discussed first, because their educational concerns are at the heart of this article. Discussions with parents as well as teachers are also presented. Following on is a section that explains how the pandemic has added to the limited success dilemma of Pacific students in schools. Finally, suggestions are made which will hopefully help teachers in their journey to address the learning needs of Pacific students.

Pacific students

Students' lives have been disrupted in different ways because of the pandemic. In a conversation with the author, the Pacific students expressed their determination to learn in spite of the challenge of how to best achieve their NCEA credits. For those in Year 13 in particular, the fear of not being able to fulfil their dream of a chance in tertiary education was a major concern. According to Mila-Schaaf and Robinson (2010), to graduate from university is not just a dream of Pacific students, but of their parents and families as well. Although compassionate criteria were put into place, such as lowering the number of credits to get NCEA Level 1 from 80 to 64, Level 2 from 80 to 68, and Level 3 from 80 to 68, in response to the crisis, students still talked about feeling uncertain and unsure. Even those hoping to enter the workforce after Year 13 were anxious about the future with incomplete NCEA courses on their resume.

It seemed from the conversations that many students were aware of the disadvantages of not being able to be in school. For some, there was a lack of collaboration from which they learn best. For others, the sudden expectation to work in isolation from their social group and teachers contributed to frustration, boredom, and the lack of motivation. A few of the Pacific students admitted to their own deficiency in computer skills, as the reason for their inability to access and complete online tasks. Some students also spoke about their personal difficulties during the lockdowns. Pacific people tend to live in extended families so overcrowded home environments were not the most favourable condition for study. As some Pacific parents found technology overwhelming, they seemed unresponsive to the expectation to help their children learn from home. As a result, some students felt they needed to be in school as their parents could not help them with the work.

A study by Ashfield-Watt et al. in 2008 concluded that South Auckland has about 45 per cent of children who are classified as the most deprived in the country. This deprivation was heightened by the onset of the pandemic, leading to increased pressure on schools in the region to prepare supplies for vulnerable families. These supplies included providing laptops and internet access for the children to do their school tasks

at home, hampers of food and money vouchers for petrol and bills. Support was also available from school social and health services to address the worries, fears, frustrations, anxiety, anger, and other challenges brought upon students and families because of the lockdowns.

Many Pacific Island families in the region struggled financially resulting in a lack of equipment and internet access, adding to the stress both students and their parents had to face (Biddle, 2020). This lack of needed equipment for students contributed to non-equitable opportunities for Pacific students due to the inequalities in resourcing available to families. A report by the New Zealand Education Review Office highlighted that Pasifika (including students) in low socio-economic communities were the groups most likely to have limited access to devices and connectivity; students from these communities would have to share a device between siblings (Education Review Office, 2022). Although it is likely that most students found some difficulty in transitioning to online instruction, these difficulties were compounded for Pacific students in South Auckland by ongoing inequities including limited access to computers and the internet (Biddle, 2020). This financial struggle has also been blamed for an increase in drop-out rates as Pacific students chose to work to get money to help their parents, instead of coming back to school (Tokalau, 2022).

Parents and local communities
The COVID-19 pandemic presented opportunities for Pacific parents and the local community to work together. Parents were able to understand some aspects of the disease as the information was presented in different Pacific languages (Enari & Fa'aea, 2020). Parents saw, heard, and learned about the pandemic from various sources such as the television and social media. They were also able to share their anxiety with others in their close families and church. As Enari and Fa'aea (2020) noted, the more consistent the messages were for Pacific members, the more empowered they were to keep themselves and their families safe.

Local Pacific groups, such as the Samoa i Manurewa Tutu Faatasi (Samoans living in Manurewa) and South Seas Healthcare, also actively encouraged the local community to stand together to prevent the spread of the disease. This 'collective' effort that emphasises collective aspirations to achieve a collective goal is an example of the collective nature of Pacific culture (Enari & Matapo, 2021). It involves the 'collective construction of knowledge' (Galuvao, 2016b, p. 9) to navigate a way forward to fight against COVID-19. More importantly, this communal effort could extend beyond building resilience against the pandemic, to involve working together as families and local communities, to support children in their schoolwork at home (Enari & Matapo, 2021).

However, the expectation for parents to help their children with their schoolwork at home proved to be difficult and unfamiliar for some. In conversations with the author,

some parents argued that the classroom is the place for their children to be taught. They said that children learning from home was strange and overwhelming. Some even argued that it was 'unfair' to expect them to have the know-how to effectively support children's education and learning at home. One factor that surely contributed to some of the parents' struggle to support their children at home was their inability to comprehend the 'western knowledge' that informs the nature of teaching and learning (Enari & Matapo, 2021, p. 1). This was because the contents of the lessons were often far removed from the reality and life experiences of some of the Pacific parents and their children (Galuvao, 2016c). This led to a very limited opportunity for the students and their parents to build their new learning on what they already knew (McNaughton, 2002).

Teachers and schools

The effort to diminish the spread of COVID-19 demanded the closure of schools in New Zealand and around the world. In fact, a report presented on the UNESCO website warned that as of September 19, 2021, around 117 million students around the world were still out of school (Giannini, 2021). With the expectation to cease face-to-face teaching, New Zealand schools immediately opted for internet-generated education with teachers 'teaching to' and students 'learning from' computer screens. As a consequence, some parents, families, teachers and students found themselves obligated with responsibilities they had neither planned nor equipped themselves for.

With a few hours to prepare for the first lockdown in early 2020, some teachers made sure students took home books, photocopied worksheets, pens, and pencils to study. There were also written resources from the Ministry of Education for junior students, from primary school level through to Year 10 to do, which were distributed and delivered to the students' homes by their teachers and other school personnel. However, the quality of some of the work prepared in such a short time was undeniably 'questionable', given the diverse needs of Pacific students. What was evident was the overwhelming pressure to 'do something', which consequently resulted in the mass production of tasks, which although were for good intentions, failed to address Pacific students' specific learning needs.

The unforeseen reality came immediately after the students had gone home, when teachers were asked to utilize online platforms for teaching. With this innovative opportunity, teachers were given access to apply their technological skills to support students from a distance. Some teachers set up work for their students to do via blogs, Google Classroom, Microsoft Teams, and e-mails. Meetings and video conferencing were also set up to suit teachers' and students' schedules on Zoom. Others drew on the abundance of high-quality learning material available on programmes such as Learn Coach and Education Perfect. The expectation to organise the contents and learning methods to suit the new mode of delivery was vital. In conversations with some teachers, they admitted to not being confident in engaging in online teaching. This meant that

although teachers had good intentions, some students might have been deprived of their learning.

Another strategy put in place in some schools during the lockdowns was monitoring students' engagement, with grades awarded according to how well students engaged in online tasks. In a school the author is associated with, efforts by students to complete the set activities, seek support from teachers or email a mere 'hello' were appreciated and rewarded with scores from 0 to 4 (4 for 'excellent work', 3 for 'above average', 2 for 'below average' or 'incomplete work', 1 for 'saying hello' and 0 for 'no communication at all'). Data from these recordings were collated and relayed back to families in an effort to encourage students to do their schoolwork. Some teachers hoped to use this reward system to convince students to do the set tasks. However, the consistent low engagement rates of Pacific students raised concerns amongst local teachers and principals (ERO, 2022).

