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EDITORIAL

This year marks a change in the *TESOLANZ Journal* to a digital format rather than a paper edition. This change is motivated by a desire to move to a more sustainable format as well as to align with other journals in our field.

The three articles in the 2024 issue of the journal will be of interest to both ESOL teachers and language teaching researchers. Thy Phan's article reports on a needs analysis for migrant care workers to communicate and interact culturally appropriately in New Zealand aged care contexts. Data include semi-structured interviews with a nursing manager, two healthcare assistants and three residents of an aged-care facility. The needs analysis revealed the importance of care workers' relational talk in daily care interactions to build positive and trusting relationships with the elderly New Zealanders. The findings were used to develop teaching materials for a group of migrant aged-care workers in New Zealand.

Naheen Madarbakus-Ring's study investigates the listening resource preferences of learners, their attitudes, and approaches to listening difficulties related to their resource choices. Sixty-three learners were given a listening survey to find out what their preferences were, their attitudes towards listening, and how they approached their listening. Twenty learners then participated in focus groups to find out more about their survey selections. Naheen found that learners enjoy both factual and entertainment resources and find audio and audio-visual listening as useful and necessary for their listening. Learners reported that unfamiliar topics are difficult when listening. Although learners found activities, practices, and materials useful when listening, they need further support in building their strategy awareness to use them effectively.

Loc Nguyen's article explores Vietnamese secondary EFL teachers' pronunciation teaching and the extent to which teacher education in Vietnam prepares trainee teachers to teach English pronunciation. The data he collected included a questionnaire, academic transcripts, and individual semi-structured interviews with the teachers. His study found that the teachers were insufficiently trained to teach English pronunciation and that their pronunciation teaching took place mainly in the form of listen-and-repeat activities and error correction due to several contextual factors.

Book reviews by Rebecca Vane (Nation and Coxhead's *Measuring Native-Speaker Vocabulary Size*), Jonathon Ryan (Planchenault and Poljak's *Pragmatics of accents*), Sue Edwards (Lee's *Informal digital learning of English: Research to practice*) and Patrick Coleman (Sánchez Fajardo's *Pejorative suffixes and combining forms in English*) complete the issue. Our thanks to all contributors to the 2023 issue, as well as to the reviewers.

This will be Jean Parkinson's final year as editor of the *TESOLANZ Journal*. From 2024 the journal will be in the very capable hands of Oliver Ballance from Massey University. Oliver has extensive experience of teaching English, in New Zealand, the UK, and China, and his research interests are centered around effective teaching, learning and assessment. His expertise and experience in TESOL and in publishing and research make him an ideal editor for the journal.

Jean Parkinson

Oliver Ballance

December 2023

ARTICLES

ENGLISH FOR MIGRANT AGED-CARE WORKERS IN NEW ZEALAND

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Abstract

The proportion of New Zealanders in need of aged care is growing, leading to an increasing need for aged-care workers. Many aged-care workers in New Zealand are migrants who do not share the cultural backgrounds of the elderly New Zealanders they care for. Learning and understanding how to communicate with elderly New Zealanders with different cultural backgrounds from themselves is, thus, important for migrant care workers. This article describes a needs analysis, and the development of teaching materials to help migrant aged-care workers develop an awareness of person-centred and culturally appropriate communication in English in New Zealand. Semi-structured interviews with a nursing manager, two healthcare assistants and three elderly residents were used to investigate communication in aged care settings in New Zealand. Results of the needs analysis revealed the importance of care workers' relational talk in daily care interaction to build positive and trusting relationships with elderly New Zealanders. These findings were used to develop teaching materials for a group of migrant aged-care workers. Each lesson included five instructional activities: providing input, raising awareness, explicit explanation, communicative practice, and receiving feedback. Evaluation of the lesson by the care workers highlighted a need to allow time for reflection, practice and social interaction.

Introduction

The growing elderly population in New Zealand is expected to increase over the next few decades due to longer life expectancy (New Zealand Immigration, n.d.). Recruiting and retaining care workers in the aged care sector has long been a challenge in New Zealand (New Zealand Human Rights Commission, 2012). As a result, the New Zealand aged care sector has to rely on migrant aged-care workers to avoid further crisis (Catherall, 2021).

Care worker positions are entry roles and do not require formal qualifications prior to recruitment. However, while on the job, the workers are expected to train and gain the New Zealand Certificate in Health and Wellbeing (Careerforce, n.d.). There is no specific English language requirement for care workers, and many migrants working in the aged care sector speak English as an additional language (Harrison et al., 2020). Although their English proficiency levels meet the screening process, the culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds of migrant aged-care workers require them to learn and understand culturally appropriate ways of interacting and communicating when providing care to the elderly in New Zealand. This ensures the services provided are person-centred (Bennett et al., 2020) and that they support the care recipients' independence and quality of life (Ministry of Health, 2019, p. 18).

The initial motivation for this research derived from my interest and observations as a volunteer in a retirement village in Wellington. As an ESOL teacher, I offer support to some migrant care workers who wish to upskill their communication in their own time. I also offer support to a number of residents through various activities such as doing chores, playing cards, cooking, and gardening. These opportunities allow me to develop connections, observe communication and interactions, and gain insights into the aged care sector. From my observations, migrant care workers consciously endeavour to fit into a new workplace context, which involves adapting to New Zealanders' cultures and their sociolinguistic and communicative norms. However, they are sometimes unaware of the differences between their own cultures and communication and New Zealanders' cultures and communication. These differences may result in the perception of rudeness and may cause miscommunication (Mackey et al., 2022).

A second motivation for the study was the finding from Marsden and Holmes (2014), one of very few studies that have investigated this specific area of communication in New Zealand. Marsden and Holmes (2014) note that caregiver-and-elderly interactions are not mainly task-based, but include a relational dimension. That is why I was interested to explore this area further.

Literature review

Marsden and Holmes (2014) note that research on care-worker-and-elderly-resident daily interactions has been neglected. The majority of existing analysis is on nurse-and-patient care. Early studies examined nurse-patient interaction and communication from the health care perspective and found that this interaction was predominately task-based and the communication was largely controlling and domineering (Wells, 1975). One common theme observed in early studies was the use of elderspeak, which shared features with baby talk in aged care facilities (Makoni & Grainger, 2002; Bryant & Barrett, 2007). Marsden and Holmes (2014) argue that using elderspeak could help build rapport between caregivers and residents, especially those with dementia. However, this elderspeak, with baby talk features, used in interactions and communication with residents with no cognitive impairment, is considered disrespectful and inappropriate (Harrison et al., 2020).

Migrant care workers often face challenges communicating in culturally unfamiliar care settings (King et al., 2013; Bennett et al., 2020) and engaging in caregiver-and-resident talk (Scerri & Presbury, 2021). In a study of aged care work in Australia, Dahm and Yates (2013) reported that common language-related barriers are vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, accent and slang. In another study, Harrison et al. (2020) reported that communication barriers influence migrant caregivers' ability to form relationships with residents. Harrison et al. (2020) also observed that migrant caregivers use simple questions for example 'would you like...' or 'are you finished..?' to confirm that they had understood a resident's needs. It was also noted that migrant caregivers used simple directives such as 'follow me' and 'come back and have dessert' to encourage the

resident to undertake a particular action (Harrison et al., 2020). Non-verbal communication was also used by caregivers (Harrison et al., 2020).

Another language challenge is how to communicate culturally appropriately, which relates to both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects (Dahm & Yates, 2013). The former refers to "the cultural values and expectations ... in particular cultural contexts" (Dahm & Yates, 2013, p. 23). The latter refers to the language strategies and linguistic items used to achieve a communicative aim (Dahm & Yates, 2013). Marsden and Holmes (2014) note that an important cultural value in Australia and New Zealand is that power disparities in social contexts, in the workplace and in areas such as aged care, tend to be de-emphasised. Instead, sociocultural values emphasize equal power and solidarity. Marsden and Holmes' (2014) study shows that, embracing these sociocultural values, talk between caregivers and care receivers in New Zealand are "co-constructed negotiations of social meaning" (p. 20).

In aged care settings, the lack of awareness of the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects, embedded in routine communciation and daily engagement, is a challenge for migrant aged-care workers (Marsden & Holmes, 2014). It may lead to cross-cultural misunderstandings. This lack of awareness may affect workers' to recognise changes in the wellbeing of the elderly. It can also be a barrier for workers to establish genuine relationships with the people they support, which is important for providing resident-centred care. The care relationship can help the elderly understand their wellbeing, feel independent, and improve their quality of life (Walsh & Shutes, 2012).

Marsden and Holmes (2014) highlight the importance of both transactional and relational aspects of communication between caregivers and residents. Transactional talk is used to negotiate institutional goals and the practical needs of the care receivers, whereas relational talk describes the communication and engagement strategies to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships (Mackey et al., 2022). Marsden and Holmes (2014) suggest the importance of communicating not only to achieve transactional goals, but also to establish relational interaction, build trusting relationships between caregivers and residents, and establish a safe practice of care services.

It has been observed that healthcare workers who have different language backgrounds and fail to understand local sociopragmatic values are unlikely to employ pragmalinguistic devices successfully when interacting and communicating in their care contexts (Dahm & Yates, 2013). Nichols et al. (2015) investigated how culture shapes relationships in six residential aged care facilities in Perth, Australia. An overarching theme that emerged in their study was interpersonal communication issues and how cultural norms affected communication between culturally and linguistically diverse staff who provided direct care to residents, managers and residents' family members.

Very few training programmes for healthcare professionals currently exist that aim to improve the communication skills of healthcare professionals from culturally and linguistically-diverse backgrounds (Mackey et al., 2022). Mackay et al. (2022) designed The Little Things training to assist culturally and linguistically diverse care assistants to communicate more effectively with aged care residents in Melbourne, Australia. The result of this training was positive, showing that there was an increase in participants' confidence to communicate and a shift from focusing on completing their tasks to interacting with residents in a way that enhanced residents' wellbeing.

In summary, very few early studies have explored the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of communication between migrant aged-care workers and care receivers (Marsden & Holmes, 2014). Previous studies have focused primarily on the negative imbalance power in elderspeak (Marsden & Holmes, 2014). In this study, I consider the relational aspects of communication between caregivers and care receivers in New Zealand aged care settings. Unlike The Little Things programme, which used films as their key input of the training materials, this study used all five common instructional activities in relation to metapragmatics, as identified by Taguchi and Kim (2018). This will be discussed in more depth in the Teaching Methodology and Material Design section.

Needs analysis
This project began with a needs analysis conducted with various stakeholders to develop an understanding of aged caregiver roles, discuss good practice of communication and interactions between caregivers and care recievers, and identify potential gaps and learning needs of migrant aged-care workers.

To investigate the needs of the migrant aged-care workers, I used multiple ethnographic methods and sources (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000), including an interview with a nursing manager, interviews with two healthcare assistants, interviews with three residents in a retirement village, and expert verification. All the participants were New Zealand-born citizens, except one healthcare assistant who was a New Zealand citizen originally from the Philippines. Because the target migrant caregivers for this programme were new to the country and the care contexts, inviting them to describe their needs was viewed as not likely to be very fruitful (Berwick, 1989). Therefore, this data source was not used. Expert verification was conducted in two instances: after the first draft of the data analysis and findings and after the first draft of an example lesson.

The use of multiple ethnographic methods contributes to the transferability, credibility, and confirmability of the research (Lew et al., 2018). The data collection procedure for this needs analysis involves the participation of human participants, and the study adheres to the Human Ethics Guidelines of Victoria University of Wellington (ID29651). The participants were contacted via email, informed about the purpose of

the needs analysis, the need for consent to be interviewed and to have their responses analysed for this research (see the interview questions in Appendices 1-3).

The methods and participant demographics are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1:
Participant demographics

Participants	Role	Data collection methods	Years of experience	Pseudonyms
1 expert (face-to-face)	Nursing Manager	Interview	40+ years	Expert
		Expert verification		
2 participants (on the phone)	Healthcare Assistant	Interview	6 years	HCA1
		Interview	1 year	HCA2
3 participants (face-to-face)	Resident in aged care facilities	Interview	20+ years in aged care	Resident 1
		Interview	20+ years in aged care	Resident 2
		Interview	20+ years in aged care	Resident 3

Needs analysis results

I followed an inductive analysis process and a thematic coding strategy, which allows themes to emerge from the data (Bazeley, 2013). The following sub-sections analyse and discuss the themes that emerged from the interview data with respect to values of person-centred care, communication genres, and language features.

Values of person-centred care

One key theme from the data is the value around person-centered care in New Zealand. This value focuses on care recipients "as a whole being rather than just the ailment, physically, mentally, emotionally, spiritually and culturally" (Resident 1; HCA1). It also focuses on "individual choices", "seeking consent" (Expert), "respecting care recipients' individual autonomy, advocating on their behalf, empowering them, and supporting their rights to make fully informed decisions regarding their health" (HCA1), and "promot[ing] their independence and quality of life" (Expert; HCA2).

