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THE TESOLANZ JOURNAL

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EDITORIAL

This special edition of the 30th volume of The TESOLANZ Journal contains the proceedings of the 17th National Conference for Community Languages and ESOL. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, this was the first-ever completely virtual conference that TESOLANZ (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages New Zealand) Inc. and CLANZ (Community Languages Association New Zealand) had organised. The conference was to be hosted in Auckland, from Friday 9th to Saturday 10th October, 2021 but was instead hosted on a virtual platform. The conference convenor was Christine Hanley; the programme convenor was Ailsa Deverick.

The key purpose of the conference was to acknowledge the ongoing need to make connections by reaching across borders and continuing to build a strong professional community of expertise and practice. A face-to-face conference was the preferred option; however, the move to a quality digital platform meant the conference could proceed and allowed people to personalise their own conference experience and connect in different ways.

The programme aimed to capture the learning gained in our profession over the previous nearly two years of teaching during a pandemic. It covered key aspects of our profession from language teacher education, bilingual and multilingual education, and classroom teaching practices to innovations in language learning and teaching, technology and language learning, and programme design. Thank you to all who presented, attended, and supported the conference during this challenging time.

The articles selected for this journal closely reflect the spirit of the conference theme 'Whiria te Reo, Whiria te Tāngata: Weave the Language, Weave the People', in that they focus on the ever-changing landscape of learning and teaching in New Zealand.

Explicit in the title of the first article, **Christine Mashlan** and **Karen Cebalo,** ESOL specialists within a Kāhui Ako (Community of Learning), describe the need for an alternative model of teaching English Language Learners (ELLs) in schools. Instead of withdrawing students from mainstream and teaching them in ESOL classrooms, the authors developed a detailed five-step model to coach classroom teachers to include meaningful ESOL strategies in their planning and teaching which they successfully trialled in two primary schools. Initial findings show that these inclusive strategies benefit students, and teachers' professional development, and there is motivation to continue to develop this as a sustainable model in primary and intermediate schools in the Kāhui Ako, and later in secondary schools.

Motivated by her learnings from CLESOL 2018 around plurilingual pedagogical practices, **Gwenna Finikin** documents an Action Learning Inquiry Project she undertook in her primary ESOL classroom over a two-year period. Designed to

encourage the use of te reo Māori and the children's home languages, alongside their use of English, Gwenna introduced a translanguaging approach to her classroom practice. As a result of this intervention, and despite the limitations outlined by the author, there was evidence that the children grew in language skill and confidence in all languages and were keen for more opportunities to share and explore language and culture.

In his article, **David Ishii** suggests an approach to reading academic texts that he designed to help ESOL undergraduate students use their own words to paraphrase content more effectively. He first backgrounds the socio-cultural context of the study, and the inherent challenges students face reading and understanding texts. He then provides examples of common mistakes novice writers make before detailing a series of pre and post reading-to-paraphrase activities. Evidence from his study shows that completing these activities can help students develop skills to give them a greater understanding of the text and topic, and to help them pay closer attention to the language and content in their readings.

Vera Nistor reports on a mentoring initiative she introduced to academic staff teaching on an English for Academic Purposes programme in a tertiary institution. She provides a literature review covering the concept of mentoring, then targets an approach designed to meet the stated need of participants to support their individual professional development goals. Using an experiential task-based learning cycle as a model vehicle, participants reflected on the process which the author documents using surveys and semi-structured interviews. The findings suggest that the link between the trial model and teachers' respective professional development goals was useful but held certain limitations which, over time, will be explored and further developed.

Tim Edwards begins his article by summarising recent literature on teaching online during the Covid-19 pandemic, drawing parallels with previous research undertaken by the same author, published in 2020. He outlines a research project undertaken on an English for Specific Purposes programme that had moved online under Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT) conditions in 2020. Participants' feedback on their experiences was documented, with the overall intention of applying the recommendations derived from the findings to future online courses. The article concludes that successful online teaching can be achieved with specific preparation and planning.

Christine Hanley, Ailsa Deverick and Jean Parkinson

May 2022

A PROFESSIONAL LEARNING DEVELOPMENT MODEL: UTILISING ESOL SPECIALISTS TO UPSKILL TEACHERS IN SUPPORTING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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Abstract

Cultural and linguistic diversity in New Zealand schools has increased significantly in recent years. However, many classroom teachers may not have had pre-service or in-service professional development in supporting English Language Learners (ELLs) in their classrooms. As a result, English for Speakers of Other Language (ESOL) specialists are attempting to cater for increased numbers of ELLs in their programmes. This report outlines a model for a Professional Growth Cycle (PGC) to equip teachers to better support ELLs in the context of their own classrooms. The model has been developed and implemented by two ESOL specialists within a New Zealand Kāhui Ako (Community of Learning) in their own schools. The cycle involves the ESOL specialist working with each class teacher through five key steps including observation, reflection, and collaborative planning. The class teachers are supported in utilising appropriate ESOL strategies and Ministry of Education resources in their teaching practice. The model has been implemented successfully in these two schools with overwhelmingly positive teacher-response and the aim is to develop it across all primary and intermediate schools in the Kāhui Ako, later adapting it for use in the secondary school.

Background

Cultural and linguistic diversity in New Zealand schools has grown significantly and Auckland schools particularly reflect this. The Education Review Office (ERO) 'Responding to Language Diversity in Auckland' (2018) report states that "Auckland is New Zealand's most culturally diverse city, with over 100 ethnicities and more than 150 languages spoken on a daily basis". In 2017, the Kāhui Ako at the centre of this report served a culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) student population with 34% having a first language other than English. This percentage continues to increase. It comprises an actively engaged community of ESOL specialists from 5 primary schools, one intermediate and one secondary school, with high collective expertise. However, the increased number of ELLs has put additional pressure on a standard model of withdrawing ELLs from their mainstream classroom to attend English lessons in the ESOL classroom. Additionally, many classroom teachers are reporting that they are not equipped with the skills required to support the larger numbers of increasingly diverse learners. This report outlines a model which utilises the expertise of the specialists to upskill the classroom teachers so that ELLs are better catered for within their class context.

In 2018, the Year 4 to13 students across the Kāhui Ako participated in the NZCER (New Zealand Council for Educational Research, n.d.) "Wellbeing@School" survey. The data was recorded in the "Achievement Challenge Approach Plan and Memorandum of Agreement for the Mid Bays Kāhui Ako" and informed the Kāhui Ako drivers for the following three years. The key item relevant to this article was "Teachers are interested in my culture and background" (Table 1). The results indicated that 30.3% of year 4-6 respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed, while 65.2% agreed or strongly agreed. At years 7-8, 42.4% disagreed or strongly disagreed and 53.1% agreed or strongly agreed. Considering the diversity in the school communities, this was a concerning result.

Table 1:
2018 Student Responses to the NZCER "Wellbeing@School" survey

Combined Kāhui Ako Student Response to the question - Teachers are interested in my culture and background									
Student responses	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		No response
	2018	2021	2018	2021	2018	2021	2018	2021	
Yr 4-6 Σ898	4.8%		25.5%		47.7%		17.5%		2018=38
Yr 7-8 Σ558	8.2%	4%	34.2%	26%	43.7%	54%	9.4%	15%	2018=24 2021=20
Yr 9-13 Σ1122	11.8%	-	40.2%	-	32.7%		3.7%		2018=127

Note. Data is taken from the responses to the survey item: "Teachers are interested in my culture and background". Adapted from "Achievement Challenge Approach Plan and Memorandum of Agreement for the Mid Bays Kāhui Ako", Version 2, July 2018.

Consequently, the Kāhui Ako identified an achievement challenge relating to culturally responsive pedagogy and employed an ASL (Across Schools Leader) to address how effectively schools responded to the cultural and linguistic diversity and an additional ASL was employed in 2021. Survey data gathered from 2018 to 2021, including the Wellbeing@School (NZCER, n.d.) and the Kāhui Ako English Language Learner Survey: 2021 Kāhui Ako Report (Cebalo et al., 2021), has reinforced the continued need for both culturally responsive pedagogy and providing support to classroom teachers with their ELLs.

In response to the rapid growth of ELLs in their schools, and the data from the "Wellbeing@School" survey, the Kāhui Ako ESOL specialists conducted a needs analysis in 2018. This would aid the specialists in further understanding the perceived issues, barriers and successes in meeting the needs of ELLs across the Kāhui Ako. The primary theme to emerge from this was that while, generally, a third of the students at

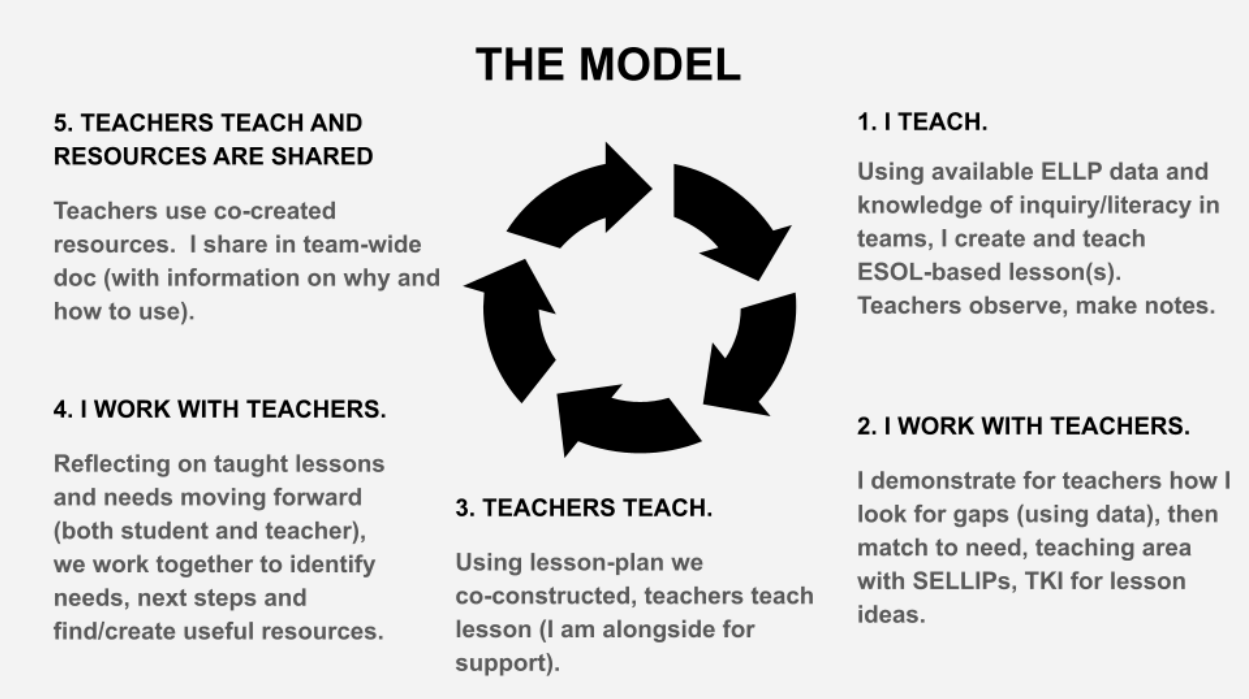
each school needed some degree of ESOL support, the status quo of regularly or periodically bringing students out of their classrooms to take part in an ESOL programme was not a viable long-term option for all students. Teachers needed the skills to ensure that ELLs were supported in class every day. Responses from classroom teachers showed many were unsure of how to cater for ELLs' needs and this became a focus for the Kāhui Ako, prompting the specialists to propose that inclusive strategies needed to be better incorporated across their schools.