Adding to the dilemma of Pacific students

The observations and conversations shared in this article highlight challenges with far reaching consequences that hinder Pacific students' learning. This hindrance adds to the on-going failure Pacific students face in classrooms (Galuvao, 2016a) and increases the inequities in New Zealand schools (Mutch, 2021). Firstly, students learning from home in isolation from their teachers and peers means students are deprived of the chances for differentiated learning and classroom-based strategies that address their specific learning needs. They are also disadvantaged by being away from the collective support of their peers and social groups. Collective support is not just an important approach where students share ideas and learn from each other, it is also a common practice in the Pacific cultures (Galuvao, 2016b).

Secondly, school closures also affect Pacific parents' ability to work hence adding to the financial problems families face. These added burdens can have long-term deleterious consequences for students' health and education. A study in the United States found that school closures led to lost learning for many students, widening inequality (Donohue & Miller, 2020). In the case of some Pacific families, the parents' inability to work for money means having no computers and no access to the internet, adding to students' further misfortune. Furthermore, for most Pacific students, who rely on school for food and health needs, due to their socioeconomic disadvantages (Ashfield-Watt et al., 2008), the lockdowns remove access to the needed support for their physical and emotional wellbeing.

Thirdly, parents have been forced to take on the extra responsibility of helping and teaching their children at home. In this case, the parents' own capability to effectively provide this support determines the quality of support the students get. As most of the resources as well as teaching is done using the English language of the classroom, language barrier is one factor that contributes to the poor support some parents provide

for their children. The mismatch between subject contents and the background knowledge and experiences of parents also influences the quality of support they can give their children. Moreover, parents' knowledge and skills of modern technology, such as the computers and the internet play a part in how well they respond and cater to the learning needs of their children.

Where to next for Pacific students?
The conversations and observations shared in this article show how the pandemic has added to the anxiety of Pacific students and their parents. This has urged the need to accept and build on opportunities to effectively promote and enhance the response to cater for the diverse learning needs of Pacific students. Rather than a one size fits all recommendation, schools should rely on the best available evidence on which to base their 'where to next' approach for Pacific students. So it is vital for schools and teachers to adapt their educational delivery and promote the inclusion of emerging technologies to make planning, implementation and assessment responsive to the learning needs of Pacific students. Usual classroom activities such as storytelling, reading and writing can be facilitated respectfully in the new digital space (Matapo, 2020).

The COVID-19 crisis has raised awareness to perhaps reassess priorities in terms of topics we plan for and expect students to study in class. What has been highlighted in this pandemic is the need to improve health literacy in more inclusive and student-centred activities. For Pacific students, collaboration can encourage personal reconstruction of knowledge, and to support them with adopting the expected healthy lifestyles. Effective approaches for students' engagement in this subject as well as others may include debates, small working groups, authentic learning activities, storytelling and role playing. It is vital to note also that relating activities to students' own Pacific culture can help them access and understand teaching materials (Galuvao, 2022).

It is clear from the author's conversations with students that they do want to learn. School systems must, therefore, make special efforts to help those Pacific students whose parents are unable to offer support and whose home environments are not conducive to study. So apart from class teaching, teachers should utilize the digital avenue, during lockdowns, as a safe space to effectively convey support for students, especially those who are shy to speak out in class for various reasons. This would help bridge the gap in terms of equity and would also help avoid making students feel isolated and alone in the learning process.

It is important that teachers and schools continue to seek support and look for effective ways to repair the damage and interruptions to Pacific students' learning caused by the pandemic. This may include analysing students' work to determine gaps in their learning, setting up extra support group sessions so students can catch up on their work, and implementing effective teaching strategies to support students. Examples of such strategies include developing English literacy skills to support confidence in academic progress, understanding the work and feeling safe in the school environment. It may

also include providing constant reassurance, communication, and support for the wellbeing of Pacific students, their parents and families.

Some ideas to support Pacific students' literacy include:
- fostering our Pacific learners' enjoyment of reading. This can be supported by:
  1. matching the texts to the learners' interests and abilities;
  2. allowing learners to choose reading materials;
  3. making Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) compulsory and fun for everyone;
  4. connecting reading topics to Pacific learners' current and real-life experiences;
  5. building on learners' interest in digital technology;
  6. providing opportunities for learners to read and respond to texts online;
  7. knowing what makes reading (and learning) difficult and responding appropriately to the identified learning needs (Hay & Wette, 2021).

- engaging Pacific students with texts and reading tasks that develop their reading literacy skills. This can be supported by:
  1. developing fun follow-up reading activities for learners to do, to apply their learnt skills and knowledge of reading strategies, on their own;
  2. using social media in class activities;
  3. making up resources for learners to use to enhance their reading ability and enjoyment. These can include laminated questions to develop learners' thinking skills.

- fostering Pacific students' awareness of effective reading strategies. This can be supported by:
  1. having a list of the reading skills and strategies on the board so learners can see the labels;
  2. explaining and modelling the reading strategies for the learners which can be done using the 'thinking aloud' approach and in small group teaching sessions;
  3. planning interesting follow-up activities for learners to do, to give them the chance to apply their new learning;
  4. providing opportunities for learners to talk and share their understanding of reading strategies;
  5. regularly checking that learners are aware of the strategies they are using to access the information in texts;
  6. giving learners the chance to talk in class about the reading strategies they use to access information and why, which can be done in pairs, groups, or individually.

Teachers working with Pacific students can read more ideas on how to best cater for Pacific students' learning needs in a number of publications. These include Education

Review Office (2022), Galuvao (2022), Hay and Wette (2021), and Ministry of Education (2004).

Conclusion

There is no doubt that COVID-19 has tested academic systems around the world. With the closure of schools, all those involved in educating students are presented with challenges of planning and supporting their online learning. In South Auckland, the pandemic added to the deeply embedded multifaceted dilemma of Pacific students. In addition to learning in isolation, they also experienced major inequities in terms of having limited access to the needed resources, limited knowledge in how to navigate their ways around the use of technology, and limited access to the right support at home.

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THE CASE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH INTO THE IMPACT OF LANGUAGE DIFFICULTIES ON EXCLUSION RATES FOR PACIFIC LEARNERS

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Abstract

Recent research has uncovered a significant correlation between Pacific learners receiving English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) support and being excluded from school in New Zealand (Agnew et al., 2022). This report suggests an opportunity exists to further build on this research through additional research funding aimed at identifying whether causal relationships can be found between innovative ESOL support and reducing rates of school exclusion for Polynesian learners. This is not a criticism of current practice. This approach considers an additional benefit of ESOL support that may not have previously been identified. Ultimately, if additional specific ESOL support is found to reduce the number of school exclusions for Pacific learners, this may have flow on benefits for society that have not previously been considered when determining ESOL funding levels.

Introduction

Previous international research has found that for students at risk of exclusion "language difficulties are a factor in their behaviour problems and school exclusion" (Clegg et al., 2009, p. 123). Research by Ripley and Yuill (2005) drew a similar conclusion that "excluded boys had previously unidentified language problems" (p. 37). Based on these research findings, Ramsey et al. (2018) conclude that there is a strong link between language problems and behavioural difficulties. Part of the process in arriving at that conclusion in the international literature has been the analysis of longitudinal datasets. When analysing the latest Avon longitudinal birth cohort study in the UK, Paget et al. (2018) found language difficulties to be a significant factor associated with higher rates of school exclusion. A related result was found by Strand and Fletcher (2014) when studying data from the longitudinal analysis of school exclusions in England, where the academically lowest attaining children were 15 times more likely to be excluded than the highest academic achievers.