Another theme that emerged in the interviews is the high level of engagement, interaction and communication in the daily work tasks of care workers, including tasks to be undertaken within the department and with the care recipients as below:

- Within the department: Setting the department up for the day ahead, attending handover in the department, unpacking pre-ward ordered weekly stock, ordering

    stock, reporting shortages to manager or coordinators, and being involved in research and development activities (HCA1; HCA2).
- With the care recipients: Bed making, personal care, housekeeping, feeding, assessments on activities of daily living, reporting observations and concerns to nurses, delegated medication tasks (not often) (HCA1; Expert).

Another value of person-centred care is to "treat others as I would hope to be treated myself". This means "to connect with the care recipients in a respectful and empathetic way" (HCA1) through active and genuine listening (Expert; HCA1). It is important to always check with the care recipients to know their health concerns (HCA1; HCA2), seek their consent (Expert; HCA2), and consult their wishes and preferences (Expert).

Finally, establishing and maintaining relationships with aged care recipients is valued in person-centred care. It is observed that migrant care workers can be quite task-focused (Expert) because they are busy fitting a certain number of patients into a timeframe (Residents 1, 2, 3). That is also their experience in their home countries where talking to aged care recipients may be considered a waste of time (Expert). However, in the interview, the expert acknowledged that care workers should be able to talk to the patients to establish and maintain relationships [relational talk] while performing their job tasks [transactional talk]. Residents 1, 2 and 3 acknowledged that even "five minutes of conversation would be nice". Small talk might be greetings, asking how people are (Resident 3), or about the weather, or sports (Resident 2). Conversations could be initiated by the care workers or by residents. Resident 1 would usually like to ask about what care workers hope to do on their day off, something about the outside world, or something to look forward to in the community room or the retirement village. Resident 1 explained that "the elderly's world has reduced and any items of news in the wider community and personal news is always welcome and appreciated".

Communication genres
The question is how to establish and maintain relationships with aged care recipients. The expert, two healthcare assistants and three residents commented that greetings, making small talk, expressing humour, paying compliments, expressing empathy, showing compassion, kindness and demonstrating affection and care can uplift the elderly's mood, encourage their engagement, and build positive trusting relationships. By establishing and maintaining relationships, care workers "build rapport and trust in the care" (Expert) with the aged-care recipients in "an engaging and cooperative way" (HCA1). Once trust is gained, it is "easier to work with the elderly and easier to explain transactional tasks" (HCA2).

Language features
According to my informants, one aspect of communication and interaction which should be avoided is the use of directives to encourage the elderly to undertake a particular action; for example: "Barry, you will have a shower now, stand up, reach for the frame"

(HCA1). This can be considered as intimidating and controlling (Expert) or, as HCA1 stated, "nobody likes being told what to do".

Instead, the expert and participants suggested a number of language features which reflect the above-mentioned sociocultural values and communication principles. Examples include the use of open-ended questions to allow the person to respond, use of 'we' or 'let's' to encourage the person to do something, asking for consent, giving choices, or consulting wishes and preferences.

Needs analysis summary and discussion

The needs analysis, as described above, used multiple sources of information and covered several key aspects of learning needs. Following Martin (2001), below is a summary of the values, genres and language features which emerged from the data.
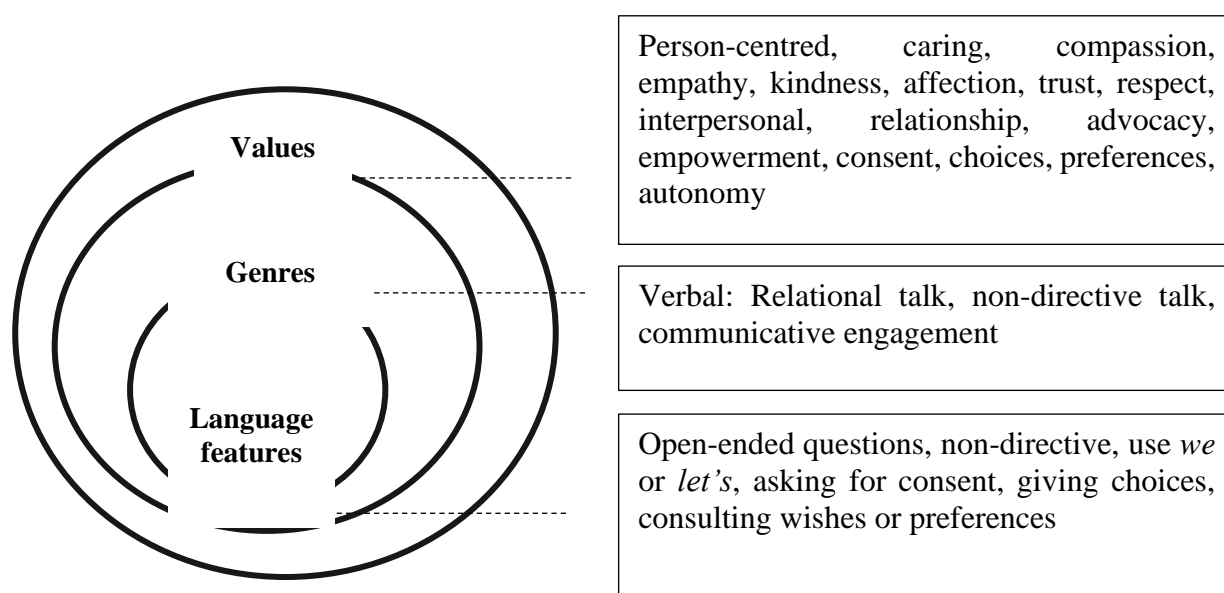
Figure 1: Summary of the values, genres and language features

Existing literature suggests a range of speech functions aligning with the above-mentioned sociocultural values, communication genres and language features (Holmes & Wilson, 2013, p. 294), as below:

- Expressive: utterances express the speaker's feelings
- Directive (vs non-directive): utterances attempt to get someone to do something
- Referential: utterances provide information
- Phatic: utterances express solidarity and empathy with others

A trial lesson

Drawing from the needs analysis above, overall goal and learning outcomes relating to culturally appropriate communication skills are created for a group of migrant aged-care workers. They are freshly employed in the residential aged care facilities in New Zealand. They vary in age and ethnic groups, with the largest group being mainly from

Asian countries. The majority have some prior work experience as caregivers or nurses in their home countries, but their overseas professional experience is limited.

Teaching goal and learning outcomes
The programme aims at developing an awareness of person-centred and culturally appropriate communication in English for migrant aged-care workers in New Zealand to be able to establish strong positive relationships with elderly care recipients in their daily interactions.

To address this goal, and in line with the findings of the needs analysis, at the end of three lessons, migrant aged-care workers will be able to:
- Use non-directive talk in English when negotiating daily care tasks with elderly care recipients
- Express empathy in English in daily conversations with aged care recipients
- Build genuine rapport when interacting with aged care recipients

For the remainder of this article, a trial lesson will be described. This lesson covers the first learning outcome and focuses on how to mitigate directives in verbal communication when care workers negotiate daily care tasks with elderly care recipients.

Teaching goals (trial lesson)
This lesson aims to:
- Develop care workers' awareness of directive vs non-directive talk in English
- Develop care workers' confidence and competence with culturally appropriate communication when negotiating daily care tasks with elderly care recipients

Learning objectives (trial lesson)
At the end of this lesson, migrant care workers will be able to:
- Explain sociopragmatic values in the New Zealand aged care sector
- Identify and apply non-directive measures and pragmalinguistic devices to communicate and interact appropriately when providing day-to-day care to elderly care recipients

Teaching methodology and material design
As mentioned earlier, migrant care workers passed the recruitment process, indicating that they have basic English linguistic competence, such as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and the four language skills. Most had prior work experience in their home countries (being nurses or healthcare workers). However, they are unfamiliar with the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of language and communication. For that reason, the materials and lesson are designed with a focus on these two aspects.

Five common instructional activities in relation to metapragmatics (sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects) are identified by Taguchi and Kim (2018) as below:

- Input (text-based or audio-visual materials): This is used to expose learners to how target metapragmatics are used in real-life situations.
- Metapragmatic information (explicit explanation): It is used to explicitly explain metapragmatic features and linguistic forms and provide learners opportunities to reflect, compare and discuss similarities and differences.
- Production activities (using discourse completion task or role-play): They provide opportunities for practice and reinforce learning of pragmatic targets.
- Consciousness raising (attention drawing): This helps to raise learners' attention to target metapragmatics, and is often used in combination with other instructional activities.
- Feedback (implicit or explicit): Feedback and correction help learners improve their awareness and performance, and is embedded in other instructional components.

These activities are not mutually exclusive because they can be integrated in the same instructional lesson. All five instructional activities are integrated in this lesson, as explained in the next section.

With regard to input, without permission to use authentic recordings or existing (audio-visual) resources, it is necessary to create care scenarios of likely daily interactions between care workers and aged care recipients. Care scenarios and sample conversations used in the trial lesson are authentic examples created by participants in the interviews when they were asked to provide examples in their daily communication and interaction. It is important to note that these were not recorded conversations. Some examples of care scenarios of likely interactions between care workers and elderly resident can include assisting the resident to take a shower and get dressed, assisting the resident to walk to the tea lounge of the retirement village for afternoon tea, checking on the resident at the end of the day and assisting the resident for bed. Input in the lesson is not only text-based but also emerges from the teacher/facilitator and peers through pair and group discussions.

I use scenarios and role-plays as the methodology for my teaching approach and material design because role-plays can "elicit responses that closely resemble those produced in natural conditions" (Riddiford & Holmes, 2015, p.134).

Instructional procedures and activity sequencing
The lesson comprises five main activities:

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1. Setting the context
Ella (Asian, aged between 20-30) is a healthcare assistant in a retirement village in Wellington. Ella started this role a month ago. She learned general English back in

her home country and believed that her English should be sufficient to communicate with the elderly residents in her daily tasks.

Ella is required to look after residents in four different areas of the retirement village: town houses (when required), serviced apartments, resthome and hospital. These depend on her weekly rosters.

Working in pairs, use the context information and your prior knowledge and experience, answer the following questions.
a. What differences do you think Ella may find when working in these four areas of the retirement village?
b. What challenges do you think Ella may encounter when she is new to the country and culture here?

This context-setting activity links to Taguchi and Kim's (2018) input and conscious raising activities. Guiding questions in this activity help provoke learners' thoughts and situate the learning context that represents an example work environment. Learners in this group vary in age and experience and this activity is neither restricted to right or wrong answers, nor does it disadvantage certain groups of learners. This allows learners of different ages and experience to share their insights with comfort.

2. Consciousness raising of sociopragmatic values
Below is one of Ella's interactions with a resident in the serviced apartment in the morning:

Ella	[knock at the door softly] Hello...
Resident	Hello. Come in!
Ella	Mary, it's time for your shower now, stand up and go to the bathroom.
Resident	(unclear utterance)...
Ella	We have only 20 minutes. Let's go Mary.

Get two volunteers in the group to role-play this conversation.

Get learners to answer the following questions with the wider group.
a. Use **one** adjective to describe this conversation.
b. What is wrong with this approach? Find **three** problems with this communication.
c. Explain why this communication approach can be problematic in New Zealand care context.
d. How would the resident possibly react or feel in this conversation?

This activity links to Taguchi and Kim's (2018) conscious raising activity and input activity to expose learners to a likely real-life conversation between a care worker and an elderly resident. It is important to draw learners' attention to target sociopragmatic features and raise learners' awareness of sociopragmatic values by using guiding questions provided to learners. This activity gives them an opportunity to think about the conversation from the perspective of both the care worker and the resident. When discussing the problems, learners could be directed to the concepts of power, solidarity, formality, directness, and politeness, and comment on the possible reaction of the resident based on their understanding of the local culture and values.

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3. Discussion of pragmalinguistic devices

a. Discuss with the wider group to identify some ways to improve the conversation between Ella and the resident, based on the discussion above. Explicitly explain about different mitigated measures and pragmalinguistic devices and their influences in conversations.

- Tone of voice: loud, soft, gentle, falling, raising, mixed falling and raising pattern
- Discourse markers: e.g., *right*, *okay*
- Politeness markers: e.g., *please*
- Downtoners: e.g., *possibly*, *perhaps*
- Consultative devices: e.g., *do you think...?*, *do you mind...?*
- Understaters: e.g., *a little*, *a minute*, *just*
- Jointly constructed cooperative actions: e.g., would you like to...?, how about you...?
- Less direct structures: e.g., *I was wondering if you could...*
- Non-verbal communication: smiles, eye contact, touching
- Open-ended questions: e.g., *what would you like to do now*?
- Humour
- Small talk

b. Compare Ella's conversation with a similar conversation carried out in your home country or culture. What differences or similarities do you notice?

This activity is relevant to Taguchi and Kim's (2018) metapragmatic information. It aims to provide learners with explicit information about the target pragmalinguistic features and elicits dicussions of how these mitigated measures and pragmalinguistic devices may influence conversations, and how interlocuters may perceive these conversations. Learners also have an opportunity to reflect and compare cultural and communication differences between their home country and the New Zealand context.