The ESOL specialist group considered the recommendations from the Education Review Office (ERO) report 'Responding to Language Diversity in Auckland' (2018). These aligned closely with the feedback they had received from their Kāhui Ako students, teachers and parents. Of particular relevance was the recommendation that schools "plan and implement teaching strategies appropriate for supporting cultural diversity and English language learning" (p.7). Also, that the education sector and schools generally **"**aim to build a diverse knowledge base for every teacher, with desired competencies in second language acquisition theory and development, understanding the relationship between language and culture, and an increased ability to affirm the culture of the learners". Another pertinent recommendation was that they "promote the integration of the seven ESOL principles into teaching practices to support CLD learners to make both academic and language progress in all curriculum learning areas".

The ESOL specialist group subsequently approached Future Learning Solutions, now Tui Tuia Learning Circle, and began a year-long professional development journey led by two facilitators. Throughout 2019, inquiries were conducted by each ESOL specialist for their own school, and potential solutions were developed and implemented to support class teachers in their own contexts.

Introduction to the Model

The model (see Figure 1 below) which the first author developed and trialled in her school for two years was especially successful. This model was then trialled by the second author, with a small group of classroom teachers in her school. The success of the model in both contexts was shared with the ESOL specialist group.

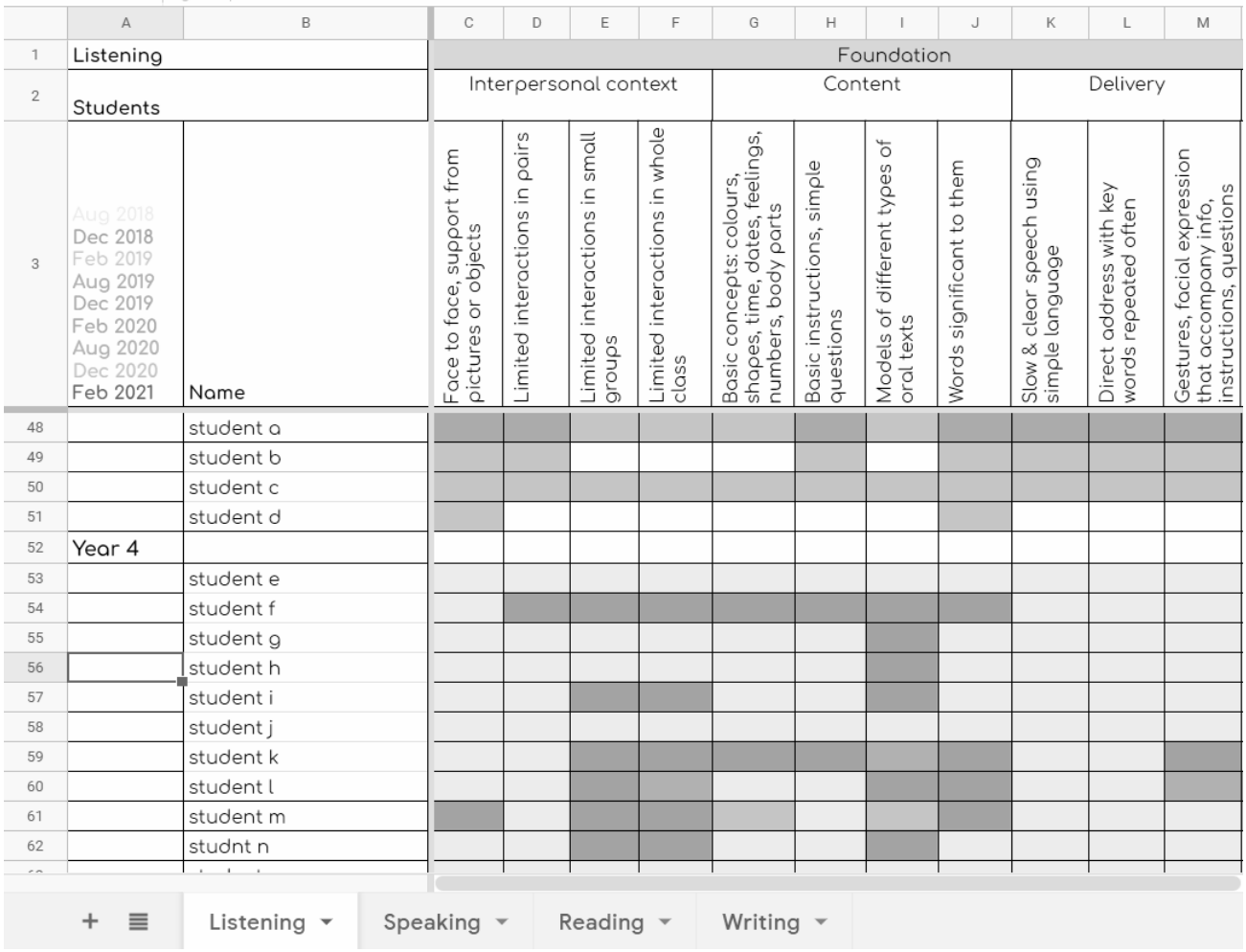


Note. The Model - steps 1 and 3 are in the teacher's classroom, steps 2 and 4 involve the teacher being released to work with the ESOL specialist and step 5 is the 'sustain' step.

Figure 1:
The Professional Growth Cycle Model

The model involves a Professional Growth Cycle similar to the highly scaffolded gradual release of responsibility model (Frey & Fisher, 2013). At the outset, a small number of teachers were selected to begin this cycle—primarily those with a strong desire to be upskilled and who would use their voice to inspire and encourage colleagues. The length of the cycle for each teacher was two weeks and included four collaborative sessions, plus an additional 'sustain' phase.

Prior to the sessions, a digital shared folder was created for each teacher which included pertinent resources, information, and links such as ESOL Online's Resources for Planning (Ministry of Education, 2018) and ESOL Principles (Ministry of Education, n.d.-a). This shared folder would then hold any work that was co-created by the ESOL specialist and that teacher. A collated spreadsheet of the indicators achieved by each ELL in that teacher's class (Figure 2) was also created. These indicators were taken from the English Language Learning Progressions (ELLP) matrices (Ministry of Education, 2008) criteria. This spreadsheet is regularly updated when the ELLPs are completed for Ministry of Education ESOL funding purposes.



Note. A sample of the spreadsheet of ELLP indicators, shared with teams and teachers. The indicators in row 3 are taken directly from the ELLPs as used for Ministry of Education funding evidence. Shaded boxes indicate achieved indicators at various points in time, showing progress and need.

Figure 2:
Sample of ELLP trends and gaps for analysis

Steps one to four of the cycle (Figure 1) followed a set format for the facilitating ESOL specialist of '*I teach, I work with teachers, teachers teach, I work with teachers'*. For each session, work with the classroom teacher was personalised and targeted to meet teachers' identified strengths and needs such as their prior knowledge of inclusive ESOL strategies or how to better engage ELLs. The sequence of sessions is clarified in more detail in Table 2. It can be seen in the table that there is a certain amount of preparation for the ESOL specialist prior to the cycle, such as establishing the system for shared documentation and ensuring any resources referred to in the sessions are available. This set-up can take some time, but it ensures that each step of the below table progresses effectively.

Table 2:
Sequence of Sessions in the Professional Growth Cycle

Steps	Description
Prior to sessions with teacher	The ESOL specialist creates a shared folder for teacher which includes - ● ELLP trends and gaps (Figure 2) specific to the target classroom (this is a table filled in each ELLP funding round and builds a picture of each student's progress over time) ● ELLP (and more recently ELLP Pathway [Ministry of Education, 2021]) documents ● shared notes page ● planning templates which highlight ESOL-funded students, show Supporting English Language Learners in Primary Schools (SELLIPS) (Ministry of Education, 2009) focus, New Zealand Curriculum (English) (Ministry of Education, 2007) relationship, as well as a link to ESOL Online's resources for planning (Ministry of Education, 2018)
Step 1: I teach	The ESOL specialist teaches the classroom teacher's whole class while the teacher observes the strategies used and how their ELLs respond. ● model inclusive tasks designed to meet the needs of target ELLs based on ELLP data (Figure 2) ● combination of whole-class tasks, independent work and work delivered to a target group ● The ESOL specialist explains the processes and objectives in an authentic class context.
Step 2: I work with teacher	The class teacher is released to meet with the ESOL specialist. Together they: ● identify trends in class ELLP data ● develop a focus area to address ● focus on how to identify the ELLs' needs ● make links between the ELLPs, SELLIPS, Literacy Learning Progressions (Ministry of Education, 2010) and New Zealand Curriculum (English) ● discuss the benefits to *all* students through incorporating inclusive ESOL strategies ● explore the Pathway Document, ESOL Online (Ministry of Education, n.d.-b) for teaching and learning suggestions ● collaboratively plan a lesson
Step 3: Teacher teaches	The class teacher teaches the collaboratively planned session while the ESOL specialist supports them and observes the engagement of the ELLs and other students. The ESOL specialist also takes notes on: ● how to further develop tasks taught in the lesson ● some other suitable tasks for further sessions
Step 4: I work with teacher	The class teacher is released to meet with the ESOL specialist to discuss - ● the tasks taught in the session 3 lesson ● the ELLP and Pathway documents ● the use of scaffolding ● the Cummins & Swain (1986) framework ● the connections between the New Zealand curriculum and the ELLP stages ● how to create engaging tasks which are inclusive of ELLs

	The ESOL specialist also reinforces that these tasks are not an add-on but integral to planning to meet student needs. Together they may also continue exploring other resources for supporting ELLs and future tasks may be co-created.
Step 5: Sustain	The ESOL specialist continues to provide ongoing support at team meetings or for individual teachers as requested. Resources may be developed collaboratively and shared within the team.