As a first step in building a similar body of research in a New Zealand context, recent research out of the University of Canterbury discovered a significant correlation between Pacific learners receiving ESOL support and being excluded from school (Agnew et al., 2022). This longitudinal study was based on data from the Integrated Data Infrastructure (IDI) dataset, constructed and maintained by StatsNZ. This anonymised data is made available for researchers to conduct research with the aim of improving outcomes for New Zealanders. A cohort of over 43,000 students was analysed from the age of five in 2008 until the end of their compulsory education in

2018. The study is wide ranging, developing econometric models for Māori, Pacific and Pākehā learners. Data was collected from the IDI on a raft of variables that have been found in international literature to be correlated with school exclusion. These included 'family background' variables such as parental criminal charges, parental education, receiving a family benefit, and interaction with Child, Youth and Family (subsequently replaced by Oranga Tamariki). Demographic variables such as ethnicity and gender were included in the models, along with measures of socioeconomic status (SES). The sample was limited to students up to the end of their compulsory education, to avoid the conflation of formal school exclusion and students of school leaving age being 'unofficially' persuaded to leave the school.

One finding was that after allowing for factors such as socioeconomic status, special educational needs (which by definition does not include ESOL support), family background variables and demographic variables including gender, Pacific learners who received ESOL support were more likely to be excluded than Pākehā students. Pacific learners who had not received ESOL support were not more likely to be excluded than Pākehā students. This relationship was not found for other ethnic groupings such as Asian students.

Rates of exclusion for different ethnic groups are widely reported by New Zealand government agencies. There is, however, a paucity of research in a New Zealand context examining any link between the language difficulties of Pacific learners and rates of exclusion. This report aims to encourage the provision of funding for further research evaluating the impact of language difficulties on exclusion rates for Pacific learners. It is worth mentioning that whilst the study above identified correlations between Pacific learners receiving ESOL support and higher risk of school exclusion, it in no way suggests any form of causality. A student receiving ESOL support is likely to be a proxy for language difficulties, a characteristic mentioned in the literature as a predictor of school exclusion, rather than the ESOL support itself increasing the probability of exclusion. Research examining the potential benefit of mitigating higher risk of exclusion for Pacific learners with language difficulties through increasing or improving ESOL provision could have significant benefits for wider society.

Pacific Learners in the New Zealand Context
In New Zealand there are a range of interventions used as a school's reaction to challenging behaviour. The intervention used depends on the age of the student, and the severity of the challenging behaviour. Agnew et al. (2022) used the term exclusion as an all encompassing term to describe a student who has been stood down, suspended, excluded or expelled. It also analysed the data stratifed by grounds for exclusion, with broadly consistent results found. Official statistics show that Pacific learners are over-represented in school exclusion statistics compared to Pākehā.

Table 1:
Age-standardised rates per 1,000 students, by ethnic group (Education Counts, 2021)

	Pākehā learners	Pacific learners
Suspension	3.2	4.6
Stand-down	24.4	34.4
Exclusion	1.1	1.8
Expulsion	1.0	3.4

Shedding more light on these official figures, the 2022 New Zealand study Agnew et al. found that once other predictors of school exclusion identified by the literature were accounted for, statistically significant higher rates of school exclusion between Pākehā and Pacific learners persisted only for Pacific learners with language difficulties. The Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment (MBIE, 2019) found that Pacific youth are overrepresented in statistics for young people not engaged in education, employment or training (NEET). This inequality is a persistent characteristic of the labour market in New Zealand (MBIE, 2019). The Pacific NEET rate for ages 15 to 24 is 19.2% of the total population of 78,600, equating to 15,100 people aged 15-24 years on 1 December 2020 (Ministry for Pacific Peoples, 2021, p. 133). Differences in educational outcomes has been found to be one of a handful of strong predictors of long-term (>6 months) NEET rates, with MBIE suggesting "policies that target improving school engagement" (MBIE, 2019, p. 32) as potentially reducing long-term NEET rates for Pacific youth. A similar, and possibly more effective approach of re-engaging NEET young people may be to lessen the chances of disengagement initially.

Outcomes of School Exclusion
In a summary of the predominantly British literature, Martin-Denham (2020) claims that "school exclusion is associated with adverse consequences for both the child and the society in which they live" and that "exclusion can have long term consequences for young people's life trajectories with damage that is wide-ranging and long-standing" (p.28). She goes on to summarise other research (Daniels & Cole, 2010; Pirrie et al., 2011; Hemphill et al., 2012) describing how in the longer term "school exclusion is associated with mental and physical ill health, substance misuse, antisocial behaviour, crime, low educational attainment, unemployment and homelessness" (Martin-Denham, 2020, p. 28). In summarising, she references the work of Manstead et al. (2014) when stating that "those who experience school exclusion are more likely to be already disadvantaged, and exclusion further reduces life chances" (Martin-Denham, 2020, p.28). NEET youths are one such group with youths with reduced life outcomes. In their publication in the British Journal of Educational Psychology, Madia et al. (2022) report that "school exclusion increased the risk of becoming NEET at the age of 19/20, and then remaining economically inactive at the age of 25/26, as well as experiencing higher unemployment risk and earning lower wages also at the age of 25/26" (p. 1). This led the authors to conclude that policy interventions targetted at preventing school exclusion should also mitigate negative future life outcomes. (Madia et al., 2022). Using the Scottish Longitudinal Study data, Feng et al., (2017) found negative impacts on life

outcomes of being NEET. Young people (aged 16 to 19) who were NEET in 1991 were tracked until 2010. It was found that during this period, being NEET in 1991 was associated with high rates of hospitalisation, poor mental health, and higher rates of mortality. This led the authors to conclude that disengagement from employment and education may lead to long term negative health outcomes, resulting in social and economic costs to society. The authors suggested policy was necessary that helped NEET youth to re-engage in education or employment (Feng et al., 2017), complementing Martin-Denham (2020) who suggests early intervention can result in better trajectories, reduced disengagement, improved childhood mental health and decreasing school exclusions.

Conclusion
Recent New Zealand-based research found a strong correlation between school exclusion and Pacific learners who have received ESOL support. The research was careful to point out findings were correlations rather than causal, and that receiving ESOL support was likely a proxy for language difficulties. This report is not in the mould of deficit research. Rather, this report suggests further qualitative and quantitative research is required to identify ESOL practices which yield the biggest gains in reducing language difficulties for Pacific learners. The aforementioned research is the first large-scale New Zealand longitudinal study to identify ESOL support, a proxy for language difficulties, as significantly correlated with higher rates of school exclusion. Further funding of smaller scale studies examining strategies for mitigating exclusion of Pacific learners experiencing language difficulties is the next obvious step. If additional research funding in the domain of ESOL support were able to reduce the number of school exclusions for Pacific learners, this could have flow on benefits that may not have previously been considered when Government determines ESOL funding levels. The Ministry of Education (2022) justifies providing support to English language learners (ELLs), stating that "ESOL funding allows more intensive support for ELLs in their early years at New Zealand schools". The Ministry goes on to describe how it provides "higher funding for ELLs at secondary school as they need to learn English to function across a wider curriculum with higher language demands" (Ministry of Education, 2022). The justification for this funding is driven by educational goals such as functioning across the curriculum. The benefit of successfully supporting Pacific English language learners and the development of their language schools goes beyond just educational benefits. Having fewer NEET Pacific youth for example would mean better life outcomes for those individuals, as well as lower social costs for society. Fewer students excluded from school, and fewer youth in NEET also lessens strain on social services such as mental health, and would lead to fewer "pervasive negative effects into adulthood" (Madia et al., 2022, p. 1).