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4. Communicative practice
- Work with a partner and role-play the conversation: one is a healthcare assistant (HCA) and the other is a resident in the serviced apartment.
- The healthcare assistant visits the resident in the morning, starts with some small talk, and invites her/him to take a shower. The resident does not want to take a shower.
- The healthcare assistant offers choices or asks for the resident's preferences.
- The healthcare assistant confirms the resident's preference and concludes the conversation.

This is a production activity carried out in combination with explicit feedback which is in line with Taguchi and Kim's (2018) common instructional categories. This activity focuses on the practice and revision/improvement of Ella's scenario and conversation. After learners role-play their conversations, they receive feedback from the teacher/facilitator and their peers.

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5. Conclusion and key learning points
- Reflect on the learning. Each learner suggests one key learning point.
- Share how you are going to apply that learning in your work practices in the future.

This activity wraps up the lesson, provides an opportunity for learners to reflect on the lesson and articulate key take-aways, and allows learners to think about the application of the new knowledge.

Evaluation and reflection
I trialled the lesson with one Vietnamese learner, Uyen, who wants to work as a health care assistant in a retirement village. Uyen has been in New Zealand for a month and is on a skilled migrant work visa. She had a score of 7.0 in her IELTS test; however, she claimed that it was quite challenging to understand sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of communication without explicit instructions. The lesson took nearly an hour. Reflection revealed a need to allow time for learners' preparation, reflection and practice.

One potential drawback which was anticipated before the trial lesson was that the lesson provides opportunities for learners to interact with each other through paired role-play, paired discussion, and role-play performance with the wider group thus allowing for group discussion. However, in this trial lesson, Uyen paired with me as the teacher, which might have affected her emotions and the cognitive process.

According to Uyen's feedback, the input related to context was very helpful in setting the scene and activating her prior knowledge. Examples of Ella's poor conversation

clearly showed the lack of target sociopragmatic features and helped Uyen's noticing of these features. The lesson appears to have helped Uyen to take one small step to achieve the lesson goals and learning objectives. All five tasks built up her understanding of culturally appropriate ways of communication and interaction in aged care in New Zealand.

Conclusion

This article sought to study the needs of migrant aged-care workers to develop sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of communication in New Zealand aged care settings. The needs analysis results were used to design and develop a trial lesson. The evaluation feedback and reflections provided convincing evidence of the learning needs and the benefits of these professional development activities in New Zealand workplaces.

By writing this article and describing the process of needs analysis and developing a trial lesson, the hope is that it could be helpful for English language teachers working with migrants. Another important implication of this study lies in its contribution to raising care workers' awareness of the importance of on-the-job professional development activities, not only related to job tasks, but also culturally appropriate communication and competence.

Acknowledgement

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Appendix 1: Interview questions (Expert)
1. Could you please briefly describe the work context that you are involved in and the migrant healthcare workers in your department?
2. What are the core values of care you are expected to provide in your work context?
3. What should the healthcare workers in aged care ideally know and be able to do?
4. What tasks, activities and skills do the healthcare workers in aged care need to use English for?
5. What areas of communication, interaction and language do the healthcare workers in aged care use?

Appendix 2: Interview questions (HCAs)
1. What are the core values of care you are expected to provide to aged patients or care recipients in your work context?
2. How do these values or expectations drive your interaction, language use and communication with aged patients or care recipients?
3. What are your views on the following types of talk in your daily interaction and communication with patients or care recipients? Which of these two is more important? How do you communicate to achieve both the care needs of patients and positive relationship with patients?
    - transactional talk (task-focused, discourse used to negotiate institutional goals and patients' practical needs)
    - relational talk (discourse involved in establishing, maintaining and repairing relationships)
4. Which of the aspects of interaction, language and communication mentioned in question 4 might be difficult for non-native or migrant care workers?
5. In your opinion, what are helpful ways of communication and interaction that can help non-native or migrant care workers build good positive relationships with patients or care recipients and deliver the care services required in your work context?

Appendix 3: Interview questions (Residents)
1. Please share your experience living in this retirement village, e.g., how long have you lived here, have you enjoyed it, why, etc.
2. In your view what does person-centred care mean?
3. When the retirement village staff come to your townhouse, would you prefer them just to do their tasks (that you enquired about) and leave, or would you like to engage in some small talk with them? If you'd like to engage in small talk, what topics would that be?
4. How would you like to be treated, interacted and communicated with in the retirement village, especially when it comes to health care workers, such as healthcare assistants or caregivers?
5. How do you think healthcare workers could build strong, positive and trusting relationships with the residents in the retirement village?

LEARNERS' LISTENING PERSPECTIVES: RESOURCE SELECTIONS, EXPERIENCE, AND APPROACHES FROM THE SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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Abstract
In second language learning, understanding learners' resource preferences and the resource difficulties they encounter helps teachers to identify learner approaches. This study aims to understand learners' listening resource preferences, their attitudes towards their listening, and their approaches to listening difficulties. Data consists of 63 learners' survey responses from six English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes on a pre-sessional course at a New Zealand university. Interviews conducted with 20 of these learners provides further insight into their survey responses. The results show that the learners enjoyed listening to both factual and entertainment resources. Although they reported audio and audio-visual listening as useful and necessary, learners found unfamiliar listening topics difficult. These findings indicate that the listening resource may affect the learners' attitudes and strategy use when listening. Selecting strategic approaches which help learners engage with the listening input could help them to improve both their in-class and out-of-class listening experience.

Introduction
In L2 (second language) listening, researchers such as Borg (2003) claim that authentic listening resources should focus learners on meaning to help them develop their learning processes. Field (2008) notes that learners should have access to authentic recordings that relate to the text's original purpose to cover a wide range of scripted and unscripted styles (e.g., interviews, news, conversations). Therefore, resources should help learners to focus on the meaning and the context in listening practices (Newton & Nation, 2020).

Previous research examining listening programmes suggests that learners prefer familiar listening resources for practices to help them to develop their learner autonomy and build their listening proficiency (Kemp, 2009). However, researchers examining listening resources have found common features (i.e., speed, limited vocabulary knowledge, accent, pronunciation) to be problematic for learners' listening. Renandya and Farrell (2011) suggest that learners should select their own strategies (i.e., use subtitles, listen in sections) to address the listening difficulties they encounter. Thus, research needs to identify learners' current resource preferences, experience, and strategic approaches to guide them in their listening practices.

Literature Review
Listening Resources
Using online listening resources has become more common in the L2 (second language) classroom. Specifically, learners can choose freely from a host of materials to practice

their listening in-class and out-of-class. In the listening realm, researchers have asked learners to identify their preferred resources for practices, as shown below.

Table 1:
Learners' preferred listening resources (Madarbakus-Ring & Ring, 2023, pp. 309)

Researchers	Listening Resources	Key features
Chen (2016)	-Modern Family (sitcom) (1) -The Ellen Show (interview show) (1) -Frankenstein (BBC Audiobook) (1) -60-Second Science (1) -VoiceTube (5) -TED Talks (7)	*Easy to navigate website *Subtitles/captions *Fiction/non-fiction texts *Accent and level options *Reduce speed rate *Online dictionary
Lee & Cha (2020)	-YouTube -TED Talks -ABC News -VOA News	*Visual Aids *Non-Fiction/Current Affairs *Monologic/Dialogic speech
Milliner (2017)	-ELLLO (34.4%) -ESL Fast (26.6%) -BBC Learning English (10.6%) -VoiceTube (9.6%) -News in Levels (8.5%)	*Transcripts *Monologic/Dialogic Speech *Quizzes/accents/levels

As seen in Table 1, learners listened to both audio-visual and audio-only selections, prioritising news websites (ABC, VOA, BBC), YouTube, and TED Talks. Lee and Cha (2020) note the visual aids and non-fictional nature of most of their learners' selections. Chen's (2016) study revealed her participants listened to only two audio-only resources (Frankenstein and VoiceTube). Cross (2009) comments on the value of learners choosing audio-visual resources so they can use a combination of both verbal (e.g., accent, intonation) and non-verbal interaction (e.g., gesture, slides) to interpret the input. Siyanova-Chunturia and Webb (2016) concur, explaining that familiar audio-visual resources promote practice so that learners can listen to resources that they enjoy. Therefore, understanding learners' resource preferences can help identify whether they need further support when using audio-only or audio-visual selections.

The researchers also highlight some key features in the resources. All three studies showed learners' preferred resources include subtitles/captions, transcripts, or online dictionary options. As Perez et al. (2013) emphasise through their study, learners improved their listening comprehension when using captioned listening materials. They note how using listening materials (i.e., news websites) with supporting features provide learners with a helpful application for real-world listening. Lee and Cha (2020) and Milliner (2017) also identify the importance of monologic/dialogic speech in resources. Milliner's (2017) analysis of 595 journal entries by 20 learners found that websites, such as ELLLO and ESL Fast, provided learners with a choice of one-person (monologic) or

two-person (dialogic) listening practices available at different levels (i.e., easy, hard). He comments on the suitability of these websites as the range of post-listening activities (i.e., comprehension tasks, transcripts) gives learners more focused practice. Ivone and Renandya (2022) concur, suggesting that websites with extension features provide learners the opportunity to tailor their listening practices to real-life contexts that they may encounter. Thus, the present study aims to identify the supporting features in learners' chosen listening resources to help guide them into using more meaningful practices.

Listening Experience
Researchers have also examined how learners self-report their experience of listening resources. Table 2 summarises the difficulties that learners experience with listening resources in second language contexts.

Table 2:
Listening experience of the L2 listening resource

Listening Difficulties		
Ivone & Renandya (2022)	**Lee & Cha (2020)**	**Renandya & Farrell (2011)**
-Limited vocabulary & prior knowledge -Speed -Accent/Pronunciation -No visual aids -Uninteresting/unfamiliar topics	-Speed -Accent -Pronunciation -Vocabulary	-Speed -Accent -Unfamiliar words -New words

Table 2 shows that learners across all three studies found the speaker's speech rate and accent to cause comprehension difficulties when listening. Renandya and Farrell (2011) explain that learners tend to be distracted by a fast speech rate as they are unable to sound out words (i.e., blending, chunking) to fully understand the input. Chen (2019) also notes the impact of accent on learners' comprehension, commenting that her learners reported a 75% comprehension rate of a British speaker. Similarly, Lee and Cha's (2020) participants also found non-American accents more difficult to comprehend. All learners also self-reported vocabulary to be problematic when listening. Lee and Cha (2017) comment that unknown words were often distractors for their learners; they became frustrated when they didn't recognise a word when listening. Therefore, this study will elicit how learners identify speaker and content difficulties in resources that may affect their listening experience.

Listening Approaches
Investigating how learners address their listening difficulties has also been presented in listening research. Lee and Cha's (2020) learners self-reported the approaches they used when encountering listening difficulties. The researchers' analysis of 880 journal entries from 89 learners found that they:

- Replayed the text (95%)
- Took notes (80%)
- Used subtitles (15%)
- Used vocabulary-based strategies (10%)
- Used context-based strategies (10%)

Lee and Cha (2020) note how learners engaged with the resource by listening again or noting key words and main ideas while-listening. In contrast, learners found using subtitles, noticing new vocabulary, and considering the context to be unhelpful. However, Lee and Cha (2020) emphasize how learners need the opportunity to use their own combination of strategies to help their individual listening. As the above previous research shows, understanding learners' resource selections, experience, and approaches in listening could help guide learners more strategically in their learning. Thus, this study aims to investigate the following research questions:

RQ1. What listening resources do learners frequently choose for listening practices?

RQ2. What listening difficulties do the learners describe from their listening experience?

RQ3. What listening strategies do the learners use to overcome their listening difficulties?

Methodology
Participants
The study took place at a New Zealand university which offered an English for Academic Purposes programme. The 14-week intensive courses prepared learners for entry into tertiary-level courses across New Zealand. Sixty-three learners were recruited from six intact classes using opportunity sampling. Learners were CEFR B1-B2 (Common European Framework of Reference intermediate/upper-intermediate) level in three classes and CEFR A2 (pre-intermediate) in the other three classes. All learners were aged between 19 and 40 and came from a variety of countries (i.e., China, Myanmar, Japan, Samoa, Tonga). Each pre-sessional class had a maximum of 16 students and consisted of 19-hours of instruction per week.

Research Instruments
The two research instruments used for this study were a survey and interviews. Survey prompts were adapted from Chen's (2016) study, to support this study's research aim to elicit learners' resource selections and the difficulties they encounter in their listening experience (see Appendix 1). Learners rated pre-determined options using a five-point Likert-Scale and were prompted to write their own responses for some questions. Three of the 17 survey items focused on listening resources, experience, and approaches as summarised in Table 3 below.

Table 3:
Structure of the learner survey

Question	Item options	Example responses
1. How often do you listen to the following listening resources?	9	YouTube, TED Talks, Podcasts
2. How would you describe your listening experience?	7	Enjoyable, Difficult, Boring
3. What do you think helps your listening ability improve?	4	Activities, Materials, Strategies

Interviews were conducted using 10 question prompts adapted from Siegel (2015) (see Appendix 2). To triangulate the data in this study, the interviews consisted of prompts to follow-up from the learners' survey responses on their chosen resources, experience, and approaches to listening.