Following Step 4, all tasks were added to a digitally shared, scaffolded inquiry unit (Figure 3) for the teacher and their team to use. The teacher who observed or co-created the task(s) was then able to share with their team, so that the whole team understood the use and benefits of these tasks. Step 5 involved the ESOL specialist spending time in team meetings, largely with the team whose members were engaged in the cycle in order to clarify strategies, add to planning, help identify ESOL needs and increase momentum of the cycle going forward. Where the teacher was also a team leader, the ESOL specialist scaffolded the sessions with a view to developing a team-wide culture of identifying ESOL needs and appropriate strategies. This fifth step is critical to the anticipated sustainability of the model.

Planning Inquiry Tasks Using ESOL Principles and Strategies

Activity (TKI)	ESOL Objective: ERICA/Cummins-Swain Language Learning & Instructions	Team-Made Activities
*Pics and discussion	Preparing to Learn/Cognitively Undemanding, Context Embedded *Ideal for awakening schema & making connections, children are able to share what vocabulary and concepts they may already have in L2.*	
*KWL.	Preparing to Learn/Cognitively Undemanding, Context Embedded *Awakening schema & making connections*	
*Concept (or vocabulary) Circle	Preparing to Learn/Context Embedded, Cognitively Demanding *This is a useful way to introduce new topic vocabulary. All new vocabulary is introduced and visible outside of the circle. The teacher selects up to 4 vocabulary items and places them in the circle. Throughout the day (or lesson) children are encouraged to use this vocabulary in a meaningful (and accurate) way. (Print to A3 minimum.)*	Vocabulary Circle 
*Videos/Books/ Experts *Picture & Label Match	Thinking it Through/Context Embedded, Cognitively (Un)Demanding *These would be opportunities for students to explore the topic further (perhaps with bilingual texts/translations) and to begin to use some of the early vocabulary and structure of the topic.* *With this version of labeling, students can select labels or phrases from a group and discuss with the group why they selected the labels. You*	Number 3 Solar System Labels & vocab

Note. Various ESOL strategies are listed in a scaffolded manner and hyperlinked to ESOL Online in the left column. Details about the use and usefulness of strategies are in the centre column. Links to the tasks created by the teachers are in the right-hand column, so that all team-members may have access.

Figure 3:
Portion of shared document containing all tasks created by members of the team of teachers

There were additional overarching aims in supporting the classroom teachers to strengthen their practice. These included increasing the teachers' awareness of ways in which languages may differ from English and ways to find out more about the home cultures of the ELLs in their classrooms. Teachers would also be introduced to the language learning and teaching principles. The importance of explicit teaching, front-loading of vocabulary, use of the home language to scaffold the ELLs' learning in English, and opportunities for oracy was also stressed. (Appendix 1).

This model has been developed to be sustainable. Step 5 maintains the learning over the shorter term, yet there is scope for those teachers who have participated in the full growth cycle to re-engage with the cycle at steps 3, 4 and 5long-term. Newer staff participate in the full PGC for robust upskilling and are then added to the shorter cycle. These sessions are the launchpad, but time in team meetings for teachers to share tasks and embed these in their planning is important. The end-goal is having funded ELLs who are nearing curriculum expectations being effectively catered for in the classroom, ultimately giving more time for the ESOL team to work with priority students.

Results and Discussion

Following the Growth Cycle, teachers' responses from both schools were gathered via survey and interview, and were collated, revealing various useful themes observed by teachers. These included increased engagement of ELLs and other students through the scaffolded nature of tasks, front-loading of vocabulary, repetition and recycling of language, and the building of literacy through oracy. One insight was that teachers could teach inclusively with little to no additional preparation, and could use an existing resource in different, more effective ways. Using these scaffolded strategies allowed teachers to differentiate more easily—*all* students could engage with the one resource as ELLs were supported and involved with the rest of the class.

Classroom observation notes made by ESOL specialists at both schools were also gathered. Based on these observations it was noted that strategies which support ELLs were equally valuable for all students. Front-loading vocabulary and concepts for all students benefited the learners, and carefully planned explicit modelling and scaffolding using ESOL-based strategies gave students further access to learning. Teachers stated they became more proficient in identifying strategies and adapting or creating tasks, and incorporating them into planning, especially when supported by their team who had engaged in the same professional learning. Throughout the cycle, the ESOL specialists also made notes on future steps including a summary sheet of ELL-inclusive strategies for each team, showing which teacher had taught or observed which strategies and could be called on to support the team in using them in future. Interesting themes emerged. Teachers were observed to be providing scaffolded learning by first modelling, then giving opportunities for students to 'think, pair, share' with a buddy before they worked independently. They also explicitly frontloaded language and concepts, recycled language and concepts and encouraged students to develop metalanguage skills through examining language in more depth.

Although initial observations are that there has been some positive change in teachers' practice, such as including ELL-inclusive tasks and key vocabulary in teachers' planning, there continues to be a need for professional development which upskills teachers in best practice for supporting culturally and linguistically diverse learners in our schools. In 2021 a survey was sent out to all teachers, parents of ELLs, and Year 4 to 13 ELLs in the Kāhui Ako, which reinforced the need to continue with the PGC model and to expand its reach. Teachers were asked to consider challenges and solutions in supporting ELLs in their class. Parents were asked what challenges their child faced as an ELL and what had helped their child at school. The ELLs themselves were asked what challenges they faced and what had helped them. Responses were received from 58 teachers, 122 year 4-13 students and 111 parents and were analysed and summarised, providing qualitative data. Teachers who responded voiced concerns around the socialisation and communication difficulties of their ELLs. They were keen to see opportunities for professional learning and development through their ESOL specialists to grow their knowledge of, and capability in using, ESOL strategies. Fifty-five teachers mentioned challenges related to knowing the learner: the ELLs' lack of confidence, difficulties in building relationships, relying on peers for language translation and not mixing with native-speaking peers. One hundred and eleven parents responded to the survey and the dominant themes that emerged were the concern that their child was only socialising with other students who spoke the same first language (and used this as their common language), comprehension and communication difficulties in class and cultural inclusiveness. Of the 122 student responses, themes of communication challenges, cultural inclusion and understanding, and culture shock emerged. Both ESOL specialists and classroom teachers believe that much of this can be remedied through the use of inclusive tasks in class that draw on ESOL strategies. This has further informed the decision for the Kāhui Ako to develop the skills and understandings of class and subject teachers in relation to supporting their ELLs.

Future Recommendations and Considerations

More recently, the ESOL specialist group has worked together over two full days, in order to adapt this model for use in their own schools. The principals have been very receptive to the proposal. Building the capability of their teachers to be better equipped to cater for the ELLs in their class, and being more inclusive in their practice, is considered highly beneficial to their students and staff.

A rubric (Appendix 2) for teachers' use has been developed by the ASLs (Mid Bays Kāhui Ako, 2021). This includes self-reported success across indicators such as: knowing the learner, front-loading vocabulary, development of oracy and ELL-inclusive tasks, implementation of the ELLP Pathways and matrices, use of the Ministry's ESOL resources and a reminder of the ESOL principles. At this stage, principals envisage that this could be incorporated into schools' professional learning and development or growth cycles.

Challenges include the need to be flexible: changes to teacher timetables may occur unexpectedly, and sessions may be delayed. It is key to support teachers at their particular level of knowledge and ability with the use of inclusive strategies: this is a different journey for each teacher. It is recognised that release time is a different challenge for different schools. In the context of these schools, there is an additional (part-time) teacher in the team who can be utilised to release the classroom teachers. Kāhui Ako ESOL specialists are currently working to develop ways to adapt this model to their own contexts. Those schools without a second ESOL teacher are exploring alternative ways of enabling release for class teachers. As both authors are ASLs in the Kāhui Ako, they have the capacity and flexibility to support the ESOL specialists with the implementation of the model.

Conclusion

This scaffolded gradual release model of professional learning and development has proved to be an effective way of building the skills of classroom teachers when led by the ESOL specialist in the school. It utilises the expertise of staff already employed by the school who have knowledge of the children and the school culture, and who have specialist knowledge of second language acquisition. Critical to the success is support from senior leadership, classroom teachers and team leaders who are open to the process of engaging with new learning, available staffing to release teachers, and the expertise and collegiality from other specialists in a Professional Learning Group who actively work to support the development of engaging strategies for supporting classroom teachers. Author 1 attends weekly team meetings and so understands the direction of student inquiries and team priorities. This also gives more of a voice to the ESOL team. Having access to team planning documents and strategy allows authentic integration into classroom programmes when designing tasks, further strengthening the collaboration between classroom teachers and the ESOL team.

The outcomes so far are encouraging. The authors have observed inclusive strategies being incorporated into teachers' planning and teaching, both individually and collaboratively. Teachers report that their own professional development and use of targeted strategies has improved, as well as seeing enhanced student engagement and output. Effective inclusive strategies leading to improved student outcomes give the Kāhui Ako impetus to continue developing this model as one that is integrated and sustainable.

Timperley et al. (2003) state that "effective professional development relates to teachers' everyday working responsibilities and takes place within the school rather than consisting of one-off or ad hoc programmes that are not closely integrated into teachers' professional practice" (p.9). This model provides professional development within the teachers' own contexts and has the capacity to become more fully embedded and sustainable over time. Timperley et al. (2003) also emphasise the importance of continued support if the professional development is to be effective - "Teachers must

have ongoing support if professional development is to have a long-term, positive effect on student learning" (p.4). The model provides the teachers with support during their cycle as well as during the sustain cycle. When the ESOL specialist continues to attend team meetings, there is considerable scope for ongoing support. The ESOL specialist group has sought to maintain close collegial relationships between stakeholders (ESOL specialist, classroom teacher, team leader and student), basing key drivers for this model in both the student data and continuing support.