In their 2014 study, Purvis et al. suggest that "raising the language profiles of those who may be at risk of future offending may contribute to enhanced academic, social, and vocational opportunities for this group" (p. 225). In a similar vein, an opportunity now

exists for targeted support of a group of students over-represented in rates of school exclusion and at higher risk of being NEET in the future. The first step along this journey is to invest in research funding to establish whether casual relationships can be found between innovative or increased ESOL support and reduced rates of school exclusion for Polynesian learners. If evidence of these relationships can be established, increased funding in the ESOL sector to more accurately reflect the full benefit to society may be justified.

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DEVELOPING EFL RESOURCES FOR
TIBETAN MONASTICS IN INDIA AND NEPAL

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Abstract

Tibetan Buddhist monks and nuns living in India and Nepal have limited opportunities for developing socio-pragmatic discourse competence within their standard school education. Yet, learning the skills to interact in International English contexts is necessary for conversing with visitors to their home countries, when travelling abroad on teaching tours, or living in foreign Buddhist Centres. Acquiring a wider range of vocabulary, increasing linguistic competence, as well as improving listening and reading skills would support monastics to improve their English language proficiency. Therefore, this article identifies some anticipated needs within the monastic EFL learning context, which are based on personal experience as a volunteer teacher. It is followed by outlines for appropriately compiled teaching resources.

Introduction

Many of the monastics who have fled Tibet from the 1950s up until the present day have quietly introduced Tibetan Buddhism all over the world and Dharma Centres now exist in many Western countries. This means monks and nuns are in demand to give Buddhist teachings in the West and student practitioners of Buddhism want to visit the Himalayan countries, where the main monasteries and nunneries are located.

My interest in Buddhism was sparked after attending a public talk given by His Holiness the Dalai Lama in New Zealand in 1996. I did not follow up on this auspicious meeting until I attended a large teaching His Holiness gave in Glasgow in 2004 and, later, from 2009-2010. During this year, I visited monasteries and nunneries in India and Nepal, attended Dharma (Buddhist) teachings, and did some short retreats that introduced me to Buddhist meditation practices. After those experiences I became more committed to studying Buddhist philosophy and practicing the teachings more earnestly. However, to do that, I needed a teacher who was prepared to guide me.

So, between 2011 and 2017 I visited India, Nepal, Malaysia, and Europe to attend teachings; mostly with Gyalwang (His Holiness) Karmapa, His Eminence Sangye Nyenpa Rinpoche and Venerable Thrangu Rinpoche. I also followed the detailed practice advice I received from Lama Assi, a Tibetan lama living in New Zealand. The instructions I received from these masters (both publicly and personally) were given with varying degrees of English fluency or translated from Tibetan into English. At the large teachings I attended, where thousands of students gathered, people with different L1 backgrounds mostly interacted by using International English as the common language. There, monastics often sought opportunities to speak with foreign visitors. The monastic lifestyle is characterised by a commitment to serve, which tends to

increase monks' and nuns' levels of motivation to learn English—they want to be able to offer more help to others.

English language learning context
Many of the monasteries and nunneries in the Himalayan countries accept residents from as young as five years old. Some children are orphans, whilst others' parents are too poor to support them. School subjects complying with mandatory regional and countrywide teaching curriculum requirements are offered alongside studies in Buddhist philosophy. Therefore, monastics study EFL (English as a Foreign Language) as part of their secular education programme gaining basic English language competence, just like all other students in India and Nepal. University studies are also offered in some monasteries, where it is possible to obtain a qualification that has been likened to a PhD in Buddhist philosophy. However, it takes 10-12 years to complete a full-time residential 'Buddhist PhD' programme. If they choose to, monastics can live in their monasteries or nunneries for life.

I spoke to some teachers at one of the monastery schools, who said they were required to follow a prescribed EFL syllabus in books provided by the state education department. Students were generally required to learn grammar rules by rote and complete repetitive gap filling exercises to pass exams. Amongst the monastics I spoke with, EFL proficiency levels seemed to vary greatly and were augmented by personal motivation, opportunities to interact with visitors in English (e.g., sponsors, guests) and the availability of Internet access.

Whilst intermittently staying in monastery guesthouses for more than a decade, I was fortunate enough to give some regular EFL classes to several monastics, in a voluntary capacity. However, I found that beyond the materials supplied for the state school curriculum, there were no accessible resources compiled for long- or short-term volunteers who want to assist monastics to improve their English. This meant sincerely motivated but often largely inexperienced volunteers, like me, offered help mostly on an ad-hoc basis. Based on my experience, this article provides a proposal that could assist volunteers and others teaching EFL to monastics.

Analysis of monastic EFL Learning Environments
In addition to learning English at home (in India and Nepal), many monks and some nuns (of all ages and proficiency levels) travel to Western countries, whilst accompanying high Lamas, such as His Holiness (Gyalwang) Karmapa, or other well-known Rinpoches on their teaching tours. Sometimes, monks are also requested to live at (Western) Buddhist Centres as resident lamas (teachers) for longer periods of time. In this formal role they will typically be required to conduct meditation sessions and perhaps give teachings. For the most part they are welcomed and respected; Western students will ask for instruction in Buddhist meditation practice and may also seek personal advice.

There are many limitations within the Dharma world that need to be acknowledged to make realistic EFL learning suggestions, including time constraints and low-economic status. In addition, monastics may have limited access to a range of teaching resources including printing and computer facilities. Internet access might be unstable or non-existent. One benefit for monastics is the opportunity to interact with foreign visitors, especially if their monastery or nunnery has a guesthouse for tourists or accommodation facilities for pilgrims. International English is widely used to converse with these visitors, who may be Westerners or come from other Asian countries. However, visiting guests may not speak English fluently and might be insufficiently experienced, as I was, to be able to offer truly skillful EFL help.

When monastics travel abroad, they often arrive in countries where they need to speak English immediately to communicate their basic needs. On the one hand, this is a great learning opportunity but, on the other hand, it can be very stressful if they are not adequately prepared. For instance, monks may need to buy a meal or consult with healthcare professionals. When speakers bring norms from L1 into L2, this may lead to problems in speech acts (i.e., greetings, requests, and apologies) according to studies such as Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006). They also claim that accepted societal norms are "learned though socialization in daily life" (Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006, p. 55). Gilmore (2004, p. 371) modifies this by stating, "[learners] must be shown the true nature of conversation". However, although some researchers (Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006; Gilmore, 2004) question whether it would be possible to pre-learn the pragmatic skills of English language interactions for specific contexts, others suggest how this is feasible through appropriately designed EFL resources (Cots, 2006; Wong, 2002).