Piloting and Ethics Approval

After conducting a pilot study, each instrument was modified for the main study. First, learners suggested using shorter sentences on the survey. Interview prompts were also simplified and examples were added to help learners focus on the questions more easily.

After obtaining ethics approval, the class teachers presented the study to learners, allowing the researcher to maintain distance and avoid possible coercion. Class teachers were provided with a one-page information sheet, a PowerPoint slide, and an 'intent to participate' slip for learners to indicate their participation.

Data Collection

Sixty-three learners from six intact classes completed the 20-minute online learner survey on the Blackboard learning platform. Each survey included an online consent form and an 'opt out' option, although no learners chose to stop participating at a later date. After agreeing to the study's terms, the survey link was circulated via the class teacher and learners could access the survey on any online device within a one-week timeframe. From the learners who had volunteered to participate in interviews, 20 learners were randomly chosen and emailed a suggested date and time for the 45-minute session. Learners were given the prompts and interviewed in groups of four. The interview was audio-recorded with the researcher moderating (i.e., time-keeping, prompt guidance/clarification) from a separate table to minimise any influence of the researcher's presence.

Data Analysis

For the survey data, the software platform SPSS (https://www.ibm.com/spss) was used for data analysis to generate descriptive statistics. All survey data were processed using six key stages (checking/organizing data, coding data, entering data into Excel/SPSS, screening/cleaning data, analysing data, reducing data) in quantitative data analysis as

outlined by Phakiti (2015). All survey data were exported to Excel and were organised by identification code (e.g., L14) before being saved as individual spreadsheets in their respective classes. These codes were allocated to observe privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity throughout the study (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). Then, the data were coded by numerical value. Ordinal data were added to identify the ratings for each of the five-point Likert-Scale responses. Next, the spreadsheets were imported to SPSS. The data were then re-entered to include shorter codes and to classify the Likert-Scale ratings (e.g., 5 = strongly agree). Several tests were then conducted to check and clean the data. Finally, the data reliability was analysed before the descriptive data analyses were conducted. Frequency and percentage descriptive statistics were generated to show rankings. Average scores were calculated using the mean and standard deviation numbers for each of the responses.

For the interview data, thematic analysis was guided by six key stages (familiarising yourself with data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining/naming themes, producing the report) in qualitative data analysis as outlined by Clarke and Braun (2013). All interview data were transcribed and exported to Word. Data were organised by anonymising participants (e.g., L12), recording the start/end time for each question or quote, and the question and response for each prompt. Then, themes were allocated to the data, organised by codes and sub-topics which were generated by the original question (e.g., Listening Resources). Next, each of the sub-topics were divided into more specific sub-categories using the survey prompts (e.g., Listening Resources = Enjoyable/Difficult). Afterwards, each extract was reviewed by the research question, sub-topic, and specific category to decide on individual themes using the survey question and research question categories (e.g., listening resource [TED Talk] = experience [enjoyable]). The themes were then reviewed again to check if extracts could remain in a category or be moved to a more relevant theme. Next, any remaining responses were re-categorised or placed into a sub-theme within a relevant existing theme. Following the qualitative analysis stage, the identified themes were used to show learners' insights and further support their survey responses for each research question (Clarke & Braun, 2013).

Results

Quantitative survey data collected from 63 learners were analysed to understand the learners' resource preferences, experience, and approaches when listening. Descriptive statistics presented the mean, standard deviation scores, and rankings for each of the survey options. Qualitative data from 20 of these learners also provided detailed comments for each research question as follows.

Learners' Listening Resource Preferences

Concerning their listening resource preferences, the learners ranked the nine provided options by frequency using a five-point Likert-Scale, as shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4:
Preferred listening resources by frequency

Source	Mean	SD	Rating scale (n=63)				
			1	2	3	4	5
a. Music	3.79	0.98	0%	11.1%	27%	33.3%	28.6%
b. Film	3.73	1.00	1.6%	9.5%	28.6%	34.9%	25.4%
c. YouTube	3.22	1.23	11.1%	15.9%	30.2%	25.4%	17.5%
d. TV	2.97	1.17	11.1%	23.8%	34.9%	17.5%	12.7%
e. Conversations	2.79	1.18	15.9%	25.4%	30.2%	20.6%	7.9%
f. TED Talks	2.78	1.15	12.7%	33.3%	25.4%	20.6%	7.9%
g. News	2.71	1.06	12.7%	30.2%	36.5%	14.3%	6.3%
h. Radio	2.16	1.08	28.6%	44.4%	14.3%	7.9%	4.8%
i. Podcasts	1.98	1.00	39.7%	31.7%	20.6%	6.3%	1.6%

Note: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Frequently, 5=Always

As Table 4 shows, the learners' ratings indicated that Music, Film, YouTube, and TV ranked the highest with a mean value of between 2.97 and 3.79. Thirty-nine learners (61.9%) frequently or always listened to Music while 38 learners (60.3%) preferred Film and 27 learners (42.9%) watched YouTube. The selections indicated that learners preferred entertainment and audio-visual sources when listening. Contrastingly, the three lowest ranked options, News, Radio, and Podcasts, indicated that learners reported infrequently listening to factual or audio-only resources. Table 5 below shows the learners' reasons for their resource selections.

Table 5:
Learner Comments Concerning Resource Preferences

Favourable Resources	Disliked Resource
L20: I quite enjoy listening [to] some English music because I don't know, maybe it's because it's totally different language from our traditional [language]., I think that the melody is good, but of course, I want to learn this music, so I need to know the lyric, so I try to find out the meaning of lyric.	**L17:** Yes, sometimes I don't watch the news or speech, like that, because it's too difficult for me. And also, I can try to figure out the noun, but it's really hard [so] nobody really likes.
L01: Yeah, I listen to YouTube, music, the news. In terms of how do I listen to it, it's mostly, for me, when watching movies, especially foreign language movies, I prefer to have subtitles and that helps me to understand the movie.	**L20:** For me, it's not necessary to use the TED Talks to do something about my class. But I think that [if] I saw it before, but I am not interested so I just ignore them.

In interviews, L20 explains that music lyrics help him to focus on vocabulary while L04 outlines how subtitles enhance audio-visual resources to improve her comprehension. Contrastingly, L17 and L20 describe how listening to unfamiliar topics in non-factual resources is uninteresting.

Learners' Descriptions of their L2 Listening Experience
Concerning their experience, the learners rated seven options to describe their listening using a five-point Likert-Scale, as shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6:
How would you describe your listening experience?

Listening is…	Mean	SD	Rating Scale (n=63)				
			1	2	3	4	5
a. Necessary	4.48	0.75	1.6%	0%	6.3%	33.3%	58.7%
b. Useful	4.38	0.63	0%	1.6%	3.2%	50.8%	44.4%
c. Interesting	3.89	0.76	0%	3.2%	25.4%	50.8%	20.6%
d. Enjoyable	3.70	0.83	1.6%	1.6%	39.7%	39.7%	17.5%
e. Difficult	3.70	1.02	1.6%	11.1%	28.6%	33.3%	25.4%
f. Stressful	3.13	0.95	4.8%	19%	41.3%	28.6%	6.3%
g. Boring	2.33	0.86	20.6%	30.2%	44.4%	4.8%	0%

Note: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither Agree/Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree

As Table 6 shows, 58 learners (92%) perceived the skill as Necessary and 60 learners (95.2%) thought listening was Useful, ranked with a mean value of 4.48 and 4.38 respectively. These responses indicated that learners reportedly understand the importance of listening in their learning. Thirty-seven learners (58.9%) thought listening was Difficult, rated at 3.70. Twenty-two learners (34.9%) found listening to be Stressful and only three learners (4.8%) self-reported listening as Boring, indicating that the learners' experience was mostly positive. Table 7 below shows some learners' reasons for their descriptions.

Table 7:
Learners' comments concerning positive and negative listening experience

Positive experience	Negative experience
L03: I prefer some materials in class because there are some questions to check if you understand them. When I listen to some videos online, I thought I understand them whole, but actually, not! (laughs). So, I thinking, when [I] do some listening exercise in class, we can get some questions to check and [the] teacher is	**L20:** I really think about the listening test, it makes me feel nervous. But for example, the news or the TV, or something else, it's OK for me. If I'm interested, I will focus on it. But if, if it is the test, I don't like it! **L05:** I think the listening contents has some problems. Like noisy, speed and accent. So, we

explaining why it is or not. So, I think that's really helpful.

L14: I think when I practice outside, I can choose interesting topic. I like it and I will estimate my level and that make me feel [like] its very useful than in the school. Because in the school, the teacher will choose the academic topics and that, meeting, is more necessary for us.

have to listen the different kinds of listening materials.

L03: For me, the difficulties include the accent and the speed and the idioms as well. Actually, I think if I know the content, the environment [of] that the video, or the listening materials, I usually can understand them better.

In interviews, L03 explains how listening in class is more helpful as the teacher can check comprehension. Similarly, L14 feels that listening practice in-class is necessary to help make useful listening choices out-of-class. However, L20 describes how listening tests remove the enjoyment from listening. Concerning difficulties, L05 and L03 identify speed, accent, and vocabulary as distracting for their listening experience.

Learners' Approaches to Listening

Concerning their approaches, the learners rated four options to describe what helps them to listen using a five-point Likert-Scale, as shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8:
What do you think helps your listening ability improve?

…helps my ability	Mean	SD	Rating Scale (n=63)				
			1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
a. Activities	4.02	0.68	0%	3.2%	12.7%	63.5%	20.6%
b. Practice	3.98	0.79	0%	6.3%	12.7%	57.1%	23.8%
c. Materials	3.92	0.74	0%	4.8%	17.5%	58.7%	19%
d. Strategy Use	3.63	0.82	0%	7.9%	34.9%	42.9%	14.3%

Note: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither Agree/Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree
a. Activities (what is the task?); b. Practice (completing tasks); c. Materials (textbooks/handouts); d. Strategy Use (approaches to listening difficulty)

As Table 8 shows, all options were mostly rated as *agree* or *strongly agree. Activities* (53 learners or 84.1%)*, Practice* (51 learners or 80.9%)*,* and *Materials* (49 learners or 77.7%) were rated between 3.92 and 4.02. These ratings indicated that most learners feel lesson components help their listening improvement. *Strategy Use* was the lowest ranked (36 learners or 57.2%) suggesting that less measurable components (i.e., non-graded tasks) are given a lower priority by learners. Learners were asked to explain their selections, as shown in Table 9 below.

Table 9:
Learners' comments concerning helpful and unhelpful approaches

Helpful approaches	Unhelpful approaches
L11: I think answering the comprehension questions is very useful because we are always listening [to] some resources just for complete the questions, so we need to read the questions before we listen and this question can maybe help us to focus on the main idea about this listening resources and after then, we can talk to our friends or our classmates.	**L11:** I think the listening lecture maybe it is difficult. We need to focus on it maybe twenty minutes or half an hour. I focus on the question and sometimes I miss the key words and suddenly I find that the other student has already turned over the page and I am missing the key words!
L08: I think what helps me more is when I listen more times. I listen twice or three times because the first time, I don't know what the speaker is speaking. I just know a few words and that's it. But I listen again, again, again.	**L07:** When I [see] the academic word, the word which I don't know or can't understand, I really confused with the listening text. Vocabulary is very important [but] are difficult for me.
L02: For me, listening practice in class, when the teacher gave me the question first, before I listen, that will help me a lot. I am weak at memorising at what the speaker talks. So I need time to think about what he or she said. So if I know the question, I can take notes [when] the speaker [is] talking.	**L12:** For me, trying to understand specific idea, like that is [difficult] because, sometimes the topic I am not always that familiar with. And some of those terms and units I don't really know and they are very difficult to understand those very specific ideas or that very specific analysis.

In interviews, L11 and L08 explained how the listening activities and practice were useful in-class, noting that the teacher's guidance helped to understand the input. L08 and L02 describe how listening numerous times while taking notes help them to focus on specific content. Contrastingly, L12 and L07 identify specific ideas and unknown vocabulary as confusing and unhelpful when completing listening activities on unfamiliar topics. These comments indicate that learners may need further support in building their strategy awareness to better prepare for listening difficulties in practices.

Discussion

The present study considered three research questions investigating 63 pre-sessional learners' resource preferences, attitudes, and strategy approaches towards L2 listening. Concerning resource preferences, the learners preferred audio-visual (i.e., television) and entertainment resources (i.e., movies) compared to audio-only, factual resources (i.e., podcasts). These results build on findings in previous studies (Chen, 2016; Lee & Cha, 2020; Milliner, 2017; Siyanova-Chanturia & Webb, 2016) where learners prioritised some audio-visual resources and enjoyed entertainment selections more than non-fiction options. Unlike Lee and Cha's (2020) findings, learners in this study rarely listened to factual-based resources (i.e., news, radio, podcasts), preferring listening to familiar topics based on their personal interests. This study's observations highlight how resource selections should be familiar and interesting for learners to enable them to

enjoy listening practice and promote listening confidence in their own time. Therefore, teachers should consider resource selections that align with learners' interests to facilitate more enjoyable class practices.