Although every school's context is different, we believe that this model can be adapted to work in most schools where increased numbers of ELLs make a traditional ESOL withdrawal programme challenging, and where there is expertise and knowledge of second language acquisition within the ESOL teaching team. Through a model such as this, rich professional development for teachers ensures that they have the skills to meet the needs of the culturally and linguistically diverse learners in their classrooms.

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Appendix 1. Aims of the Model

The aim is for the classroom teacher to:

- improve language knowledge and awareness of ways languages differ
- have an understanding of, and interest in, children's home cultures
- understand language learning and teaching principles
- be familiar with the seven ESOL principles and strategies from ESOL Online
- front-load and explicitly teach key vocabulary
- allow opportunities for oracy—both Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, n.d.)
- allow students to use their home language to scaffold their learning in English
- incorporate these principles and strategies within the class programme to connect ELLs with the curriculum
- employ these strategies and principles in ways which benefit all learners
- better understand the ELLP documents and analyse the data that arises
- understand support materials available, including ELLP Pathway documents, SELLIPs and ESOL Online

Appendix 2. Teacher Rubric - effectively supporting ELLs

	Beginning	**Proficient**	**Advanced**
Know Your Learner	I know where my students come from and what their home languages are. I know some of their cultural festivals. I recognise the knowledge and experience my students have in their own cultures and languages and that these capabilities can be built upon.	I recognise the knowledge and experience my students have in their own cultures and languages. I use this to respond to my ELLs sharing their linguistic and cultural practices. I actively encourage use of L1 at home. I ask students "How would that look in your culture?" or "How would your family do that?"	I show I value my ELLs' values, cultures and languages. I actively make time for these students to share with me and their class. I encourage my ELLs to work in L1 when needed at school eg for planning. *Proficient Plus!* *I am learning +some of my ELLs' L1 myself *I undertake professional reading and learning to better understand my ELLs
Front-Loading Vocabulary	I include target vocabulary in my planning.	I frontload students by explaining and clarifying target vocabulary at the beginning of the lesson.	I send home vocabulary lists for students to talk about and translate into their home languages and/or I explicitly teach vocabulary through

			using key strategies (such as vocab circle)
	At secondary level, this vocabulary includes tier 2&3		
Oracy	I give my students opportunities to talk about their learning in class.	I use strategies like think-pair-share to give greater opportunities for output and to scaffold ELLs with repetition	I use a wide range of ELL strategies to intentionally provide multiple opportunities for speaking, as well as listening.
ELL-Inclusive TASKS ESOL Teaching Strategies - Resources For Planning	I am comfortable with one or two familiar ELL-inclusive tasks which I use from time to time.	I regularly incorporate ELL-inclusive tasks in my planning.	I create and share ELL-inclusive tasks with my team, and incorporate them into my planning intentionally to meet identified needs of my ELLs (e.g. grammatical structures)
ELLP Pathways (primary and intermediate only)	I have looked at the ELLP Pathway doc or seen it in staff meetings	I refer to the ELLP Pathway when completing the ELLP matrices or	I use the Pathways to support planning for my ELLs varied needs
ELLP Matrices (primary and intermediate only)	I complete these for my ELLs with support from the ESOL specialist	I am confident in completing these to accurately reflect my ELLs	I use data from the ELLP matrices to inform my planning. I share the next steps with my ELLs
ELLP Matrices (secondary)	I know about the ELLP matrices and the four strands	I can discuss my ELLs' progress using the ELLP indicators with the ESOL team	I use the information from the ELLP matrices to inform my planning.
MoE Resources	I know about some of the <u>MoE supporting resources</u> such as SELLIPs and ELIP	I have explored some of these resources and watched the videos	I have used the SELLIPS, ELIP or similar to support my planning
ESOL principles which support teaching practice	#1 <u>Know your learners</u> - knowing their whānau and culture as well as the individual learner, being aware of a different cultural lens #2 <u>Identify the learning outcomes</u> - ensuring that all students know what the expectations are #3 <u>Maintain the same learning outcome for all learners</u> - differentiating lessons so that ELLs have the same cognitive challenge as other learners, they do the same work as others in the class but with scaffolded support #4 <u>Make the abstract concrete</u> - starting with concrete and high context tasks before moving into the more abstract		

#5 Provide multiple opportunities for authentic language use - using language related to a real context in a range of situations, connecting their cultures to the lesson, providing opportunities to practice academic vocabulary in the lesson in a real context
#6 Ensure a balance between receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing) - thinking about how often ELLs get the chance to speak and write, using pairshare and wait time so students can share their thoughts orally
#7 Include opportunities for monitoring and self-evaluation - developing students who think about language as well as content
Principles and actions that underpin effective teaching in languages (tki secondary):

1. Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.
2. Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning.
3. Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.
4. Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.
5. Instruction needs to take into account the learner's 'built-in syllabus'.
6. Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input.
7. Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.
8. The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.
9. Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.
10. In assessing learners' L2 proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production.

These principles are explained and exemplified in Ellis's *Instructed Second Language Acquisition: A Literature Review* (Ministry of Education, 2005).

Note. This rubric is copyrighted to the Mid Bays Kāhui Ako schools (2021).

EXPLORING TRANSLANGUAGING IN THE PRIMARY CLASSROOM

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Abstract
This report describes a classroom-based action inquiry project involving the author, an ESOL teacher, and her ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) students in a primary school. It reports on her journey with her students moving from a mono-lingual ESOL situation to actively trying to learn and encourage the use of both te reo Māori and the children's home languages (L1). The article follows the group for two years as they build a space where we can explore and grow our multilingual practices and awareness. Although none of the students with low target language abilities became fluent speakers in this time, their confidence and ability increased and they became more spontaneous in our use of different languages.

Introduction

The 2018 Community Languages and English for Speakers of Other Languages (CLESOL) conference had a strong theme running through it (Transforming our Landscape) and provided attendees an opportunity to reflect on shifting perspectives in language education (Composition NZ, 2018). Strong keynotes such as *Kotahi Mano Kāika, Kotahi Mano Wawata—Restoring te reo Māori as a living language* (Tamati-Elliffe, 2018) emphasised the idea that inter-generational communication can be lost in one generation and that it needs three generations to rebuild a language. This was the starting point of my research into translanguaging, shifting among multiple languages, in the primary ESOL classroom.

Context

The research was carried out using the framework of "action learning inquiry", a model of changing teaching practice in order to improve results for students (Ministry of Education, 2020). As the school's ESOL teacher I undertook this with around 70 students over the period since the conference. I teach in a suburban primary school that has approximately 30% of children from migrant backgrounds, including those who come in on student visas whilst their parents study at the local university. The school has over 20 countries represented on its roll. I teach ESOL to five groups for half-an-hour a day, four days a week. I also take other children for other interventions such as structured literacy throughout the day.

Motivation

When I became an ESOL teacher in 2001, there was the expectation in Aotearoa/New Zealand schools that only English was to be used in the classrooms. There was a belief that using only English encouraged faster learning of the target language (Lynn, 1993), avoided direct translation rather than fluent acquisition (Liu et al., 2020), and promoted inclusivity through a *lingua franca* so no one was excluded from conversations (Galante, 2020). During the 2000s, calls for the use of L1 in primary school classrooms increased. It was acknowledged as a human rights issue (May, 2002) as well as being linguistically and pedagogically sound (Franken & McComish, 2005; Smith, 2006). The New Zealand Curriculum placed particular emphasis on te reo Māori and Pasifika languages and their places within schools (Ministry of Education, 1993). By CLESOL 2018, a shift in understanding had occurred and there was a strong push for other languages to be included within New Zealand schools. The keynote presentation by Tamati-Ellife (2018) was the sparking moment for me. Such 'aha moments' are recognised as catalysts for change in teaching practice (Nieto, 2013). Many other speakers also carried that strong message of a changing landscape. Other discussions of language policy (Harvey & Warren, 2020) suggest the idea that, once the language policy is in place, any child can expect to have their language taught in school, and this raised the question as to how this would work in a mono-lingual setting. Furthermore, the expectation that primary schools teach te reo Māori (Ministry of Education, 2022; Royal Society of New Zealand, 2013) raises a secondary question of how to encourage more than just one language at a time. I perceived an opportunity to make changes in my teaching practice as a beginning user of te reo Māori, by incorporating more of it into the ESOL classes along with the children's heritage languages (L1). I was thus able to position myself alongside my students as a learner and be a role model for them (Kirsch, 2020).

Translanguaging

Coming from the pedagogy around the revival of the Welsh language within schools (Singleton & Flynn, 2021), the term translanguaging has evolved to encompass many meanings (Costley & Leung, 2020). In this study, translanguaging means a spontaneous shifting between languages according to situation (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017), while it is also seen as a pedagogical approach (Kirsch, 2020). One goal in making translanguaging spaces available is to enable students to actively use their dynamic plurilingual practices to support their leaning (Duarte, 2020).

Issues

There were many issues around implementing this pedagogical change in my teaching practice. The main issue was my language skill level. While I could hold a simple conversation in te reo Māori and was confident about being able to teach this to the children, I have only a few words in a few other languages, and even less knowledge of different language scripts. Although I hoped to support language growth, language maintenance would be a start, but even maintenance of a minority language is difficult if we do not understand the linguistic features of the language (Sah & Li, 2020). In the

school, this resulted in the need for ‘language buddies’, which meant timetable disruptions to accommodate them. Not all children had a language buddy and some had to be supported by a common language that the parents of both children spoke (for example, Hindi for a child of both Nepalese and Indian heritage) or via Google Translate. My lack of knowledge of the children’s languages also necessitated building a stronger home/school bridge (Smith, 2006). The parents and I had to communicate more to support their children’s L1 growth. This was done via talk at pick-up time and email. Some parents also became my sounding board as I discussed my work and findings with them. Another issue was that children had seen the use of English-only as an expectation. Although their L1 had never been discouraged, it had not been encouraged either, and children had, in the past, reminded each other to speak English to avoid interfering with their learning, as has been documented in other contexts (Baker, 2011).