Thus, I believe better-resourced voluntary (or resident) English teachers could assist monks and nuns to prepare for the learning opportunities they will be presented with when travelling. In addition, providing EFL resources to Dharma Centres in Western countries would help equip hosts to support monastics when they arrive and scaffold the development of confident spoken interactions. This would enable monastics to competently engage in in all aspects of life at a foreign Dharma Centre, whilst they continue to deepen their EFL studies.

The following is a list of situational contexts I have compiled, where monastics may encounter EFL conversations. This is divided into two sections: encounters in their home country (India or Nepal) and whilst visiting foreign Dharma Centres abroad. This is only a basic needs analysis, which Long (2005) states is necessary, to make informed decisions about the goals and content to be included in a course. A more comprehensive survey "analysing written and spoken texts from the context in which language and discourse features are used" (Dykstra-de Jonge & Macalister, 2021, p. 71) would be advisable.

EFL contexts in monastic's home countries

During interactions with tourists, visiting pilgrims and sponsors, monastics may be required to: answer general questions, provide information and directions, make suggestions, or suggest recommendations. More senior monastics may also be expected to deliver semi-formal welcoming speeches and conduct Buddhist teachings for visitors in English. This typically includes answering philosophical questions and giving additional individual advice. Monastics with higher levels of English language proficiency might have to translate from Tibetan into English.

EFL contexts when monastics travel abroad

Some of the situations monastics need to deal with, in addition to those listed above are: dealing with daily life encounters in a new country, asking for help (directions, service encounters), responding appropriately to typical requests, politely initiating and participating actively in conversations (in both social and formal settings), formal welcoming and thank you speeches to participants and sponsors, conducting instructional teachings and leading sessions on specific topics (teaching a particular practice from traditional Dharma texts), offering help or guidance by giving advice in response to queries related to personal issues.

Suggestions for EFL teaching and learning resources for Himalayan monks and nuns based on literature research and studies

The development of authentic spoken discourse resources is a priority for obtaining socio-pragmatic competence. As stated above, this is best obtained through authentic interaction, preferably with native or fluent speakers. Several researchers concur that conversations scripted for textbooks are either inaccurate (Keck & Kim, 2014) or artificial (Kasper & Wagner, 2014; Gilmore, 2004; Nguyen 2011). This is primarily because they do not contain the authentic features of natural conversational dialogue e.g., "turn taking, false starts, repetition, pauses, terminal overlap, latching, hesitation devices, back channels" (Gilmore, 2004, pp. 368-369). Therefore, appropriately written scaffolding would need to take this into account.

For instance, fulfilling an overarching course goal such as 'competently using the polite forms of conversational English' would enable monks and nuns to gain practice in being able to initiate interactions. It would also guide them in how to formulate responses to some typical requests they may encounter on teaching tours, or when residing in Western countries. A good starting point could be existing resources, such as Nation and Crabbe's (1991) Survival English Syllabus, which is authentic material derived from extensive interview data and not based on inaccurate native speaker intuition (Nguyen, 2011; Keck & Kim, 2014).

I will now provide a few examples of some discourse resources I have prepared. However, because they are only a starting point, they would all require further

refinement. Ideally, these examples could be further expanded with material sourced from corpora (e.g., COCA, BNC) such as the inclusion of concordance lines and collocations (Boulton, 2008). Alternatively, they could also incorporate material from annotated transcripts of authentic dialogues and real-world discourses.

Giving Travel Advice is a category of socio-pragmatic skills that would immediately help monastics to practice EFL skills by developing the confidence to engage in authentic conversations with foreign visitors in India and Nepal. For example: Where do you want to go? I recommend...When do you want to go there? Why don't you...It's best to take a taxi to the central bus station.

A topic on *Essential Polite Questions* would need to include how to greet people (Hello. How are you? Excuse me), apologies (I'm sorry, I don't know. I'm sorry, I can't help you with that), refusals (No, thank you. I don't need any help right now), and conversation endings (Thank you so much. Have a nice or a pleasant day. Goodbye).

Question formation is a graduated skill that is often challenging for ELL (English Language Learners) to acquire. Therefore, I have formulated a class plan based on Gyalwang Karmapa's (2009) TED Talk incorporating question prompts. *TED Talks* can be used to meet a variety of EFL learning targets and several studies have examined the usefulness of TED Talks for EAP (English for Academic Purposes) learners at high-intermediate level (and above). They looked at whether authentic materials (within a manageable vocabulary load) could enhance vocabulary uptake and improve listening comprehension. Nurmukhamedov (2017) found using captions and transcripts aided comprehension and Liu and Chen (2019) recommended the pre-teaching of proper nouns and acronyms, accompanied with repetitive viewing. In Coxhead and Walls' (2012) study, they advocated accessing scaffolding directly from the TED website e.g., visuals, translations, subtitles, glosses, and transcripts.

Gyalwang Karmapa's talk would generate a high level of interest for monastics, thus optimising student engagement (Nation, 2013). Firstly, focusing on Gyalwang Karmapa's speech in L1 (Tibetan) would provide scaffolding to assist with English comprehension. Then, watching the TED Talk with the English captions could help make word associations between Tibetan and English. Finally, monastics could focus on listening to the interpreter speaking English whilst reading the English captions or a printed transcript. The value of this sequencing is confirmed in a study by Majuddin et al. (2021) who found the groups who used captions whilst watching audio-visual material, attained higher comprehension levels. By initially establishing a stronger connection to the aural material, incidental learning and revision could occur if students were able to apply L1 to L2 transference to connect the written and spoken forms with their meanings.

Monastics could begin their conversational skills practice by asking each other *wh-questions* in the present and simple past tenses. I am only able to offer a small selection

of examples due to space limitations. The *Comprehension Question* examples (below) are designed to assess listening and reading skills:

1. When did HH Karmapa live in Tibet? (Paragraph 4 in the transcript)
2. How did it feel for HH to suddenly leave home? (Paragraph 4)
3. What responsibilities did HH Karmapa talk about? (Paragraph 5)
4. Does HH Karmapa think it's easy for people to connect? (Paragraph 9)
5. Did HH Karmapa think it was beneficial (a good idea) to have taken part in the conference? (Paragraph 16)

In the second part of the proposed lesson, monastics are extended further by having to give personal replies involving genuine interactions. These short exchanges could be developed into role-plays, which Holmes and Riddiford (2011) used successfully in an EFL programme preparing immigrants for the workplace. Specifically, they found that role-plays helped develop the socio-pragmatic interaction required for the high-stakes speech acts of making requests. Within the monastic context, some of the conversational discourse scenarios in the *wh-* questions could be expanded into realistic role-plays e.g., one partner asks for advice because a close family member or pet has died; then the other monastics could discuss ways in which they might appropriately reply. Newton and Nation (2021) favour interactive exchanges like this, stating that peer-assisted listening and speaking leads to greater interactive learning, enhanced lexico-grammatical uptake and can also contribute to the development of fluency. In addition, this section of the lesson would engage monastics in fluency development by using the vocabulary and multiword phrases they have heard (and read in the captions or transcript) in Gyalwang Karmapa's talk. The more advanced *Comprehension Question* examples (below) are designed for practicing spoken English and developing the ability to give authentic and spontaneous responses to question prompts.