Similar to Cross (2009), the findings in this study indicate that resources which include verbal and non-verbal features are more valuable in helping learners to understand the input. Building on Perez et al.'s (2013) suggestion, selecting audio-only options that include captioned features (i.e., subtitles, transcripts) help to support learners in improving their listening comprehension. One option is to use websites with extension features (i.e., subtitles, speed options) to help decrease learners' cognitive demands as they are provided with audio-visual support when listening to audio-only websites. In line with Milliner's (2017) view, using websites with features such as post-listening activities (i.e., comprehension tasks, transcripts) help learners to tailor their listening using a more guided and meaningful practice.

Concerning their attitudes, learners self-reported the necessity and usefulness of their listening practices. Similar to Siegel's (2013) study, learners understand the in-class academic demands of listening practice and were motivated to improve their listening skills to use in out-of-class practices. L14 in this study noted the necessity of transferring skills he practiced while listening to academic topics in lessons to listen to his own chosen topics out-of-class. Although learners in this study were mainly positive about their listening, they also reported some difficulties. In interviews, learners self-reported that the speaker's accent, speed, and vocabulary caused distractions, a finding echoed by Lee and Cha's (2020) learners. Building on Siegel's (2016) suggestions, learners could be given opportunities to practice identifying speaking features. One approach is to familiarise learners with blending (i.e., number of syllables), lexical knowledge (i.e., recognising words), and chunking (i.e., identify phrases) in the input to help them understand different speakers' speeds, vocabulary use, and accents. In this way, learners can broaden their experience of listening to a range of different speakers and build their confidence in understanding input that includes different speaking features.

Concerning their approaches, the learners self-reported in-class components (i.e., activities, materials, practices) as useful for their listening progress. These results suggest that the learners identified the importance of these supported practices (i.e., take notes) in-class to use them out-of-class. Graham (2006) notes that familiar learning routines help scaffold learners' listening. However, the learners in this study did not prioritise listening strategies highly in their progress. Giving learners more responsibility through learner training is one option to improve their strategy use. For example, Renandya and Farrell (2011) highlight the need for learner autonomy so they can select their own strategies when encountering listening difficulties. They suggest a six-point method that helps learners raise their awareness by drawing mind maps of the strategies they used. The teacher models the strategies before the learners practice them so that they can both practice the strategy and identify the ones that they need while

listening. Once the listening is completed, learners can evaluate which strategies helped address their difficulties and repeat the cycle. Following Lee and Cha's (2017, 2020) suggestion, listening journals can also help learners to summarize the main strategies they used and monitor their approaches to listening difficulties. The researchers advocate how maximising opportunities for learners to identify and recognise a strategy repertoire when listening can help them to use their own combination of strategies to address their individual difficulties. Thus, giving learners the opportunities to identify their listening difficulties can help them to approach their learning more strategically.

Limitations and Further Research
This small-scale study highlighted some interesting preliminary findings for future studies. First, a larger cohort of learners could provide more detailed insights into their listening resource selections and experience. Specifically, identifying if learners' listening attitudes and strategy use differs between resources could inform researchers about tailoring learners' practices. It would also be beneficial to elicit the teachers' resource selections and strategy instruction on current listening practices. Understanding how they teach listening could help provide a clearer snapshot to triangulate both the teachers' and learners' viewpoints.

Conclusion
This study aimed to understand second language learners' resource selections, experience, and approaches when listening. These findings indicated that the 63 learners using a range of audio and audio-visual resources reported the necessity of supporting features in these practices and the usefulness of the teachers' guidance when completing activities. Using familiar resources with supporting features can help learners to develop in-class strategic approaches for their out-of-class listening. Further research is needed to understand current approaches to listening instruction and learner training to help improve learners' strategic repertoires towards their listening.

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Appendix 1. Sample extract from the online survey

Q1 How often do you use the following to listen to something in English?

	1. Never	2. Rarely	3. Sometimes	4. Frequently	5. Always
1. TV					
2. Film					
3. Music					
4. TED Talks					
5. YouTube					
6. Podcasts					
7. Radio					
8. News					
9. Conversations					

Q2 **How do you feel about listening in English? It is....**

	1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither agree nor disagree	4. Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Enjoyable					
2. Interesting					
3. Useful					
4. Necessary					
5. Difficult					
6. Stressful					
7. Boring					

Q3 What do you think helps your listening ability improve? My listening ability improves...

	1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither agree nor disagree	4.Agree	5.Strongly Agree
1. as a result of listening practice from my English class					
2. as a result of the listening materials used in my English class					
3. as a result of the listening activities in my English class					
4. my confidence when using listening strategies					

Appendix 2. Talking about listening

Talking About Listening

1. Tell me about what you listen to (TV, music, teacher, TED, Internet). Where? When? How often? Why?

2. Tell me about your listening practices in class.

3. Tell me about your listening practices outside of class.

4. When listening, what do you find easy? What is difficult? Give an example about each experience.

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

5. How would you rate your success of listening? How do you relate the following to your listening success?

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

6. Think about your last listening class. Which strategies did you use? Would you say these are good or poor strategies? Why?

Thinking about how you have listened previously	Planning how you will listen in this lesson	Thinking about how you listened to the text	Writing about your listening experience	Talking about your listening experience	Writing about what you did to listen	Setting listening goals for next time

7. Which of the following are important to you? Why? What isn't important? Why?
Any other factors which would be important?

Thinking about how I listen	Getting the correct answers	Learning how to listen to TED Talks	Understanding everything	Thinking how I could change how I listen	Listening to something interesting	I don't like listening

8. Have you watched any talks before? Tell me about your experience of watching TED Talks.
What are you expecting from TED Talks?

9. Outside of class, when will you need to listen in English in the future? Why?

10. What do you think would help you improve your listening in English?

TEACHER EDUCATION AND SECONDARY EFL TEACHERS' PRONUNCIATION TEACHING: INITIAL FINDINGS FROM VIETNAM

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Abstract

The present study investigates how well teacher education prepares English as a second/foreign language teachers to teach pronunciation through four Vietnamese secondary EFL teachers' narratives of their training experiences and how the teachers teach pronunciation in their English classes. The data set was obtained from three different sources, namely a questionnaire, four academic transcripts, and four individual semi-structured interviews with the teachers. Thematic analysis was employed to analyse qualitative data. The findings show that the teachers' pronunciation teaching centred on listen-and-repeat activities and/or error correction due largely to the nature of testing and assessment practices at their schools. The results further show that the teachers received insufficient training in pronunciation pedagogy but demonstrated a high level of confidence in teaching English pronunciation. Respondents also shared some beliefs that teacher education in Vietnam needs to include courses focused on pronunciation practice and pedagogy to effectively prepare future secondary EFL teachers to teach English pronunciation.

Introduction

The body of work that focuses on second/foreign language teacher education (L2TE) has been growing for decades in line with the increase of research into teacher education in general. This research agenda has provided evidence on how L2 teachers learn, what specific knowledge and skills are required from proficient instructors, and what it takes to become effective L2 teachers. For L2TE to efficiently prepare language teachers, Freeman (2016) suggests including both content and pedagogical knowledge to establish the knowledge base, enabling teachers to satisfactorily operate in their language classes. Yet, research shows that teachers' identity and learning experiences also have important contributions to their success in the classroom (Burri et al., 2017; Newton et al., 2012). As such, a sociocultural approach has been put forward, taking into account individual teachers' backgrounds and different learning experiences (Johnson & Golombek, 2020). Such an approach to L2TE is believed to be holistic and effective to prepare L2 teachers as it meets student teachers' diverse learning needs and thus can better prepare them to teach their future learners (Burri & Baker, 2021).

Although such conceptual contributions are important, additional empirical research is required to obtain more nuanced insights into how L2 teachers, especially pronunciation instructors, can be competently prepared (Sadeghi, 2019). This is necessary given that English language proficiency alone is inadequate for L2 teachers to become effective

pronunciation instructors. Instead, understandings about English phonology and knowledge of how to teach different phonological features to learners are equally important (Baker, 2014; Derwing & Munro, 2015; Levis, 2018). To date, the topic of how sufficiently teacher education prepares L2 teachers to teach English pronunciation, specifically within the contexts of Asian countries where English is spoken as a foreign language and where learners do not have much exposure to spoken English, is relatively under-examined. Therefore, this pilot study, through an investigation into the experiences and perceptions of four secondary EFL teachers about Vietnamese EFL teacher education and the teaching of English pronunciation, paves the way for subsequent studies which will later add valuable contributions to the current international literature on L2TE research and the practice of pronunciation teaching at secondary level.

Literature Review
Recent research shows that many L2 teachers find it challenging to teach pronunciation explicitly and systematically as they lack confidence and pronunciation pedagogy training (Bai & Yuan, 2019; Baker, 2014; Couper, 2019; Foote et al., 2011). Accordingly, their pronunciation teaching tends to be reactive and *ad hoc* with more focus on segmentals than suprasegmentals (Couper, 2017; Murphy, 2011; Nguyen & Newton, 2020). The past three decades have seen a significant comeback of pronunciation research exploring L2 teachers' beliefs and practices about pronunciation instruction (Buss, 2017; Foote at el., 2016; Nguyen & Newton, 2020), teacher professional development activities to improve pronunciation teaching (Nguyen & Newton, 2021), and students' perceptions (Nguyen, 2019; Derwing & Rossiter, 2002; Kang, 2010). However, research into the preparation of English pronunciation instructors in L2TE programs has only recently emerged. The first steps towards looking at pronunciation teacher preparation were perhaps taken by Golombek and Jordan (2005), who examined how teachers at a Taiwanese university were prepared to teach pronunciation. The findings showed changes in the participants' cognitions (knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes), such that the pronunciation pedagogy course they took enabled them to feel more effective as pronunciation instructors.

Ten years later, Burri (2015) examined how student teachers' cognitions developed during a pronunciation pedagogy course in the TESOL program at an Australian university. Results showed that development in the teachers' cognitions about pronunciation instruction augmented their confidence in teaching English pronunciation and was closely intertwined with their identity construction. Consistent with Burri's (2015) research findings, other studies have shed further light on how pronunciation pedagogy training positively changed teachers' perceptions and confidence in pronunciation teaching (Buss, 2017; Tsunemoto et al., 2023; Nguyen & Newton, 2021) and shifted their instructional practices (Baker, 2014; Kochem, 2021).

Overall, research has demonstrated that pronunciation pedagogy training contributes to L2 teachers' knowledge and skills necessary for effective pronunciation teaching and has positive effects on teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. However, this body of work was mainly conducted in ESL settings or centred on student-teachers in EFL contexts. Research focused on in-service teachers' experiences and perceptions regarding pronunciation pedagogy training is, therefore, necessary given that understandings from this inquiry may provide useful information for the improvement of pronunciation teacher preparation in EFL settings such as Vietnam, a context in which how secondary EFL teachers learn to teach English pronunciation remains underexamined. The present study addresses this gap by exploring the beliefs and pronunciation teaching practices of four Vietnamese secondary EFL teachers in relation to EFL teacher education in Vietnam. It is guided by the following research questions:

1. What do Vietnamese secondary EFL teachers say regarding how they teach English pronunciation in class and why?

2. How well are the teachers prepared to teach English pronunciation and what do they expect from future teacher education in Vietnam?

Methods
Research setting and participants
The study was carried out in Vietnam where learners do not have much exposure to English in daily communication and the classroom is the main venue for interaction in English. At secondary level, English as a compulsory subject is taught over three 45-minute lessons per week. Vietnamese is the medium of instruction although some teachers sometimes teach in English. Some learners may have the opportunity to attend extra lessons at English centers, but this is not very common, especially in rural areas. The expected proficiency outcome for secondary students is equivalent to the B1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

At tertiary level, Vietnamese universities are largely autonomous in designing their training programs; thus, differences across the programs are unavoidable. However, all programs need to comply with the government's general requirements to cover three domains of foundation, subject-matter, and professional knowledge within 120 credits (15 50-minute periods per credit). In terms of EFL teacher training, undergraduate programs are required to include Ho Chi Minh ideology, psychology, and the history of the Vietnamese Communist Party, etc. as foundation courses, while English skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and English linguistics such as phonetics and phonology, semantics, and morphosyntax are prevalently chosen as subject-matter courses. English language teaching methodology and teaching practice as professional knowledge typically account for approximately 18-20% of the total credits, depending on each institution (MOET, 2021). At postgraduate level, MA TESOL programs also need to include these three main components with Lenin and Karl Marx philosophy and second foreign language (e.g., Chinese, Russian, or French, etc.) being two compulsory

foundation courses, second language acquisition, pragmatics, and discourse analysis, etc. as content knowledge, and TESOL methodology as pedagogical knowledge.

As part of a larger-scale project, this pilot study employed convenience sampling to recruit teacher participants who were available and willing to participate (Creswell & Poth, 2017). An invitation email was sent to a group of 11 secondary EFL teachers who were studying towards an MA degree in TESOL at a Vietnamese public university, fully explaining the research purpose. Since I was teaching one of the courses in the program, the teachers were informed that whether they participated in the research or not did not have any influence on their course results and that their participation in my study offered them nothing relating to the course I was teaching them. I also advised the teachers that they reserved the right to withdraw from this study at any time. Seven teachers replied and four volunteered to participate, including two males and two females, aged between 26 and 29. Neither a phonetics and phonology course nor one on pronunciation pedagogy was included in their MA TESOL program.