Actions of the research

Although the quantitative results are for eight students who were with me between the end of 2018 and the end of 2019, further evidence has been included of these students, older children who arrived at the school during this time, and the younger children who started with me while the research was underway. The strong message of translanguaging from CLESOL 2018 caused me to reflect on the holistic needs of my children. While my scope is mostly to teach English, well-being is a part of this. Too often children come to believe their home language is not important (Nieto, 2013). During my time teaching ESOL, I had noticed a reduction in the use of, and confidence in, L1, and wished to make my class a space where languages were not competing, but were explored (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). This would not be in opposition to my role as a teacher of English, but would provide support for more children (Byrnes, 2020). The general foci of my ESOL classes are around language building, with the brief of improving reading, writing, listening, speaking. Our initial translanguaging work focused on speaking and followed some of the basic vocabulary that was taught in English when a child first started with me. A 32-word pre-test consisting of greetings, numerals, colours, and animal names in English, te reo Māori and L1 was given to all ESOL students at the beginning of Term 4, 2018 in their ESOL groups. Those children who could write the answers did so, while I recorded the oral answers of those children who were not able to write. This was repeated in Term 4 of 2019 and the results of the eight children who had completed both tests were recorded (See Appendix 1). This was a very simplistic test and would be a lot more in-depth if I were to do it again. I would include phrase use and picture description to better record the language development of my students.

Shared picture books were used as the basis of lessons focussing on translanguaging, and these initially occurred at least once a week for a few minutes at a time. The group would enjoy the book together and, on a second read, numbers, colours, and nouns would be shared in English, te reo Māori, and each L1 in turn. Each language pair would

either say their word together or the stronger speaker would model it for the weaker one who would copy it. Over time, lessons evolved to include verbs, adjectives, and phrases. They also became more student-led with the children asking to '...do that language thing' and spontaneously sharing words and phrases.

Quantitative Outcomes

As can be seen in Table 1 below, all children made some progress, most notably in te reo Māori.

Table 1:
Words correct in English, Māori, and L1 out of 32

Student		English		Māori		L1	
Name	**L1**	**Pre-test**	**Post-test**	**Pre-test**	**Post-test**	**Pre-test**	**Post-test**
EK	Korean	32	32	16	19	32	32
AL	Russian	32	32	0	1	29	32
JN	Khmer	31	32	0	11	1	3
RZ	Cantonese	32	32	0	15	28	32
VD	Russian	30	32	1	3	29	30
DS	Khmer	32	32	0	4	32	32
DR	Hindi	29	32	0	8	0	5
TS	Hindi/Punjabi	32	32	0	13	30	32

As can be seen, many of the children had high pre-test scores for L1, showing partly that they were already using their heritage language, but also that the quantitative test was not effective in showing full language development.

There was overall a greater increase in lexical learning of te reo Māori over L1. This can be attributed to lower starting levels in te reo, but also suggests that teacher input makes a difference to language acquisition (Schütz, 1998). AL was the only student who had a lower te reo Māori increase than L1. He told me he had not paid attention to what I was saying as he assumed te reo Māori was my L1. The lower increase of L1 score for JN and DR reinforces the difficulty around growing minority language knowledge without teacher knowledge of it (Sah & Li, 2020) and the need for outside support in this area.

Although JN and DR had very low increases in their L1, they are the ones with whom I am particularly pleased due to their other challenges. JN is selectively mute. In particular, he was not speaking to his mother, or in his main classroom. His increase in knowledge of his L1 from zero to three shows his willingness not just to respond in class, but also to interact with his mother in his quest to learn words in Khmer.

DR is a child who struggled to positively interact with others or fully understand tasks given to him. His family originate from India and Nepal. He was buddied with a child who spoke Hindi, as this was a shared language. He relied heavily on the other child to

the point that he became worried if she was not there, despite my having a list of words to support him. His relationship with his helper was not always easy and we used his need for her language skills to help build his personal interaction skills.

Qualitative Outcomes

Beyond the eight children whose scores were recorded, there were over 60 more who arrived or left at times outside of the pre and post-test windows. Their reactions are included in this study as further evidence of the effects of the translanguaging initiative:

- For children who did not initially control enough L1 to communicate with the group, te reo Māori would become their language of choice with which to share vocabulary. By having a language other than English, they exhibited signs of pride at being able to join in (see https://youtu.be/9-OWD1pGG-4?t=152).
- A few young children were initially opting out of our multi-language sessions. It took some gentle encouragement, and the help of Google Translate, to get them joining in and excited about going home to learn more from their parents.
- One of my literacy students saw our multilingual colour clouds on the wall. He wanted to add his own language and got his mother to write out the words in Thai for him to add the next day.
- One child was in his silent period—the time where a learner listens to a new language but is not yet comfortable to produce it (Ministry of Education, 2008). His face lit up every time we started sharing our languages and he would happily start responding in both Japanese and English.
- A group of children told me they had done really well in their mainstream class Kahoot –an online learning platform that allows teachers to set up multi-choice quizzes, "…even though we all speak different languages." They said they outperformed many of their classmates in the te reo Māori questions.
- One six-year-old Tongan child insisted on helping plan for Tongan language week. This led to the other children in the group wanting to share their L1, then asking to learn about other countries as well.
- Children extended their own language. They went from individual words to phrases to sentences in a short space of time. They were happy to find friends with common languages and were astonished to discover similarities between languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

As the progressive cohorts of children start with me, they join a class where multiple languages are heard and shared. I cannot read a book in just English with the younger children; they expect that we will stop and count or share words or phrases in their L1.

Discussion

One concern was that I would place too much cognitive load on children by having them use multiple languages. However, they rose to the challenge, even though the initial test results of L1 make it hard to quantify how much of a challenge there was for many of them. This was a failing of the test design and shows the very organic nature of this case study. Since starting this study at the end of 2018, new children have come in to ESOL groups where there is an expectation that multiple languages will be heard and used and welcomed. They correct each other, use Māori if they do not use their heritage language, feel sad if they do not know a word, and feel proud when they bring that word to us the next day. While we hoped that this approach would support the children to maintain and develop their L1, the results from the vocabulary tests show only small gain, partly due to the quality of the test. Although we created a space that had translanguaging pedagogy as a basis and was increasing the spontaneity of L1 use (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017), the study highlighted the difficulty for a person without the knowledge of a language trying to promote it (Sah & Li, 2020). This suggests the need for fluent speakers to be supporting the children. Perhaps a next step will be to encourage parents to come in to share language as a part of an on-going offering, and not just as part of a language week.

My challenge is to be able to bring an even greater fluidity of language first to the ESOL room, then to the school. We are only at the beginning of the process. We seek to normalise the use of L1 within the school so children can share curriculum knowledge, and not just their English language progression (see https://youtu.be/Gu1e0xVzoCU).

Conclusion

This action research inquiry grew from the ‘aha moment’ I had at the CLESOL 2018 conference. It raised questions around cognitive load, how to promote language without teacher capacity, and the nature of translanguaging versus code-switching. The students became more spontaneous users of language and the next steps will be to promote L1 use more widely within the whole school and to promote parent help in building language teaching capacity.

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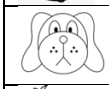
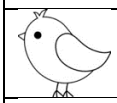
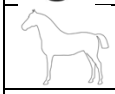
Appendix 1: Pre- and Post-test

Name: _____ Date: _____

Write these words in English, Māori and your language

	English	Māori	Home
Greeting			
Question health?			
Farewell			
Ask someone's name			
Ask where the toilet is			
Say your name.			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
			
8			
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READING-TO-PARAPHRASE: MINING WORDS FROM SOURCE TEXTS

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Abstract
ESOL instructors continue to face the challenge of how to guide learners through the process of paraphrasing texts (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Hyland, 2010; Wette, 2017a). This is partially attributable to the difficulty learners face in using their own words. Drawing students' attention to how expert writers use words or phrases of similar meaning in their readings (e.g., water scarcity, water shortage) may help them discover other sources of word knowledge thus facilitating the process of paraphrasing texts. This article discusses the challenges faced by undergraduate students enrolled in an academic writing course followed by typical examples of post-novice writer level paraphrasing. A step-by-step guide for incorporating reading-to-paraphrase as a component within a lesson on paraphrasing will then be explained. By raising our students' awareness of the language in their readings, post-novice writers may improve their ability to read source texts, expand their vocabulary and paraphrase more effectively.

Introduction

A considerable body of research has provided insights into how learners use source texts (see Cumming et al., 2016, and Pecorari & Petrić, 2014, for an overview) recognising the importance of developing learners' reading-to-write skills (Hirvela, 2004; Plakans, 2009) and establishing a clear link between reading competence and writers' ability to paraphrase (Plakans & Gebril, 2012; Solé et al., 2013). The focus of this article is guiding learners how to read in a way that may assist L2 instructors with developing learners' paraphrasing skills.

Shi et al. (2018, p. 31) defines paraphrasing as "*recontextualizing* source information in one's own writing with a credit to the original author" [italics added]. Previous studies have reported that novice L2 writers may be engaged in "retelling" instead of "recontextualising" content from their source texts and were also more apt to copy phrases or engage in various degrees of patchwriting (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Howard, 1995). Before I embark on explaining what "reading-to-paraphrase" is and how it may benefit post-novice writers, I will first explain the context and motivation for this pedagogical activity.

Teaching and Learning Context

The motivation for this teaching activity was the need to find ways to support first-year English Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) students with developing their reading and writing skills at a tertiary institution in New Zealand. The university's first-year

academic writing course services domestic and international students across a wide range of disciplines. The majority of enrolled students have had to adapt from an overseas high school setting to a New Zealand tertiary education system; however, a small cohort of mature learners include those who have transitioned from employment to academia. Prior to the Covid pandemic, the 12-week academic writing course was taught through a system of blended learning (i.e., hybrid of face-to-face and online classes with Moodle) but is currently all delivered through online Zoom lectures and tutorials. One-on-one writing help sessions and access to model assignments provide additional within-course support for students' writing needs. Students are also encouraged to attend university-wide workshops, ask for library assistance, or reach out to a peer support network for out-of-class study help.

Reading and writing from source texts is commonplace within tertiary settings but this activity exists within a broader sociocultural learning environment. Undergraduate students from non-English speaking backgrounds face reading long and complex texts that may be beyond their current reading ability. Time management has thus become a significant challenge for ESOL students in particular as they struggle to comprehend reading materials that introduce them to new concepts and ways of thinking. The deadline-driven culture of university assignments encourages students to hop from one assignment to another whilst managing their non-study workloads. It is important to mention Nelson's (1990) point here that school settings are highly evaluative, encouraging students to focus on grades and subsequently their products of performance instead of non-grade associated learning processes that instructors aim to develop. Hence, student writers may engage in a reading-writing (and paraphrasing) process filled with coping strategies or "truncated writing strategies" (p.392). From an instructional point of view, I have empathised with students' workload issues and understood their reasons for taking shortcuts, but it was nonetheless important to find pedagogical solutions that aim to develop my ESOL students' ability to read and write from source texts.