1. How do you keep in touch with your family? (Paragraph 7 – transcript)
2. What are some of the difficulties that might prevent people from connecting with each other in a genuine way? (Paragraph 8)
3. Why is motivation so important in Buddhism? (Paragraph 14)
4. What do you say to others when you're feeling nervous about something you have to do? What do you do when you're feeling nervous? (Paragraph 17)

Whilst responding to questions, scaffolding could be offered through the TED Talk transcript, because accessing the target lexico-grammar whilst engaging in the guided practice questions would gradually build competence in initiating questions. By working in pairs or small groups to answer these questions, monastics would need to employ negotiation skills to find or give appropriate answers. Thornbury describes this process as, "meaning [constructed] out of genuine communication breakdowns" (2005, p, 34). This refers to the times when conversation partners are not sure how to construct a response, so they must collaboratively solve such communication breakdowns. Thus, collaborative lessons can be seen as a means of engendering maximum student participation and interactive negotiation, which is required to solve any communication

issues that arise (Fernández Dobao, 2014).

A creative approach is needed to get around many of the limitations within the dharma world. These largely relate to a lack of financial resources to take advantage of the benefits of more technologically based education progammes. However, many adult monastics own, or have access to, mobile phones that can be used advantageously in English language learning e.g., podcasts and language-learning apps can be easily downloaded. Therefore, guidance on how to choose online listening materials would provide an ideal way for monastics to gain access to listening practice. As mentioned earlier this requires Internet access, or mobile coverage with sufficient data.

Developing follow-up EFL exercises for listening (or reading) needs to be done with awareness. Siegel (2014) cautions against the over-preponderate use of comprehension questions often found in traditional textbooks. Another alternative would be listening to conversational dialogue whilst shadowing i.e., "simultaneously replicating what [one] hears without [reading a] written script" (Hamada, 2019, p 387). This technique is based on the methods used to train interpreters. Monastics are familiar with both simultaneous and delayed translation, which is used at live teaching events, as well as for conducting interviews with Western student practitioners. Studies have shown shadowing contributes to fluency development (Murphey, 2001; Zajdler, 2020).

Listening MFI (meaning focused input) and speaking MFO (meaning focused output) are inextricably linked, and it is important for any well-balanced teaching programme to be constructed in line with Nation and Yamamoto's (2012) Four Strands recommendations, as well as including other research-based evidence. Therefore, I have adapted some practical exercises for monastics from Nation and Macalister, 2021; Newton and Nation, 2021; and Palmer, 1982. The following three selected examples illustrate how voluntary (or residential) English teachers could scaffold the development of listening and speaking skills for monastics.

Information transfer activities
a) Filling out timetables for airports, trains, and buses.
b) Writing down shopping lists for food including items that may be required for conducting rituals and making offerings.
c) When listening to other monastic's presentations (where they come from, family, etcetera), monastics could fill out a family tree diagram, a table or make notes. As a speaking extension exercise, which would also function as a listening comprehension, they could present or introduce their partner to a larger group.
d) Prepare Spot-the-Differences worksheets by choosing locations to meet essential vocabulary needs e.g., different rooms in a house, a garden, inside a temple, inside or outside a railway or bus station and airport.

Listening to stories and anecdotes from the life stories of the lineage masters
If the animal stories from the 'Jataka Tales' (the original source of Aesop's Fables) were written as different level graded readers, they could be used for both extensive reading

and, with recordings, for extensive listening. Instigating reading and listening logs provides motivational feedback to students.

4/3/2

First, students choose an interesting topic e.g., the Jataka Tales, or anecdotes and personal stories from the lives of the lineage masters. Students prepare a talk lasting four minutes and each time they subsequently present it to a different partner it is decreased to three minutes, then two minutes. An alternative is the Pyramid procedure (Newton & Nation, 2021), which also supports confidence building by providing the opportunity to practice with a changing audience. Here, the learners prepare a talk, practice it with a partner—and get feedback—before rehearsing it with a group of three or four students, and finally present it to the whole class. To provide variety, speaking topics can be drawn from a hat.

Monastics bring several beneficial skills to EFL learning and many are fluent in at least two languages (Tibetan and Hindi or Nepali). They have high levels of competence in memorisation, logical reasoning and debating. All these inherent skills are developed within their Buddhist studies programmes and can be successfully applied to language learning. Generally, they are highly motivated learners who do not require any extra encouragement. Most monastics diligently take responsibility for their learning (this is a cornerstone of Buddhist philosophy); therefore, they are often proactive in seeking the EFL help they need. In summary, as I have highlighted previously, engaging with foreign visitors is realistically one of the best opportunities monastics have for practicing English conversational skills.

Future research implications for effective course design

This article is a proposed syllabus aimed at creating a balanced EFL programme based on Nation's Four Strands approach (Nation, 2007; Nation & Yamamoto, 2012). However, this programme would probably be more weighted to MFI and MFO in listening and speaking rather than in reading and writing. It would also most likely have a reduced focus on LFL (language focused learning), favouring MFI and MFO.

I have considered some of the emergent needs and constraints in the EFL learning context for monastics. However, it would be necessary to investigate three key focus areas—necessities, lacks, and wants—more extensively. Therefore, course topic weightings could not be finalised until a needs assessment had been conducted. Long (2005) advises this should be performed for any learning context to make informed decisions about what to include in the syllabus.

For this reason, I recommend conducting a small-scale ethnographic research study to acquire a more accurate picture of the learning context from the perspective of monastics. These results could then be compared with data collection via interviews aimed at identifying the necessities, lacks, and wants from the perspective of the foreign

Dharma Centre hosts and voluntary (or residential) teachers. If resources were appropriately designed to adequately meet both sets of expectations, they could assist monks and nuns to increase their socio-pragmatic proficiency in conversational discourse, to acquire a wider range of vocabulary, to increase linguistic competence, and to improve listening and reading skills. Some of the topics I have already mentioned would need to be included: greetings, initiating conversations, making requests, responding to requests, apologising, giving and requesting information, saying thank you, and ending conversations.

There are two angles that would need to be monitored as part of monitoring and assessment in the context I have been discussing throughout this article. The first would include evaluating whether the resources provided sufficient support for voluntary (or residential) teachers or hosts and, secondly, to assess outcomes. Did the monks and nuns experience any (visible) improvements in the targeted discourse skills? Did they increase their English language proficiency overall?

Conclusion

In this article I have reflected on the time I spent as a voluntary EFL teacher in Buddhist monasteries in India and Nepal and related that to some academic research articles. My conclusion is that, generally-speaking, any standard school education would be insufficient to prepare monastics to engage confidently and competently with English speakers in a wide variety of settings. This becomes even more challenging when monastics are asked to travel or live abroad.

Therefore, I have made some suggestions for developing resources based on authentic material that teachers could use to build EFL competence: 1) TED Talks to scaffold grammar acquisition through listening and speaking exercises, which utilise question prompts. 2) Intensive reading of transcripts and subtitles; to boost vocabulary acquisition. 3) Improving listening skills with the use of podcasts and mobile phone apps. 4) Enhancing fluency through shadowing.