To ensure their confidentiality, the teachers were given the pseudonyms Hoa, Lan, Minh, and Nam in this study. The teachers earned their BA degrees in English Language Teaching from four different universities in Vietnam. They had been teaching English at high schools from four to seven years. The teachers all signed a consent form before data collection commenced.

Data collection and analysis
In response to the invitation email, the teachers completed an attached hard-copy questionnaire which was divided into two parts: part 1 collected their demographic properties, and part 2 focused on general issues about pronunciation teaching. These included: (1) how often and how the teachers usually teach English pronunciation and why, (2) how confident they are to teach pronunciation, (3) what pronunciation pedagogy training they received and what they wished to have learnt, and (4) how Vietnamese teacher education can efficiently prepare future EFL teachers to teach pronunciation. Upon completion, the teachers emailed their questionnaire responses back to me with their BA transcripts attached. They were then invited for an individual semi-structured interview at their convenience. Each interview lasted approximately for 30 minutes and was audio recorded. During the interviews, the teachers were encouraged to give examples to clarify and further elaborate on their responses to each of the questions in the questionnaire. Vietnamese was used in all the interviews to maximize understanding between the interviewer and the participants.

The data were analysed manually using thematic analysis which involved an iterative, cyclical, and inductive process of identifying and refining themes and categories in the data set (Creswell & Poth, 2017). First, I transcribed the interviews verbatim and emailed them back to the participants for member-checking, meaning the teachers had the opportunity to confirm and modify their responses. In the meantime, I analysed their

academic transcripts, looking for pronunciation pedagogy training evidence, if any. The main aim of academic transcript analysis was to verify the teachers' questionnaire and interview responses. After that, the interview transcripts were read several times and initial handwritten codes were documented in a codebook. The data were then triangulated and coded according to the initial handwritten codes that were derived from the reading stage. These codes were finally revised through an iterative process of re-reading and refining the thematic categories. Independent coding of the full data set was carried out by another Vietnamese EFL teacher to ensure the trustworthiness of the study findings. Inter-coder agreement was 85%, a satisfactory rate (Neuendorf, 2002).

Results

This section reports on the findings in relation to the two research questions. The quotes illustrating each of the three themes are the words used by the teacher-participants in their replies to the questionnaire (QR) and interview responses (IR).

"I don't usually teach pronunciation explicitly because it's not included in exams"

On the questions pertaining to their pronunciation teaching, the teachers all reported that they seldom taught pronunciation explicitly in their English classes. They explained that since their students did not speak English and pronunciation was not included in exams at school, teaching pronunciation was a waste of time. For instance, Minh responded:

> I don't usually teach pronunciation explicitly and deliberately because of many reasons. First, I'm not confident as I'm not well-trained to do it. Second, students don't need it because they're not using English for oral communication. The most important thing is that tests and exams at high schools only focus on grammar and vocabulary. So, I don't need to teach pronunciation. It's a waste of time. (Minh, QR)

During their individual interview sessions, the teachers elaborated that when they had to teach pronunciation as a prescribed task, they asked students to listen and repeat model pronunciations and sometimes corrected their pronunciation through recasts and/or prompts. The teachers believed this enabled them to complete those tasks prescribed in the textbook and simultaneously to save time for teaching what was tested. For example, Hoa said:

> When I have to teach pronunciation because it's a pronunciation lesson, I usually play the CD, ask my students to listen to and then repeat the model pronunciations in the CD. I do this quickly to have the so-called pronunciation teaching because it is very time-consuming but for no purpose because pronunciation is not included in exams. So, it's a waste of time to teach it (...) Sometimes if my students pronounce wrong, I correct their errors by asking them to repeat after me or remind them of their errors so they can self-correct. This saves me time for teaching grammar and vocabulary to help my students pass exams. (Hoa, IR)

Consistent with other teachers' instructional practices, Nam's explicit pronunciation teaching was also marginalized in his English classes and was restricted to repetition. As Nam described, he quickly taught pronunciation through listen-and-repeat activities as it was designed in the textbook to save time for grammar and vocabulary, the focus of exams. He commented:

> When it comes a pronunciation lesson, usually I get my students to listen to the model pronunciation from the tape once. Then I get them to listen again and repeat for two or three times to complete this section in the textbook quickly and this is how pronunciation activities are designed in the textbook (….) It's a very good idea to design different activities like you've mentioned for example guided practice or communicative activities, but I don't think it's necessary because students don't need them (…) well because pronunciation is not tested in exams, there's no point spending too much time on it. This time should be saved for grammar and vocabulary exercises. (Nam, IR)

"I didn't receive any training in how to teach English pronunciation"

Triangulation of the three data sources demonstrated a gap in the teachers' pronunciation pedagogy training, such that they were not equipped with sufficient knowledge necessary to develop expertise and English pronunciation teaching skills. For instance, Hoa wrote:

> I didn't receive any training in how to teach English pronunciation. My BA program mainly focused on the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, and four major English skills. The MA TESOL program I'm enrolling at present generally focuses on theories about L2 teaching and learning. Up to now, there has been nothing about pronunciation pedagogy and we're finishing the program very soon. (Hoa, QR)

Like other teachers, Nam had no academic-transcript evidence showing his pronunciation pedagogy training but reported attending a 45-minute lecture specifically focused on how to teach pronunciation during his BA course of study. As he portrayed while being interviewed, his lecturer spent that 45-minute session introducing some common techniques to teach English pronunciation. However, Nam thought that such an introduction to teaching techniques was insufficient. He cited:

> (…) No whole course in pronunciation pedagogy but one 45-minute lecture in my BA program as I mentioned in the questionnaire (...) During this lecture, my teacher asked us some questions about pronunciation teaching and then introduced some teaching techniques. You know, things like providing model pronunciations and getting students to listen and repeat using minimal pairs and tongue twisters, etc. (…) I haven't seen anything related to the teaching of pronunciation or any other language skills in this MA program and there's nothing about this in these final courses, either. So, it can be said that I received very little training in how to teach pronunciation. (Nam, IR)

Given their lack of pronunciation pedagogy training, the teachers wished to have engaged in more pronunciation practice courses and at least one session (four 45-minute periods) focused on pronunciation teaching during their courses of study. As Minh explained in his QR:

> (…) The pronunciation practice course could help me improve my own pronunciation and the sessions specifically focused on how to teach pronunciation would give me an opportunity to develop my pronunciation teaching skills. It's a pity that we didn't have these two courses in our BA program (…) I know we can practice our pronunciation skills independently but we need explicit instruction to guide our self-practice. (Minh, QR)

Interestingly, three of the teachers, despite their insufficient pronunciation pedagogy training, said they were comfortable teaching pronunciation to their English learners. They reasoned that they were confident in their pronunciation skills and their general teaching abilities, as evident in Lan's comment:

> Generally, I feel quite comfortable teaching pronunciation for two reasons. First, I believe in my ability to teach English. You know I can teach grammar or speaking well, so I'm sure I can do the same with pronunciation. Second, I think my pronunciation skill is quite good, so I can teach it well. (Lan, IR)

However, Minh reported being not very confident to teach English pronunciation since he was not well-prepared to do so. Unlike other teachers, Minh believed effective pronunciation teaching not only requires the instructor's pronunciation proficiency but also knowledge about pronunciation teaching approaches. He wrote:

> I'm not very confident. I think not only because of my pronunciation skill but also about pronunciation teaching approaches. If to teach pronunciation like asking students to listen and repeat, then I can do it. But in order to teach pronunciation effectively, frankly I don't know how to do it. I think it's not easy because teachers should not only be good at pronunciation skill but they also need to know about different teaching methods. (Minh, QR)

"Pronunciation practice and pronunciation pedagogy courses in teacher training programs can better prepare teachers to teach pronunciation"

Regarding how Vietnamese teacher education can better prepare future EFL teachers to teach pronunciation, the teachers all recommended that teacher education programs include at least one pronunciation pedagogy course. They believed such a course gives student-teachers the opportunity to understand pronunciation teaching principles and approaches, which help them develop expertise and teaching skills. Hoa wrote:

> Training programs should include one course specifically focused on pronunciation pedagogy. This is very important as it helps student-teachers understand pronunciation pedagogy, know how to teach different features, what techniques to use and why, etc. Also, this course needs to allow student-teachers

to practice these theories and techniques via teaching practicum or whatever during the course. (Hoa, QR)

Holding the same belief as other teachers, Lan and Minh also suggested that Vietnamese EFL teacher education include a pronunciation practice course. They said that this course helps student-teachers practice and improve their own pronunciation, which subsequently is useful for their pronunciation teaching after graduation. As Minh elaborated during his interview:

> Pronunciation practice and pronunciation pedagogy courses in teacher training programs can better prepare teachers to teach pronunciation. These two courses are very important and have their own values, I think (...) Well, the pronunciation practice course gives student-teachers the opportunity to practice their own pronunciation skills. The more they practice, the better their pronunciation will be, I'm sure (…) This is very necessary because for me good pronunciation skills contribute to making student-teachers become more confident when they teach pronunciation in the future (…) The pronunciation pedagogy course helps student-teachers master pronunciation teaching techniques and approaches (...) As I've said, effective pronunciation teaching requires teachers' good pronunciation skills and knowledge about teaching methods, so these two courses should be included in the program. (Minh, IR)

Lan further urged that Vietnamese EFL teacher education include a separate course in phonetics and phonology, allowing student-teachers to obtain English phonology knowledge, which, in turn, enables them to teach pronunciation effectively after graduation. From her own learning experience, Lan explained that the undergraduate teacher training program she attended did not have a whole course in English phonetics and phonology. Instead, it was integrated as part of a 60-period course, namely Introduction to Linguistics, in which semantics, morphology, syntax, and phonetics were all included. Lan said that such a timeframe was not sufficient for student-teachers to develop understandings about each of these four branches of English linguistics. As such, she suggested that phonetics and phonology be covered as a separate whole course. She said:

> (…) Apart from these two courses, I think training programs should include phonetics and phonology as a stand-alone course because it helps student-teachers build a knowledge base about English phonology to help them teach pronunciation better later. I know many universities have this separate course but some don't and the university I went to was an example. I don't understand why but the program I studied only had a course entitled Introduction to Linguistics that integrated semantics, morphology, syntax, and phonetics as a single course (…) This course lasted in 60 periods, so each subject was taught in 15 periods which is not enough for us to build a good background for effective pronunciation teaching (…). (Lan, IR)

Taken together, the three data sources revealed that the teachers were not well-prepared but were confident to teach pronunciation and that explicit, systematic pronunciation teaching was usually neglected in their English classes. When they taught pronunciation deliberately as a prescribed task, they simply asked students to listen to and repeat model pronunciations or corrected their pronunciation errors through recasts and/or prompts. The teachers suggested that EFL teacher education programs in Vietnam include one pronunciation practice course and another course on pronunciation pedagogy to enable student-teachers to improve their own pronunciation and develop expertise in pronunciation teaching.

Discussion and implications

The study has found that the teachers did not usually teach pronunciation explicitly in class and when they did it as a prescribed task, it was listen-and-repeat activities that they used. This finding aligns with previous research demonstrating the participants' reliance on repetition drills as the main approach to pronunciation teaching (Couper, 2017; Nguyen & Newton, 2020; Wahid & Sulong, 2013). Although repetition is important to L2 learners' pronunciation improvement (Saito & Lyster, 2012), it is "no longer a satisfactory tool for either the educator or the learner" (Adams-Goertel, 2013, p.121). In the present study, the teachers also reported correcting their students' pronunciation at times using recasts and/or prompts. The influential role of corrective feedback in helping L2 learners develop language competency has been well-documented (Ellis, 2009; Nassaji, 2017). However, research has also shown that not many L2 learners would like teachers to correct their pronunciation errors through recasts and/or prompts (Couper, 2019; Nguyen, 2019). Instead, explicit instruction focused on both form and meaning is of paramount importance for them to develop their L2 pronunciation (Derwing, 2018; Foote & Trofimovich, 2018; Nguyen & Hung, 2021). Thus, it might be more meaningful if teachers teach pronunciation explicitly, immersing L2 learners in both form- and meaning-focused practice.

The study further shows that the teachers were insufficiently trained to teach English pronunciation. This finding confirms previous research suggesting that many teachers received limited pronunciation pedagogy training (Bai & Yuan, 2019; Couper, 2017; Nguyen & Newton, 2020). Derwing (2010) has also pointed out that not many L2TE programs in Canada cover pronunciation pedagogy. In the present study, the teachers' lack of pronunciation pedagogy training may impede the efficacy of their classroom instruction given that teachers who receive little guidance on how to teach pronunciation usually rely on their own intuition leading to ineffective teaching practices (Derwing & Munro, 2015). Therefore, it is important for L2TE to include at least one course specifically focused on pronunciation pedagogy to assist L2 teachers to teach pronunciation effectively (Baker, 2014; Buss, 2017).