Word associations

The reading-to-paraphrase activity was inspired by research on how expert writers use vocabulary as a means of establishing cohesion across text, thus improving its readability or coherence (Hoey, 1991; Reynolds, 1995). The three examples below illustrate how word associations are used to semantically connect the first statement with the proceeding one.

Example 1:

> Choosing a mobile phone service provider involves making <u>decisions</u> about price, fixed term contracts, and reliability of service. These <u>decisions</u> are important considerations since each person's needs are different from each other.

Example 2:

> The effects of the housing shortage in New Zealand have impacted first home buyers' ability to enter the property market. This reduced supply has encouraged buyers to find creative solutions.

Example 3:

> Organic food product sales are increasing. This change in consumer behaviour has raised concerns about verifying whether product sources are truly organic or not.

The difference between these three illustrations is that the first example uses exact repetition of words, the second example shows the use of synonyms or antonyms, and the third example uses a superordinate phrase to connect ideas across sentences. Although expert writers use their knowledge of words to improve the flow and coherence of their writing, post-novice writers may possess a much more limited toolbox of language resources. Researchers have suggested that expanding learners' semantic network of words (i.e., synonyms, antonyms, and associative words) may assist with paraphrasing, summary writing and developing a writing topic (Baba, 2009; Keck, 2006; Reynolds, 1995); therefore, it seems important for L2 instructors to actively focus on increasing learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Post-novice writers' challenges with paraphrasing

The challenge for novice writers begins with the process of searching for and critically reading content from their source texts. When faced with reading long and complex texts, novice readers may experience difficulties with skimming and comprehending source material. These learners may adopt a coping strategy of finding morsels of information to include in their written assignments, leading them to "[write] from sentences selected from sources" (Howard et al., 2010, p.187) and rely on single readings of sentence-level texts (Solé et al., 2013). This may lead to a limited understanding of their writing topic (Lee, 2010) or a perception that published reading materials are facts (Hyland, 2009). Without the ability to comprehend the discursively nuanced meanings presented in the text or the confidence to rewrite the content, learners are more likely to blindly copy or reproduce what they read as "truths" (Abasi et al., 2006). The first step in learning how to paraphrase must encompass rereading content beyond the sentence-level and reading other source texts to gain a sufficient understanding of the topic (Solé et al., 2013).

Apart from the need to adopt more advanced reading skills, post-novice writers may find it challenging to use their own words to express complex ideas from the source text and intertextually integrate them with their own (Keck, 2014; Kyle & Crossley, 2016). Howard (1993, p. 240) explained that writers experience difficulty with paraphrasing because they are "working in discourse so foreign that the only voice available is the one which they are reading" and "have no choice but to patch monologically from that

text". First-year university students may perceive the need to use discipline-specific vocabulary to obtain a higher grade but feel uncertain if their paraphrases will distort the meaning of these academic words. Recontextualising information from source texts requires not only a sufficient level of linguistic knowledge but also a willingness to take risks in an evaluative environment. Since L2 writers acquire new words and phrases from their readings (Plakans & Gebril, 2012), instructors could introduce activities for students to deconstruct readings and expand their vocabulary knowledge.

Examples of post-novice writers' paraphrases

Researchers have identified various ways in which writers paraphrase that reflect their previous learning experiences and stage of skill development (Keck, 2006; 2014; Pecorari, 2003, Wette, 2017a). Examples of novice writers' use of source texts and paraphrases are listed below. These examples illustrate post-novice writers' varying degrees of understanding of how to attribute their sources (i.e., use of citations and quotations), how to synthesise their own ideas with the content from their source texts (i.e., authorial voice), and how to use their linguistic knowledge (e.g., vocabulary and grammar) to summarise the information from their sources.

Source text 1 (Chiu et al., 2012, p.1)
While messaging and sharing photos is as popular in China as in other regions, one aspect of usage in the country stands out: social media has a greater influence on purchasing decisions for consumers in China than for those anywhere else in the world. Chinese consumers say they are more likely to consider buying a product if they see it mentioned on a social-media site and more likely to purchase a product or service if a friend or acquaintance recommends it on a social-media site.

Source text 2 (Hill, 2011, p.347)
Young people are receiving an endless barrage of material messages encouraging purchasing behaviour and consumption that impacts the self-image. Children from the ages of 4 to 12 have increasingly been defined and viewed by their spending capacity. There is mounting evidence to suggest that the structure of childhood is eroding and children are suffering from serious physical, emotional and social deficits directly related to consumerism.

In example 1 below, the writer is copying whole sentences from the original source without using quotation marks or attributing the author. The writer below has copied the entire second sentence from Source text 2. Copied text may be presented verbatim in a linear manner without sufficient attention to the planning or sequence of ideas.

1. Copy-and-paste of entire sentences (with/without quotation marks and no/unclear citation)
Young adults are digital natives that are influenced by products advertised on the internet and social media. **Young people are receiving an endless barrage**

of material messages encouraging purchasing behaviour and consumption that impacts the self-image.

In example 2 below, the writer is adept at adding, deleting and substituting words showing a good control over language; however, the copied strings of text (i.e., patchwriting) reflect an early stage of paraphrasing skill development.

2. Extensive patchwriting (with or without attribution)
Consumers are more likely to purchase **a product if they see it** on **social media**. Young people receive lots of **messages encouraging purchasing behaviour and consumption that** affects **the self-image**.

The writer in example 3 below displays two paraphrasing challenges: (a) an attempt to integrate the source content with the writer's personal voice, and (b) an attempt to synthesise information from related but different topic foci. One or both types of issues may appear as writers may misinterpret the meaning of the content in their source texts or experience difficulty with transforming content to accommodate their own authorial voice.

3. Extensive patchwriting (with inappropriate synthesis of personal voice and textual content)
In China, social media is more popular than **anywhere else in the world**. We **are more likely** to buy **a product if a friend recommends it** on **social media** but many people **are suffering from physical, emotional and social deficits** (Hill, 2011). FOMO is impacting their perceptions of themselves and other people's identities.

In example 4 below, the writer substitutes words or phrases but the meaning conveyed may partially or fully distort the source text's original meaning. This may indicate both an insufficient understanding of the textual content and knowledge of appropriate word substitutes.

4. Paraphrasing (with inappropriate lexical or grammatical substitutions that misconstrue meaning)
Purchasing decisions are greatly influenced by social media. In China, people buy products if a friend **endorses** it on social media (Chiu et al., 2012). In addition, they receive **non-stop material posts** that encourages buying and this impacts their **imagination** (Hill, 2011).

The first two examples are typically addressed by writing instructors as L2 learners acculturate to the expectations of tertiary-level writing. Teaching how to cite source texts including models of acceptable and less acceptable paraphrases may raise their awareness of various thinking processes required for paraphrasing. An early

introduction to similarity reports from plagiarism detection software (e.g., Turnitin) may also draw writers' awareness to institutional expectations regarding academic integrity. Examples 3 and 4 above represent more challenging cases of paraphrasing since they expose post-novice writers' ability to critically read texts and use appropriate vocabulary and grammar. In the following section, the reading-to-paraphrase activity is introduced, which aims to foster the development of reading beyond the sentence level and awareness of word associations.

Teaching activity: Reading-to-paraphrase

The following teaching activity may support post-novice writers' efforts to paraphrase information from their readings.

Step 1

Select a reading that is topically suitable (current, related to students' lives, culturally sensitive, does not require extensive background knowledge) and is written at a linguistic level appropriate for your students. For the university's first-year undergraduate writing course, I used the following text:

> Humanity is facing a water bankruptcy as a result of a crisis even greater than the financial meltdown now destabilising the global economy. They add that it is already beginning to take effect, and there will be no way of bailing the earth out of water scarcity. The World Water Forum, which will be attended by 20,000 people in Istanbul, will hear stark warnings of how half the world's population will be affected by water shortages in just 20 years' time, with millions dying and increasing conflicts over dwindling resources. A report by the World Economic Forum says that lack of water will soon tear into various parts of the global economic system and start to emerge as a headline geopolitical issue. The Earth, a blue-green oasis in the limitless black desert of space, has a finite stock of water. (edited text from Lean, 2009)

Step 2

Assign a question that will provide a purpose for reading the article. For example, what is the effect of water scarcity or how will a shortage of water impact the world in the future?

Step 3

Ask students to anticipate answers without reading the article, respond to the question using their own words or identify content within the reading.

Step 4

Pose further questions to help students understand the topic. "How many people will be affected?" or "How soon?, which might lead students to identify the phrase, "…half the world's population will be affected by water shortages in just 20 years' time." Use flowcharts, tables, or Wh+H (Who, what, when, where, why and how) questions to organise as well as visualise key information.

Step 5
Identify content to be paraphrased, quoted or summarised. This part can diverge into many other mini-lessons on using direct quotations and summarising. However, for the sake of a lesson focussed on paraphrasing, let us choose, "...half the world's population will be affected by water shortages in just 20 years' time."

Step 6
Ask students to explain the overall meaning of the selected content in their own words. Discuss other wording options (*affect - impact; in just 20 years' time – before 2029*), explain nuanced differences in meaning between similar words, and identify any words or phrases that are particularly difficult to paraphrase.

Step 7
Ask students to search for other words of similar meaning within the reading (*water shortage - water bankruptcy, water scarcity, lack of water, a finite stock of water*; see section 3 for an explanation about word associations and cohesion in writing) or from other readings (e.g., *short of water, water conflicts, conflicts about water, high water stress*). This segment of the teaching activity aims to promote re-reading, further understanding of the writing topic, and expansion of learners' knowledge of word associations.

Step 8
Discuss why and how content could be reordered or the appropriateness of switching between active and passive voice. For example, the selected content could be rewritten as, "In the next two decades, water scarcity will impact 50% of the global population" (i.e., clause restructuring). With sentence-level paraphrasing, this step is mechanical in nature; however, paragraph-level paraphrasing will force students to plan and organise content.