Future EFL resources for monastics would benefit from inclusion of the language-learning exercises listed above. Making such teaching resources available for use by voluntary (or residential) teachers, as well as by hosts in foreign Dharma Centres, would provide more support for Himalayan monks and nuns to achieve greater EFL proficiency. A well-balanced EFL programme would provide better opportunities for monastics to prepare for interactions with foreigners, either in their home countries or abroad and whenever they use International English as their means of communication.

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REVIEWS

Plonsky, L. (Ed.) (2020). *Professional Development in Applied Linguistics: A Guide to Success for Graduate Students and Early Career Faculty.* **John Benjamins Publishing Company. ISBN: 978-90-272-0712-8 (pbk.), 204 pp.**

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

Suggestions for professional development have had attention from a number of writers. Richards' and Farrell's (2005) recommendations range from workshop attendance to doing one's own action research, while two other recent titles listed in the references focus on development through becoming mentors or trainers. Plonsky's intended readership includes "graduate students and early career faculty" as explained in the sub-title.

The editor's opening chapter explains his driving motivation for the book as frustration "that not everyone has access to the basics of professional development in our field" (p.6). The thirteen chapters, some co-written, bring together ideas from 21 writers, most based at American universities, but with half a dozen others as well.

One advantage of an edited book is that readers can select specific chapters of interest. For postgraduate students, Chapter 2 starts with choosing a programme, applying and getting accepted, while Chapter 3 has key questions and answers for "Navigating graduate school and academia". Here it was interesting to see the sub-heading "choosing an advisor" (p. 22) since experience suggests that often the process is the other way round. John Bitchener's Chapter 6 has the optimistic title "Towards the successful completion of a doctoral thesis". For the next step, Chapter 7 has advice on "Navigating the academic job market", then for tenure and promotion Chapter 13 has an encouraging footnote: "Don't worry (too much) about whether you'll get tenure, because you probably will." Chapter 11 goes a step further with ten hints on being a supervisor, but with some advice too for students on how "to maintain a good relationship with their supervisor" (p. 161).

Engagement with professional organisations has two chapters: conference attendance in Chapter 4, and wider engagement in Chapter 10 where Heidi Byrnes refers to her own experiences with five professional organisations in a range of roles including serving on an advisory committee for a German language test. By Chapter 12 Deborah Tannen deals with writing and speaking for general, rather than academic audiences. Anyone asked to be a reviewer for academic journals will want to read Chapter 9, although this does not include writing book reviews which are part of most professional journals.

A number of features make this collection readable and informative. One is the personal nature of the writers' advice. For example, in Chapter 5 short essays by six applied

linguists are combined under the heading "Towards achieving work-life balance in academia". Contributors mention how easy it is for family life to suffer when pursuing academic goals. For Shawn Loewen one answer was to stop going into the office at weekends while Rhonda Oliver found that timetabling was the answer, although this "does require a degree of discipline" (p. 59). In Chapter 4, "Making the most of your applied linguistics conference experience" by Peter De Costa, there is a subtitle "Things to do before, during and after the event". He writes as if he were speaking to the reader directly, as in "I encourage you" (p. 41) and "you may want to" (p. 43).

Another feature of the book is the occasional humorous graphic from a range of sources. In Chapter 3 on navigating graduate school and academia, two parallel pictures illustrate how a conference presentation may end, one satisfactorily, the other not. Rebecca Sachs in Chapter 9 on "Reviewing manuscripts for academic journals" has three graphics, including one that shows someone's feelings when having a piece of writing rejected. An unhappy person sits beside a list of ten stages, from "Revise" to "Silence" (p.130).

Illustrating general advice are the realistic examples, often from the writers' experiences. In Chapter 8 on "Handling interpersonal departmental dynamics", many readers will share Bryan Smith's cringing example of "shoot[ing] off emails when you are miffed at a colleague" (p. 111). Two writers make parallels with other professions, starting with the editor's encounter with a physiotherapist, and Jean-Marc Dewaele's Chapter 11 opening anecdote of a musician and his mentor.

Hopefully the editor's initial frustration has now been satisfied by this book which is worth recommending to people at various stages of their academic careers.

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Reviewed by Sara Cotterall, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand

Helen Spencer-Oatey's and Dániel Kádár's recent book focuses on how people manage relationships when communicating across different kinds of group boundaries—national, linguistic or ethnic—and how (im)politeness is expressed. In our increasingly globalised world, they argue, being able to manage interpersonal relationships successfully is an essential skill. The authors state therefore that their book is aimed at a wide audience: academics and graduate students, professionals working in intercultural contexts, and anyone whose family members, neighbours or friends come from different cultural backgrounds. However, given the scholarly nature of their approach, including the third group may be ambitious.

Both authors have had rich first-hand experience of intercultural communication, as well as many years of research experience. Helen Spencer-Oatey (who was born in England and is currently Professor of Applied Linguistics at the University of Warwick), reports first encountering culture shock while living with Americans in Austria. Her academic study of culture began with her learning Chinese in Hong Kong, and continued when she moved to Shanghai, where she lived and taught for seven years. Dániel Kádár (who was born in Hungary and is currently Professor at the Dalian University of Foreign Languages in China), first experienced culture shock as a foreign exchange student in China. Having also lived and taught in the UK, Kádár now "commutes" between China and Hungary. The book also benefits from the authors' fresh interdisciplinary approach, drawing on insights from intercultural communication, applied linguistics and cross-cultural psychology.

The book is organised into four sections, beginning with a discussion of the two central concepts of *politeness* and *culture*. Section Two focuses on the process of evaluating politeness. This process is first explained, and then illustrated with "experiential examples". The next section considers behaviours associated with *performing* or *managing* politeness across cultures and is illustrated by data gathered from a wide range of sources including Kádár's 'Hungarians in London Project'. The final section considers the implications for future research and for intercultural communication training.

The book's very detailed index makes it easy to locate specific concepts, researchers, countries, projects (the *Wellington Language in the Workplace Project* is referenced) and contexts of encounter (Facebook). In addition, most chapters end with discussion questions, either drawing on the book's transcripts of intercultural encounters or

encouraging participants to discuss their own. This feature, in particular, makes the book suitable for use on a graduate course.

Having worked in the field of intercultural communication training, I found the authors' discussion of Hofstede's much-cited (1991) research on cultural difference particularly interesting. While they acknowledge the potential usefulness of learning about cultural values identified in national-level survey data, they signal two associated problems. First, the authors warn that national-level data cannot be assumed to apply to individuals, as Hofstede (2001) has acknowledged. Second, they emphasise that there is no direct link between values and behaviour; as the book illustrates, numerous contextual and interactional variables intervene in any behavioural performance of cultural values. Instead, the authors suggest that intercultural training should focus on two things: Mindfulness—being open to new or different ways of communicating; and Accommodation – gaining insights into other participants' communication patterns and preferences. Intercultural trainers, they advise, should introduce key aspects of cultural difference by presenting actual examples of communication in action.

The book is a fascinating read, if not always an easy one.