An interesting finding of the present study is that the teachers, despite their lack of pronunciation pedagogy training, reported being confident to teach English

pronunciation because of their pronunciation skills. This finding is encouraging as it supports Levis et al.'s (2016) claim that non-native English teachers are still able to teach pronunciation confidently. However, empirical evidence is necessary to shed light on whether the teachers are really competent to teach pronunciation in their English classes. Additionally, this finding contradicts a general claim that effective pronunciation instructors need knowledge of phonetics and phonology (content knowledge) and of how to teach pronunciation (pedagogical knowledge) (Baker, 2014; Crystal, 2019; Derwing & Munro, 2015; Levis, 2018). Previous studies have shown that many L2 teachers felt insecure to teach pronunciation because of their lack of both content and pedagogical knowledge (Bai & Yuan, 2019; Couper, 2017; Foote et al., 2011). Thus, observational data, a clear limitation of the present study, are needed to examine how confident and competent the teachers really are when they teach pronunciation in intact classes. This is important given that such observational data can be used to verify the teachers' reported pronunciation teaching practices and that research has consistently shown a mismatch between what teachers said and what they did in class (Ha & Murray, 2021; Phipps & Borg, 2007; Wahid & Sulong, 2013).

Finally, the study revealed the teachers' belief that Vietnamese teacher education needs to include pronunciation practice and pronunciation pedagogy courses to enhance student teachers' pronunciation and pedagogical skills before they start teaching. This finding lends support to Burri's (2015) proposition of giving student teachers the opportunity to improve their own pronunciation and subsequently foster pronunciation teaching skills. One teacher also suggested having a stand-alone course in phonetics and phonology to enable student teachers to develop content knowledge specifically required for effective pronunciation instruction. This view supports Baker's (2014) recommendation of providing pre-service teachers with both knowledge of English phonology and pronunciation teaching approaches.

Given that L2TE may have substantial influence on L2 teachers' knowledge and beliefs about language learning and teaching (Lee, 2015; Macalister, 2023), it is urgent that Vietnamese EFL teacher education include more training in pronunciation skills and pedagogy, providing Vietnamese secondary EFL teachers with sufficient knowledge and skills required for effective pronunciation teaching. This is important because phonological knowledge and pronunciation-pedagogical knowledge make up the knowledge base that helps ESL/EFL teachers teach pronunciation with confidence (Baker, 2014; Baker & Murphy, 2011; Brinton, 2018; Levis, 2018).

Conclusions
This research is an initial step to understand how Vietnamese secondary EFL teachers teach pronunciation and how sufficiently trained they are to teach pronunciation, providing grounds for future research to be carried out. With the inclusion of observational data, my later study and other subsequent research will together paint the complete picture of pronunciation teaching at Vietnamese secondary schools and how

well-prepared Vietnamese EFL teachers are to teach pronunciation. This body of work will in turn make important contributions to the international literature on pronunciation teaching practices at secondary settings. Through four experienced secondary EFL teachers' narratives, this pilot study has revealed an important gap in Vietnamese EFL teacher education regarding pronunciation teaching, such that the teachers were not well-prepared to teach English pronunciation. Thus, it is necessary that future L2TE include more coverage of pronunciation pedagogy to help Vietnamese EFL teachers efficiently teach pronunciation. Although the teachers reported being confident in their pronunciation teaching skills, explicit, deliberate pronunciation teaching was almost neglected in their English classes due to the nature of testing practices. The study findings are of value for practitioners, teacher educators, curriculum designers, and stakeholders alike within the Vietnamese EFL sector and beyond.

Apart from the lack of observation data as acknowledged above, another limitation of this pilot study is that it involved only four secondary EFL teachers, providing only part of the whole picture about how Vietnamese secondary EFL teachers teach pronunciation in their English classes. Such a small sample therefore limits the generalizability of the study findings. Additionally, Vietnamese universities are largely autonomous in designing EFL teacher training programs which may vary from institution to institution regarding the coverage of pronunciation pedagogy training. Future studies should therefore involve a larger pool of teachers who receive training from different universities, including those with current postgraduate TESOL programs such as the one in this pilot study, across the country.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Nation, P. & Coxhead, A. (2021). *Measuring Native-Speaker Vocabulary Size.* John Benjamins Publishing Company. ISBN 9027208132 (pbk.)., 160 pp.

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This book is targeted at researchers and students of Applied Linguistics, teachers in secondary education and, possibly, ESOL teachers with a specific interest in vocabulary. It contains a critical review of over 100 years of research into native speaker vocabulary size and examines, in detail, the methodologies and findings of numerous studies. Shortcomings in these studies are highlighted and mutually agreed findings acknowledged. As well as specific data, more general interesting facts abound, for example, the "very rough rule of thumb that for people up to 18 years we can multiply their age in years minus 2 by 1,000 base words or less per year to get an indication of probable vocabulary size in word families" (p.29).

The core of this book, as the title states, is about measuring vocabulary size. These chapters are rich in data and statistics, with numerous informative charts and tables. Key information is summarized in numbered lists and overviews, making it convenient to refer to.

In describing the challenges that researchers in this area have faced over the years, Nation and Coxhead are meticulous in their explanations of how vocabulary samples can be measured reliably. The complexities involved in gathering data, sample size, test conditions and what is actually counted as a word are covered in depth and the reasons behind the inadequacies of some studies are clearly explained. Chapter 3 discusses dictionary-based studies, while chapter 6 examines frequency-list based studies. These chapters also provide recommendations on to how to conduct a reliable study of either type.

In chapter 10, the authors identify the steps and procedures required to design and deliver a vocabulary size test. The chapter covers all the factors that need to be considered in conducting a research project such as deciding the purpose of the test, who should be included, what should be measured and how. If you needed to develop such a test, whatever your setting, this section alone would be invaluable. The appendices include instructions for individual test administration and vocabulary size test feedback from the 2018 study by Coxhead, Nation, Woods, and Sim.

However, in addition to the sections on research into measuring vocabulary, the authors provide a vast amount of information detailing the processes of acquiring and learning vocabulary. For teachers not directly involved in research, these sections provide key

insights into the vital role of vocabulary for all learners whatever their age or circumstances. For instance, chapters 2 and 4 investigate productive and receptive vocabulary sizes in young people, clarifying that productive vocabulary does not necessarily represent actual vocabulary knowledge (noted by Hoff, 2003, cited in Nation & Coxhead, 2021) which is useful for ESOL students to be aware of as they build their vocabulary.

For teachers, chapters 7 and 8 are probably the most insightful and practical. Chapter 7 focuses on factors that affect the size and growth of vocabulary and is a reminder of the multiple factors that determine vocabulary growth whether for native or non-native users of English. These factors include age, personal and social factors, life experience, opportunities for language input and usage, as well as the learning conditions and knowledge of other languages. Chapter 8 looks at how vocabulary growth can be supported in all age groups. It discusses parental input, interaction at school, the role of extensive reading and how to develop deliberate 'word consciousness', a term first used in 2004 by Scott and Nagy (cited in Nation & Coxhead, 2021). The ideas for developing this consciousness include awareness of word families, prefixes and suffixes, and knowing which words are most used. This chapter also includes specific guidelines for primary teachers on how to support vocabulary growth (p. 88). Additionally, it gives interesting advice for adult learners wanting to develop their vocabulary: a nod to lifelong learning and how to keep older brains active, as well as fans of online word games!

Chapter 11, the final chapter, covers gaps in the research, such as measuring total vocabulary size and rate of growth. Areas yet to be investigated include how young non-native speaker immigrants learn English vocabulary, an issue especially pertinent in the Aotearoa classroom today.

As one would expect from the authors, this book is a comprehensive study, leaving no stone unturned. Hence, it is probably best used selectively. As a teacher and lover of words, I found it fascinating. As a non-statistician, the in-depth data was hard going, but the book has a user-friendly format making it easy for the reader to locate their particular areas of interest. For researchers in the field of lexis, this study provides far more than its slim size suggests.

Planchenault, G., & Poljak, L. (Eds.). (2021). *Pragmatics of accents*. John Benjamins. ISBN 978-90-272-09887 (hbk.), 266 pp.

Jonathon Ryan, Wintec | Te Pūkenga, Hamilton, New Zealand

For a term with such wide currency, it may come as a surprise that the concept of accent remains greatly under-theorized. Even a satisfying definition is elusive beyond agreeing that acoustic properties of speech are associated with social and regional identities. Pragmatics is also contested, though in this volume the emphasis is (sensibly) on meaning-making within social interaction. The 'pragmatics of accent', then, essentially refers to the role of accent in indexing social identities and thereby contributing to meaning in interaction. But what does *that* mean?

As an illustration of this phenomenon, consider the following example supplied by a Chinese informant in the context of re-negotiating a hot pool reservation. Observing that the receptionist was Asian, my Chinese informant sensed a possible opportunity to negotiate in Mandarin. However, if she merely assumed the receptionist was also Chinese, to other East Asians this might appear chauvinistic. Conversely, if she spoke confidently in English with little trace of a Chinese accent, to a Chinese addressee she might seem conceited, and the interaction would likely continue in English. She faced a dilemma. Her solution was to affect an exaggerated Chinese accent. She reasoned that this would unmistakably signal her membership as Chinese and—alongside some calculated dysfluency—indicate her willingness to switch to Mandarin. Ultimately, after such self-deprecation, she was thoroughly irritated that her unhelpful addressee responded entirely in English and that it was unmistakably Chinese-accented. In this example, my informant engaged in a performance of accent to present a stylized social identity for a communicative purpose.

Though intriguing, such phenomena have received very little sustained and in-depth treatment in previous literature. The appearance of the present volume is therefore very welcome and it also proves very satisfying. There are 12 chapters in total, covering a range of territory and methodological approaches, and each is of a high standard. Most chapters present a consolidation and extension of a series of previously published works by their author(s). For instance, Barrata's chapter draws on data from three of his previous studies on (native speaker) teacher accents.

Planchenault and Poljak's introduction provides a very engaging and motivating entry to the topic. Thereafter, the chapters are thematically organised into three parts. Part one consists of four chapters, mainly focusing on accents within national contexts (France, Japan and Germany), with the first (Prikhodkine) discussing the processes by which attitudes develop towards accents. Prikhodkine's lengthy literature review is particularly helpful, introducing key concepts and alternative terminology, and reminding us that lay references to accent are often laden with value judgments. The following three chapters

also consider the interaction between accent and practices of discrimination or stigmatization, whether of regional dialects (Everhart), signifiers of class (Trimaille & Candea) or specific groups of second language users (Du Bois). Du Bois' chapter is a highlight, combining quantitative analysis of nearly 300 phone calls to arrange apartment viewings in Germany, and close turn-by-turn analyses of how discrimination is evident in the handling of calls by Turkish clients.

Part two of the volume will be of most interest to TESOLANZ readers, with its focus on accents in second language education. Levis and McCrocklin's chapter discusses the role of L2 accents in identity construction in educational settings, covering territory including the influence of age on L2 accent and the pressures and discrimination on international teaching assistants and non-native English teachers. The following chapter by Baratta presents three case studies of teachers in England who were, at different times in their careers, instructed to modify their strong regional accents, providing a fascinating insight into the relationship between accent, class, and prejudice. This is followed by Carrie's study of Spanish university students and the accents they adopt in L2 English, explored in terms of their attitudes towards RP and General American accents and speakers, and their L2 learner identities and 'possible selves'.

The final three chapters include Chung's analysis and critique of the use of 'yellowvoice'—exaggerated Asian L2 English accents—in film and television by Asian American performers, followed by Villanueva and Ensslin's analysis of the language ideologies behind the choice of accents in the fictional worlds of video games. Setzer et al. present a fascinating, nuanced account of the stereotyping of a doctor with a Chinese accent by English Canadians and Chinese Canadians. The volume is rounded out with concluding remarks by Boudrea and Gasquet-Cyrus.

I found this a very rewarding collection. If I had to quibble, it would only be that not all chapters are strictly concerned with pragmatics, though admittedly definitions vary. Nevertheless, the reader is rewarded throughout with fascinating insights, whether mentioned in passing, such as evidence that even 'strong' L2 accents often have no impact on unintelligibility and comprehensibility (Levis & McCrocklin), or as the main conclusion of a series of studies, such as Trimaille and Candea's conclusion that accent perception is shaped not just by acoustic features, but by visual cues of identity (clothing, gestures etc.), vocabulary choice and other assumptions. Strongly recommended.

Lee, J.S. (2021). *Informal digital learning of English: Research to practice***. Taylor & Francis. ISBN 9781003043454 (ebk.), 178 pp.**

Reviewed by Sue Edwards, Wintec | Te Pūkenga, Hamilton, New Zealand

The title of this book will no doubt attract many teachers of English language who know that their students continue to learn outside the formal classroom setting, and who often encourage their learners to do so. In the past, informal learning of English may have centred on extensive reading, conversations in English, particularly with English speakers, viewing of English movies and television, and a variety of writing activities in English, such as letter writing and book reports. These activities almost certainly continue but have been increasingly supplemented with digital and online activities chosen by the learners themselves, which provide exposure to and practice of English language content and skills, both inside and outside of the classroom. Lee notes that although there has been research in this field for about 10 years, it is still considered "a peripheral rather than a mainstream element in second language learning" (p. 4). Lee defines 'informal digital learning' as "self-directed English activities in informal digital settings, motivated by personal interests and undertaken independently without being assessed by a teacher" (p. 1). Abbreviated to IDLE (Informal Digital Learning of English), it is a memorable acronym, although not reflective of the fact that learners are anything but idle when undertaking such activities!