Step 9
Discuss the process of citing the author(s) of the source texts, including the need to identify surnames and adhere to referencing style guidelines. APA examples for this paraphrase include "… will impact half of the global population (Lean, 2009)", "According to a World Water Forum (2008) report …", "A World Water Forum (2008) report predicted that…" It should be noted that non-integral citations may be quite challenging for post-novice writers since they must carefully select appropriate reporting verbs (e.g., state, argue, predict) that reflect an understanding of the authors' stance (Lee et al., 2018; Wette, 2017a).

Step 10
Follow up this teaching activity by introducing more advanced paraphrasing skills that focus on progressing from:

- Single to multiple readings (comparing and contrasting information)

- Instructor-supplied to learner-researched readings (developing library research skills)
- Readings that contain common words to discipline-specific concepts and terms (developing strategies to deal with semantically and linguistically complex texts; see Frey & Fisher, 2013)
- Sentence-level to paragraph/discourse-level paraphrasing (writing a cohesive set of statements that have a singular focus)
- Retelling content to transforming content (integrating the writer's voice)

Although many of the steps outlined above may already be in practice at your educational setting, step 7 introduces the idea of reading-to-paraphrase within a broader pedagogical approach towards assisting post-novice writers.

Outcomes, Reflections and Future Steps

As many of my undergraduate students struggle with paraphrasing content for their written assignments, they have often expressed their difficulties by asking, "How do I use my own words?" After incorporating this reading-to-paraphrase activity in my lessons, I have noticed that my students are quite capable of searching for words in a shared reading. When prompted, they can identify words of similar or opposite meaning through Zoom's chat function. Although their paraphrases still show some grammatical issues or misunderstandings with the meaning of similar words, with time and effort, they are taking a step forward to developing their knowledge of word associations. One of the main benefits of this reading-to-paraphrase task is getting ESOL writers to look more closely at their readings whereas before, they were more likely to take only a cursory glance at the language and content in their readings. The readings themselves provide a valuable source of word knowledge instead of relying on online thesauri or translation apps. This activity essentially teaches students to develop strategies for reading source texts beyond the sentence-level and to mine vocabulary that may be useful for paraphrasing.

What I have found particularly useful is doing a talk-through of this activity with my students by thinking aloud. Verbalising shows the trial-and-error thought processes behind reading for meaning, searching for words, and paraphrasing. Even though we may teach using a linear, step-by-step approach, paraphrasing is never straightforward. By thinking aloud, our students can see the forward-and-backward thinking processes in action and not just the end products of a paraphrasing activity. Another useful teaching strategy is working individually with students to gain a better understanding of what they know and see as they attempt to paraphrase higher-level academic readings from their chosen discipline. Working one-on-one with students may not only help them develop their strategies for working with source texts but also learn how to initiate discussion, communicate ideas, and participate in an academic community.

Post-novice writers continually face the challenge of incorporating their authorial voice when paraphrasing. Although researchers have asserted that writers must shift their use

of sources from knowledge-telling to knowledge-creation (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987) and adopt an authorial identity or voice (Ivaniç, 1998; Du & Liu, 2021), a future goal for L2 instructors is to identify teacher-friendly pedagogical activities that raise awareness of and development of the writers' voice. Assessment is another related issue and although I am cognizant of the dangers of overassessment, it may potentially be useful for writing instructors to include a paraphrasing assessment alongside other common writing assessments (essays, reports). This would signal the importance of engaging in a more careful and concentrated reading and paraphrasing of source texts.

Researchers have focussed on the pedagogical issue of assisting L2 learners with improving their ability to work with source texts (Hyland, 2010; Wette, 2010, 2017b). This article introduces reading-to-paraphrase to assist L2 writers in their efforts to read more critically, expand their vocabulary, and paraphrase more effectively. Given the number of paraphrases needed and the time required to compose a writing assignment, it may be unreasonable for course instructors to expect mastery of such a complex skill. This is succinctly summarised in Pecorari and Petric's (2014, p. 290) statement: "even longer teaching programmes may not succeed in eradicating all source-use problems". Learning how to paraphrase is clearly developmental in nature (Cumming, et al., 2016; Howard, 1995; Keck, 2014; Pecorari, 2003; Wette, 2017a). This undermines any notion that one-shot pedagogical activities can target the development of all aspects of source use. Nonetheless, reading-to-paraphrase may complement a suite of other teaching activities that will move L2 writers' skills a step forward in their academic writing journey.

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IMPLEMENTING A MENTORING PROGRAMME FOR ACADEMIC STAFF IN THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT: BECOMING A BETTER LEARNING FACILITATOR

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Abstract

Mentoring programmes in an educational environment can represent a platform for academics to share ideas in order to gain new perspectives and skills in their field of expertise. The aim of this paper is to share findings from an ongoing peer mentoring programme for academic staff in the English department at a New Zealand tertiary institution. The objective of this research is to find out if academic staff consider that having a mentoring programme can be beneficial for them and to what extent it supports their professional development goals. The programme is centred on having English for Academic Purposes lecturers within the department teach their students how to use an experiential learning model in their study. The research method used is qualitative analysis of the data obtained from surveys and interviews with the lecturers. If proven successful in the English department, this peer mentoring programme could be further used institution-wide.

Introduction

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) lecturers share many professional development goals. Some of the most important ones are student-centred practice and becoming better learning facilitators, to help students learn better (Heim, 2012; Knutson, 2003; Richards, 1998). These goals go hand in hand with encouraging more learner autonomy in class (Reeve, 2016), thus equipping learners with better lifelong learning habits that they can keep applying in their future study.

The aim of this paper is to introduce an ongoing peer mentoring programme for academic staff in the English department at a New Zealand tertiary institution. The objective of this research was to find out if it would be useful for us to introduce a peer mentoring programme in the department, to support all the English lecturers with their professional development goals. Peer mentoring has become a much more popular alternative to traditional models of supervision or top-down mentoring, as it is done between professionals at the same level and the element of judging is highly decreased, if not completely removed in this kind of relationship (Rosenthal & Shinebarger, 2010).

I work as a member of a team of EAP lecturers at a New Zealand polytechnic. One common professional development goal of our team is to become better facilitators of student-centred practice; so, this mentoring programme was designed to address that need. To introduce the peer mentoring programme to the department, I started out by getting all the lecturers to use an experiential learning model (see Appendix 1) with their EAP classes. This was an example strategy to address the lecturers' previously identified

professional development goal. As part of my Master of Professional Practice research project in 2020, I designed an experiential learning model for my New Zealand Certificate in English Language (NZCEL) students, an EAP course that we teach at our polytechnic (NZQA, n.d.). This model was inspired by literature on experiential learning (Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984) and task-based learning (Willis, 1996). The model (Nistor, 2020) was adapted to represent a cycle of ongoing learning for my students to use continuously, in order to hopefully become a learning habit applicable in any learning context, not only in their English course. I trialled this learning model several times with my NZCEL students and it was very successful, as it helped them become more independent learners. Therefore, I thought this model could help other colleagues in my department as well, to practise their professional development goals, while equipping their students with future lifelong learning skills based on metacognitive awareness. I organised an initial workshop session with colleagues to discuss the mentoring programme with them, followed by one-to-one sessions whenever further clarifications were needed. My plan was to introduce the mentoring programme across our English department first, and, if proven successful, implement it across the whole institution.

Literature review

Over the years, many researchers have tried to define the process of 'mentoring' or 'mentorship', but there is still no consistent definition of this term in literature. However, some common characteristics of a 'mentoring relationship' have been identified by Jacobi (1991) and Crisp and Cruz (2009): the relationship needs to be reciprocal and personal, and it needs to support growth and achievement. This support can mean academic support or professional support, depending on the mentoring context, and, very importantly, personal support, which should include both psychological and emotional support (Crisp & Cruz, 2009). In this regard, mentoring is quite similar to coaching (Cushion, 2007; Whitemore, 2002), where a relationship needs to be built on experience and trust. Cushion (2007) defines coaching as a practical activity within a social context, an ongoing dynamic practice.

However, traditional mentoring models have proven somewhat ineffective, due to their hierarchical nature and the power relation they involve. Instead, the type of mentoring considered most successful nowadays is 'peer mentoring'. Peer mentoring involves mentoring programmes between professionals of similar experience, exchanging ideas and participating in professional discussions more openly. Rosenthal and Shinebarger (2010) believe that anyone can be more receptive in a relationship of equals where the mentee does not perceive the mentor as grading or judging them. According to Yomtov et al. (2017), this type of mentoring creates a more personal and supportive relationship. Another useful concept is the 'collegial model of supervision' (Strieker et al., 2016), where colleagues are part of the same learning process, which becomes a collaborative experience. In collegial models, the 'evaluative aspect' of the more traditional inspectional or top-down models is taken away, and according to Rehman (2018),

everybody involved in the mentoring process can feel more comfortable. A collegial model is based on a 'developmental approach' (Glickman et al., 2014), where the developmental needs of individual teachers are taken into consideration when designing the mentoring programme. According to Glickman et al. (2014), mentors and supervisors should assume a facilitative and collaborative role.

Overall, the following three concepts are at the core of any successful peer mentoring programme: 'experiential learning' (Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984), which relies on learning by doing and experiencing first hand; 'facilitation' (Heim, 2012; Knutson, 2003; Richards, 1998), rather than lecturing or imposing a particular way or strategy; 'reflection' on professional practice and professional development (Moon, 2004), which is equally important for both mentors and mentees.

Research methodology

Firstly, the main research objective was to find out whether academic staff in the English department believed that having such a mentoring programme would be beneficial for them. Secondly, the research intended to discover to what extent the staff thought this programme could support their individual professional development goals.

Based on these research questions, I chose surveys and semi-structured interviews as research methods. According to Long (2005), multiple methods of data gathering are recommended when dealing with qualitative data. My mentoring programme did not include any formal observations, as I wanted to encourage a more collegial, non-evaluative environment. Therefore, the plan was to mainly have open discussions with my peers about their own experiences with their students. I had initially wanted to run a few focus groups with all the staff, but my colleagues were available at different times in the day, so I ended up doing one-to-one interviews, after the initial survey.

The survey had three sets of questions (see 'Results' section), and each of these questions was discussed in more detail during the interviews, which were recorded for further analysis. Following the interviews, I compiled all the qualitative data from both surveys and interviews using thematic analysis (Patton, 2002), which allowed me to detect some common themes and patterns in the lecturers' responses.