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Knoblock, Natalia (Ed.) (2022). *The Grammar of Hate: Morphosyntactic Features of Hateful, Aggressive and Dehumanizing Discourse.* **Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978 1 108 83413 (hbk) xv + 293 pp**

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

Just when we might have thought that applied linguists were running out of fresh topics, the title of a new book reminds us of how much is still left to be explored. As mentioned in this book, the vocabulary of hate has been examined elsewhere, but its grammar is analysed here for the first time. It could be interesting, before dipping into the book, for readers to ask themselves what questions they expect this book to answer. Here are a couple that came to my mind. To what groups of people is hate most commonly directed in private and public exchanges? Are there similarities in how hate is expressed in different languages? Then it is time to open the book and see what the thirteen case studies have to tell us. Contributions are from a range of countries and draw on many languages: Modern Greek, Czech, Danish, German and, of course, English.

Where to start? New Zealand readers might dive first into Chapter 11, since it examines the document *The Great Replacement* which was posted on the Internet by the Christchurch mosque shooter. Many will already be familiar with his message, which included references to events in other parts of the world where, the writer believed, people of 'other ethnic backgrounds' were spurring people on to do unpleasant deeds. Bianchi, the writer of this chapter, has examined the language of the posting in immense detail, as shown by figures of concordance lines showing the use of words like 'destroy' and 'rage'. It is a sobering chapter.

Sometimes a title grabs one's attention. An example could be Chapter 8 "The Power of a pronoun" by Linda Flores Ohlson from the University of Gothenburg. She writes about code-switching in contemporary Spanish and English music lyrics. The content made me look forward to seeing the studies she has been working on since this one, with zombies, vampires, fairies and trolls as referents. Another eye-catching title is "The neutering neuter" in Chapter 6 by two German academics. (Incidentally, the surname of one of them is spelled differently in different parts of the book.) The subtitle explains the focus, which is dehumanization. There are some fascinating examples of the way prominent women are described. Why only women? As they say, they "could find close to no example for neuter gender being used in reference to men" (pp127-8). Another attention-grabbing title appears in Chapter 12 co-authored by three linguists. The opening words of the title, "I'm no racist but…", is a phrase which, sadly, usually prefaces some negative comments.

Some readers will have an interest in a particular aspect of language, such as slang, the topic dealt with in Chapter 2 by an Italian academic, Elisa Mattiello. In her introduction she ponders on the difference between slang as a means of sociability and "as a means of social exclusion" (p. 34). Her particular interest is the use of the suffix '-o' as in pinko, weirdo and stinko. As she points out, not all terms with the suffix -o are derogatory.

Another reason for turning to a particular chapter could be that it deals with a context that is currently making headlines. In Chapter 1, Natalia Knoblock, this book's editor, addresses "Animacy and countability of slurs: Shifting grammatical categories" with the Ukraine as the setting, although a footnote makes it clear that the chapter was written before "the Russian aggression against Ukraine" (p. 15). Examples are in both the Ukrainian and Russian languages. We learn words that are used in that country as slurs for Russians. Who would have thought that comparing people with plants or fibre would be insulting? Since the author is one of the co-editors of the *Journal of Language and Discrimination, readers could t*urn to that journal for more on the topic. In Chapter 7, the Ukrainian language is once more under the microscope, this time with Knoblock and a co-writer, Yuroslava Sazonova. The title pulls no punches: "Neutering unpopular politicians". We are told that the neuter gender and "It" are the dehumanising metaphors in reference to President Zelensky. (For a more balanced picture of that president, refer to his recent biography by Urban and McLeod, 2022).

To what extent should the grammar of hate be addressed in language classes? Unlike the more cheerfully titled book *Bridging the humor barrier,* which has suggestions for including humour in lessons, the writers of this book do not have language classes as their main focus. Perhaps a book is waiting to be written on how language teachers should deal with the language of hate. Should students be shown how to recognise it, even if teachers stop short of giving them practice in using it?

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Twelve years on from the first edition, this popular introduction to teaching listening and speaking has received a satisfying update and expansion. Alongside a companion volume on reading and writing (Nation & Macalister, 2021), it is designed for both experienced and novice teachers, and is suitable for use on teacher training programs and masters-level applied linguistics courses. For researchers interested in pedagogical innovation, it may also provide a useful overview of a range of ideas in mainstream practice.

Rather than a general survey of the literature, it aims to present a clear, contemporary guide to teaching effectively. Each of the main chapters introduces key theoretical principles, summarizes relevant research, and provides clear guidance for putting these ideas into practice. Compared to books covering roughly similar territory, such as Nunan (2015) and Thornbury (2005), there is greater emphasis on connecting to the research literature (over 400 works are cited). Of course, many reasonable assumptions about teaching have never been tested empirically, and the authors contribute much from their own considerable experience to fill in the gaps. This seems true, for example, of the book's central idea that general language courses should give similar weight to 'the four strands' of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, fluency practice, and explicit study of language (e.g., grammar exercises). While this probably remains up for debate, it strikes me as the worthiest default position.

The first of the 12 chapters introduces the principles behind the four strands of language programs. The second focuses on teaching both skills to beginner-level students. Chapters 3-5 focus on aspects of listening: a general introduction, extensive listening, and variations on dictation. Chapter 6 focuses on pronunciation, Chapter 7 on task-based interaction (listening and speaking), and Chapter 8 on the 'pushed output' of productive use. The final four chapters cover the use of course books, explicit teaching, fluency development, and assessing progress.

For those familiar with the 1st edition, there will be particular interest in the two new chapters, Extensive Listening (Chapter 4) and Teaching Using a Course Book (Chapter 9). Extensive listening was entirely absent from the first edition but has been widely adopted in recent years and so is a valuable addition. The main thrust of the chapter is the importance of providing sufficient support for listening texts to be comprehensible. The evidence is weighed for options including the use of the audio versions of graded

readers, breaking listening texts down into short sections, the benefit of multimedia viewing, the use of movie subtitles, the vocabulary load of children's movies, and slowing the playback speed.

The main argument of Chapter 9 is that coursebooks need to be supplemented with further materials and activities, since they cannot provide the required volume of language repetition, extensive listening, and opportunities for fluency development. The authors consider ways to exploit coursebook texts and how to supplement them in and beyond the classroom. They stress the importance of repetition and provide an interesting and varied range of techniques for each of the four skills.

All told, with the new chapters and the updated discussions, the new edition is nearly 80 pages longer than the first. Chapters now conclude with a small number of tasks suitable for teacher trainee classes and brief suggestions for further reading. A new appendix includes a few (reformatted) sample pages from Riddiford and Newton's (2010) excellent pragmatics-themed textbook. Out of interest, I picked one chapter (Ch. 3, Listening) for a line-by-line comparison between the editions. I found no changes at all in the authors' position on any of the topics, though some points have been clarified and there were a few minor improvements to wording. The only notable additions were a substantial expansion of the section on listening strategies (from half a page to 1 ½ pages), and smaller changes to two sections dealing with notetaking. Listening strategy training, of course, has become an influential and somewhat controversial development in recent years and so is another welcome addition.

In short, the book provides a highly accessible teaching guide based on the major trends, default hypotheses and most widely accepted teaching practices. While some intriguing contemporary developments have been omitted (e.g., conversation analysis informed pedagogy of Wong & Waring, 2021), the authors offer a convincing and appealing work that occupies a broad mainstream position on effective listening and speaking pedagogy.

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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 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.

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