Lee clearly states his three goals for the book in its first paragraph: "(1) to highlight Informal Digital Learning of English (IDLE) as a rapidly emerging phenomenon among contemporary English learners, (2) to offer empirical data on the relationship between IDLE and language learning outcomes, and (3) to provide pedagogical recommendations to English teachers" (p.2). In Chapter 1, the author refers to the fact that although digital learning is incorporated into many formal learning environments, teachers also want to maximise learner use of digital learning in informal contexts. Hence, the book was written to provide pedagogical insights in this area for teachers.

The remaining seven chapters of the book cover a wide range of topics, including a review of how technology has been used in language learning since about the 1970s, broadly known as CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning); a detailed description of aspects of IDLE; an introduction to LBC (Language Beyond the Classroom); a systematic review of pedagogical advantages of IDLE activities; introduction of a model for using IDLE in formal classroom contexts with the aim of supporting learners in their informal contexts; presentation of two formats for teacher workshops designed to prepare teachers to integrate IDLE into their current classrooms; and a discussion of directions for future practice and research.

Chapter 2 provides valuable background to the remainder of the book, by summarising the teaching and learning of CALL since the 1960s. Three trends in the field of CALL are labelled 'in-class CALL', 'extracurricular CALL', and 'extramural CALL', with the first two used by teachers inside the classroom, while the latter focuses on the use of computers by learners of second languages outside the classroom, initiated by the learners themselves. In other words, there has been a transition from a focus on the role of teachers in the selection and use of the technology, to the role of learners, largely made possible from about 2010 onwards by the increasing availability of personal digital devices. Alongside this trend, Lee also reports on four stages in the evolution of CALL, according to the technology that has been available, and how these matched key trends in language learning and teaching—these four stages are labelled structural, communicative, integrative, and ecological CALL.

Chapter 3 explains how IDLE became situated within the overall context of CALL, documenting events and research about this. It is interesting to note that Lee was able to find evidence of gatherings of researchers, teachers, teacher educators and e-learning professionals held with the express purpose of discussing IDLE only since 2018. This chapter reviews publications since that time, as well as conferences and seminars which have been "devoted entirely to informal language learning" (p.11).

The concept of IDLE is further explored and divided into four dimensions of Out of Class Language Learning (OCLL), these being Formality, Location (inside or outside the classroom), Pedagogy (instructed or naturalistic), and Locus of Control (other-directed or self-directed). Lee also introduces the distinction between extramural CALL (self-directed, digital learning of English in out-of-class contexts, which are linked to a formal language program), and extracurricular CALL ("self-directed, naturalistic, digital learning of English in unstructured, out-of-class environments, independent of a formal language program" [p. 14]). Lee states that his main concern in writing this book is with the latter, i.e., extramural CALL, and he provides these four key characteristics— it is unstructured, out-of-class, naturalistic, and self-directed. He notes that IDLE has become a growing trend across Asia, and cites the case of a Korean mother who assisted her children to become bilingual using books, TV, animation and YouTube. He also describes two rappers, Korean and Indonesian, who reported improving their use of English through self-initiated IDLE activities.

Chapter 3 ends with a comprehensive summary of 'the ten principles of IDLE', noting that they "can complement the drawbacks of a formal education of English" (p. 18). Each of the 10 principles are described and contrasted with learning in a formal situation, with IDLE seen to have advantages over formal learning. For example, the principle of autonomy, meaning that learners can take charge of their own learning, is best enabled by an IDLE learning context, whereas learners have less autonomy in a traditional classroom situation. Other principles include accessibility, motivation,

authenticity, identity and investment, flow, grit, affective filter, multimodality, and (un)intentional learning.

Chapter 4 introduces the concept of LBC (Language Learning and Teaching Beyond the Classroom), and then divides this into two categories. These are termed 'LBC offline and online' and 'LBC only'. The first of these would include any kind of informal language learning which is self-instructed, and could include online learning, whereas LBC online takes place in the digital environment. Types of learners which could be included in the category of LBC Online and Offline could include FASILs (Fully Autonomous Self-Instructed Learners); these are learners who have learned English mainly through informal means, and this would probably be mainly unintentional learning. Other types of learners in this category are labelled 'Recreational language learners', in which English is learned through recreational activities such as playing online games using English, and learners who participate in 'Extramural English', both of which encompass online and offline learning contexts. In contrast, LBC Online refers to a variety of exclusively online learning environments. These are categorised as: 'CALL in the digital wilds' (learners do not rely on or use online environments created for language learning), 'Naturalistic CALL', 'Online Informal Learning of English', 'Online Informal Language Learning', 'Online Informal Learning of English', and Out-of-class Autonomous Language Learning with Technology. These terms refer to similar contexts, and share the characteristic that learning is taking place in an environment which is unrelated to any formal learning context or requirement.

Chapter 5 moves into a discussion of "the pedagogical advantages of IDLE-related activities" (p. 3). Lee presents and summarises a great deal of research which suggests that IDLE-related activities are positively related to affective factors, as well as linguistic and cognitive aspects of learning. This research indicates that IDLE-oriented activities are positively associated with affective dimensions of English learning (e.g., enjoyment, motivation, grit, willingness to communicate [WTC] in a second language). For example, IDLE activities may lessen learners' L2 speaking anxiety, may result in positive attitudes towards learning English and may result in higher motivation to learn English. Other affective factors are also discussed in detail—willingness to communicate in a second language, grit, and confidence. Linguistic and cognitive benefits of IDLE activities are also presented, supported by research findings. These include advantages for learners in acquiring speaking skills, vocabulary, grammar, improvement in English grades, scores in English standardised tests, and learners' perceptions of the use of English as an international language.

Having argued the many advantages of IDLE, Chapter 6 focuses on how IDLE could be integrated in formal learning contexts, and how teachers could provide affective, cognitive, and behavioural support for learners to encourage them to participate in IDLE activities to gain the advantages suggested. Lee introduces a three-stage model for including IDLE in formal learning contexts, moving from supplementing formal

learning to independent learning activities, and makes it clear that "the ultimate pedagogical goal [is]: to help students engage in their own IDLE activities independently and continuously without any intervention from a teacher" (p. 88). This involves moving from in-class CALL to Extracurricular CALL to Extramural CALL (concepts developed in Chapter 2). Numerous examples and research findings are included for each of these stages.

The second part of Chapter 6 provides suggestions for teachers who want to support learners to engage in IDLE activities outside the classroom, with numerous examples of how teachers can provide affective, cognitive, and behavioural support. Lee proposes that teachers learn more about their learners' existing engagement with IDLE activities. He cites a study which found that teacher modelling of the use of technology had a positive effect on learners' use of technology out of class. Teachers could also provide resources and advice for using technology outside the classroom and could encourage learners to complete assignments outside the classroom using IDLE activities.

Chapter 7 is aimed particularly at teacher educators, or those conducting teacher professional development, and presents details of how to run two workshops—one six hours in length, and one 30 hours long. The six-hour workshop is based on an actual workshop that was run with a group of primary and secondary school language teachers in Hong Kong in 2020-2021. This contains suggestions for activities and how teachers could introduce and foster IDLE activities with their learners, including specific games and learning strategies linked to the improvement of English language skills. The longer workshop contains similar content, but also enables teachers to experience the three stages of CALL (in-class, extracurricular, and extramural CALL). Each of the five sessions in the workshop is described in detail, and could be used as a model for others. Feedback from both workshops is also reported.

The final chapter, Chapter 8, begins with a summary of challenges for English teachers in the 21st Century. These include challenges from technology itself, including AI, meaning that language learning may not longer be needed, or learners may just learn on their own, whether in formal or informal contexts. Lee comments that while L2 teachers may be expected to provide support for maximizing students' Out of Class Language Learning (OCLL), "those who are confined to conventional classroom-centered paradigms may, in the future, find it challenging to teach English" (p. 161). The final section of this chapter, and the book, suggests seven directions for future practice and research, although these are not prioritised, and no conclusions are drawn.

Overall, this book provides teachers and teacher educators with an in-depth examination of the current realities of learner (and teacher) engagement with learner-initiated English language learning activities which are carried out outside of formal classrooms. Rather than ignoring this reality, Lee's work, and the research he reports on, implies that teachers will benefit from considering all the advantages that these activities may offer for learners, and the benefits that may result from teachers encouraging learners in

formal classes to engage in these activities outside of class. Although Lee notes that the two learning situations (in-class and out-of-class) can complement each other, as noted in the final chapter, this may be challenging for teachers. The book certainly provides food for thought and may be a useful guide for teachers as they navigate the ever-changing digital world which their learners are engaging with.

Sánchez Fajardo, J.A. (2022). *Pejorative suffixes and combining forms in English*. **John Benjamins Publishing Company. ISBN 978-90-272-1060-9 (hbk.) xvi + 229pp.**

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Like the first lines in a novel can set the tone for a book so do the opening lines of this book under review: 'The need to semantically depreciate standard words is a linguistic universal. English therefore is no exception' (p. 1). This is a rather polite way of saying humans need ways to express their dislike and even hatred of one another or of other things. While this may seem like a sad indictment of our species it is useful understanding the process by which these negative expressions develop.

This text is a monograph and as such is a serious piece of research that is needed to further our knowledge of suffixes and combining forms. While the language used is academic, the examples and explanations are accessible to non-specialists. Sánchez Fajardo states that previous research (Finkbeiner et al., 2016) has had definitions of pejoration focusing on how a speaker uses pejoratives to evaluate something or someone as 'being bad' (p. 7). It is this point that sets Sánchez Fajardo's study apart from other studies of pejorative suffixes and combining forms. His approach is more holistic as he incorporates the intersection of semantics, pragmatics, morphology, and syntax in his work.

The introduction notes the aim of the text with its focus on 15 pejorative forms (suffixes and combining forms). Sánchez Fajardo states that the scope of the study is restricted to providing more fine-grained insights as opposed to previous studies that tend to use contextualised corpora. This departure from other studies does provide the insights that would be missed by other studies. Also, Sánchez Fajardo ends the introduction with a warning about the use of examples that could offend readers. While it would be easy to assume a study about pejoratives would have offensive language and connotation, it is commendable that the warning is here.

Chapter 1 focuses on pejoration and explores the theoretical concepts behind it through both previous research and expanding it through the current study. Sánchez Fajardo looks at taboo and slur lexis that intersect with pejoratives. Some examples that are around the idea that pejoration is not semantically static involve extension. The neutral or technical term 'lunatic' gets shortened to the pejorative' loony' (p. 13). This is termed a 'merged pejorative' which means a pejorative that originated from words or expressions with neutral or even positive connotations. This is of note as the author is focusing on merged pejoratives rather than pure pejoratives. Much of this chapter explains and provides examples in the context of taboo and racial slurs, through the use of secondary literature, these 'merged pejoratives'.

The process of forming these pejoratives, is outlined in Chapter 2. Here the author contends that pejoratives are not single word-formation process but result from a number of processes from clipping (communist to commie) to affixation (-o as in fatso or sicko). Essentially, it is these processes that demonstrate the complexity and variety of pejoratives. Sánchez Fajardo makes good use of popular media from newspapers to TV series to provide engaging examples. A part of this variety of pejoratives includes the use of personal names to emphasise pejorative traits. Describing someone as Hitler or Stalin falls into this category. Yet this also extends to racial slurs like Shylock (famous Jewish character) or Mick (Irish).

While the first two chapters lay out the theoretical framework, the following chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6 investigate the 15 pejorative suffixes and combining forms. Each chapter has a cognitive transition focus of diminution, excess, resemblance, and metonymy/synecdoche. The data for these four chapters is itemised in the Appendices according to lemmas, etymons, and senses. The original sources for these come from English dictionaries and corpora noted in the reference list. While there are acknowledged limitations when compared to large corpora used in the field of corpus linguistics, nonetheless this study provides valuable insights through its narrower focus. Future research could build on the author's models using larger corpora.

Sánchez Fajardo's monograph has ably determined the morphological and semantic structures of pejoratives that come from 15 suffixes and combining forms. The nature and breadth of detail in doing this has provided linguists with a sound reference book. The challenge is now for other researchers to build upon this and expand our knowledge and use of pejoration. This well-rounded study would be of interest to a wide range of linguists and those who love language.

References

Finkbeiner, R., Meibauer, J., & Wiese, H. (2016). What is pejoration, and how can it be expressed in language? In M. Finkbeiner, J. Meibauer & H. Wiese. (Ed.) *Pejoration* (pp. 1-20): John Benjamins.

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

8. Enquiries and submissions should be sent by email to the editor, Dr Oliver Ballance, O.J.Ballance@massey.ac.nz. The preferred format is MSWord.

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

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11. The closing date for the submission of manuscripts for 2024 is **Wednesday 31 July.**