Results

This ongoing programme started at the beginning of 2021. I plan to gather more data in the future, to be able to further develop it to suit everybody's professional development needs. The first set of questions discussed during the interviews mainly revolved around the lecturers' experience with implementing the experiential learning model (see Appendix 1) in their classes. However, as mentioned before, the model was not the main focus of the research, but only used as a platform for practising the lecturers' professional development goal of becoming better learning facilitators of student-centred practice. Therefore, the last two sets of questions focused on some initial

feedback on how best to proceed with this peer mentoring programme in the future. The next section includes a summary of the results so far.

First set of questions: "From your observations while you were working with the students on the experiential learning model: Do you think this model is good? Has it helped with class activities? Did the students find it useful?"

The responses to the first set of questions and to the classroom trials using the experiential learning model were quite encouraging. The lecturers generally considered that the learning model was very useful for their students, allowing them to become more independent learners. This model aligned with NZQA's recommendation for the NZCEL courses, which requires students to spend a total of 17.5 hours of self-directed study per week (NZQA, n.d.). All the lecturers also thought this was a useful habit in real life and in the students' future study. They noticed that this model was based on task-based learning, which we were already incorporating into our classes, although not always consistently. Overall, they appreciated the metacognitive process behind the model.

However, reporting on the success the students had with understanding this experiential learning model, three barriers were identified: a language level barrier, a cognitive level barrier (which both seemed to be less of an issue for NZCEL level 5's postgraduate students) and a workload problem.

Looking at the language level barrier, NZCEL level 4 students found it difficult to understand the terminology of the experiential learning model, even when this was simplified by their lecturer. All English lecturers had been encouraged to elicit these steps from the students and rename or simplify them together where necessary. Although still confusing for NZCEL level 5 students initially, the terminology became clearer with the repeated use of the model.

When it came to the cognitive level and understanding what this learning model was about, NZCEL level 4 students found the concepts of 'critical thinking' and 'reflection' more difficult to understand. On the other hand, NZCEL level 5 students understood these concepts better, as these are common concepts at postgraduate level.

An important issue, that the English lecturers further discovered, was related to the workload. As NZCEL is already a very assessment-heavy course, incorporating metacognitive concepts such as the learning model took time. This ended up making the already busy class schedule even busier. Lecturers sometimes ended up slightly changing their lesson format to accommodate this trial. Moreover, students tended to focus on the smaller activities that comprised the model, not always seeing the big picture. Some students from both levels thought this trial was more like an additional lesson they needed to complete as part of the course.

Second set of questions: "What are your professional development goals? Any that include student-centred facilitation? Do you think you can use this model/strategy to help with these goals?"

The lecturers responded that student-centred facilitation was at the forefront of their mind when it came to effective teaching practice. They identified some more specific professional development goals related to this, and the most common one was 'how to give effective feedback, while still having a student-centred class', in other words how to become a better facilitator when giving feedback in class.

My colleagues also thought that, if these trials were applied repeatedly, they could eventually lead to their own professional development. For example, 'reflection' was identified as not just a very important concept for students, but also for teaching staff. One lecturer suggested this could be more formally included in our usual lesson plans, to lead to further professional development opportunities. It was clearly understood by everyone that the experiential learning model trial had been used as an example, which could be further modified or completely changed for another autonomy-supportive class activity, after future consultation within the department.

Third question: "Do you have any other suggestions as to how this mentoring programme can be more beneficial for the English department in the future?"

All the lecturers agreed that the biggest pitfall we might have with introducing this peer mentoring programme to our English department was related to the nature of the NZCEL courses. Based on the initial trial with the experiential learning model, they concluded that, in order to become better learning facilitators of student-centred practice, they would need to spend more time outside the set curriculum to introduce their students to these autonomous metacognitive strategies. Due to the assessment-heavy format of these courses, there was not much room for discussions with the students that were not assessment-related, such as how they could become more independent learners. The lecturers believed this would have been much easier on any other EAP course, where there would be more time for reflection and these kinds of metacognitive implications.

To make this programme work for NZCEL, teaching staff suggested that they should improve their time management skills and adjust the format of the lessons accordingly. A future professional development session on clearly establishing what the concepts of "independent learners" and "facilitation" mean was also suggested, to make sure all the lecturers understood the importance of these concepts in relation to their professional development goals.

Conclusion

Overall, lecturers thought that the implementation of such a peer mentoring programme in the department could be a very useful tool for their professional development and considered the idea behind this programme very useful for students and for themselves. All of them were keen to try out the learning model in their classes and to make their students aware of the metacognitive implications of their study.

The main goal of this mentoring programme also corresponded to the lecturers' professional development goals of becoming better facilitators of learner-centred practice and encouraging their learners to become more independent. Lecturers were keen to share their opinions and suggestions about how to improve this programme in the future. During this trial, a specific future professional development goal was detected: the need to find the best way to give effective feedback in class, while still encouraging student autonomy and overall learner-centred practice. This will be addressed in the next stage of the development of this peer mentoring programme.

Recommendations

This mentoring programme is still under development, but I have already received a number of useful recommendations from my colleagues.

The assessment-heavy NZCEL format was detected as a limitation. Lecturers argued that students needed more time to be made aware of these metacognitive processes and the need to practise them, to make them lifelong learning habits.

Some recommendations discussed together with my colleagues were: to either change the format of the NZCEL course (which under the strict guidance of NZQA might be an unrealistic goal), or, more realistically, to plan and find a way to work around the assessments to better incorporate this learning model (or similar other autonomy-supportive initiatives in the future) into the existing course format. The final decisions on this will be reached together, as a team, after further trials within this mentoring programme.

As it is a continuously developing peer mentoring programme, I am looking forward to implementing some of these changes suggested and to keep having discussions with my colleagues on how, in the future, this entire process can be more effective and beneficial for all of us, as well as for our students.

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Appendix 1. Experiential learning model

This is the experiential learning model that I used in the initial phase of the peer mentoring programme described in this article.

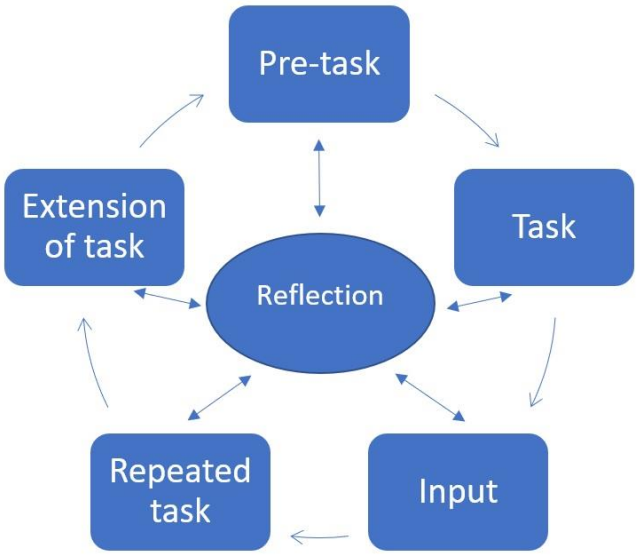

Figure 1:
Experiential learning model for students (Nistor, 2020)

The experiential learning model (Figure 1) relies on task-based learning (Willis, 1996), a popular learning method in EAP courses. The lesson starts with a pre-task or a warmer, then the students have to do a main writing or speaking task, followed by some input, which could be in the form of peer feedback, teacher feedback, or a model answer. Later, they would repeat the task to improve on their initial performance. The final stage, 'extension of task', refers to a task or activity that the students will need to do in a future learning situation, where they can go through this entire learning cycle again, to eventually make a learning habit of it. At the centre of the model is 'reflection', which should ideally happen during all the stages of the cycle, not only at the very end.

The terminology I used when I designed my learning model in 2020 was quite flexible, and the lecturers taking part in this mentoring programme were encouraged to elicit these steps from the students, while trialling a task-based lesson. While working with the model, the students were also allowed to rename any of the steps to something easier for them to remember.

CONNECTING ONLINE: HOW TWO YEARS OF (EMERGENCY) REMOTE TEACHING SCHOLARSHIP RELATES TO AN EXAMPLE COURSE IN NEW ZEALAND

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Abstract

This article discusses teaching online under emergency conditions early in the Covid-19 pandemic and reviews the literature on these experiences from various teaching contexts, including ESOL. It finds commonalities in the student experience regarding appreciation of keeping courses going, discrepancies in people's skills and infrastructure that affect their ability to participate, and feelings of isolation or lack of community. It uses example research from 2020, conducted at a university in New Zealand with students on an ESP programme, and relates the findings of that programme to international research, finding similarities. It concludes with recommendations to reduce problems in the future.

Introduction

This article returns to a piece of research undertaken in 2020 regarding teaching online under emergency conditions during the first year of the Covid-19 pandemic (Edwards, 2020), and embeds this in a review of more recent research and publications on the same topic. It notes recent findings from a variety of publications on teaching under emergency conditions, often from home, finds commonalities, and uses Edwards' (2020) research as an example of the student experience during this time. It concludes with suggestions for planning, training, and infrastructure needs in the expectation of online teaching being a permanent fixture, and comments briefly on some of the rhetoric around teaching online. Research from early 2020 was completed in many cases under imperfect conditions. It is appropriate to investigate, two years later, whether or not more recent research and experience offer new or similar findings or ideas, and how recent publications reflect that. The article also critiques the 2020 teaching in light of more recent publications.

Background context and research need

At the time of writing in early 2022, the COVID-19 pandemic has been ongoing for over two years. Among the many effects of this pandemic have been changes to the way education is conducted and perceived, changes that are predicted to last well into the future. As educational institutions worldwide moved to suspend teaching or teach online/remotely with little warning in early 2020, several scholars and organisations researched the effects and effectiveness of this from pedagogical, systems, educational, and psychological perspectives, among others. This research often compared the 'new normal' to both face-to-face teaching and to planned online/remote teaching and was published through journals and blogged about, aiming to quickly disseminate

information and ideas to peers, throughout 2020 and 2021. Some examples of this will be covered below.

In distinguishing pre-Covid online education, which had traditionally taken many months to plan to do well (Clandfield & Hadfield, 2021; Elfman, 2020), from the situation in 2020, the phrase *Emergency Remote Teaching* (ERT) was used by several commentators (e.g., Hodges et al., 2020; Jelińska & Paradowski, 2021; Smith Jaggers, 2021). Several authors also recognised that some institutions were better placed than others for ERT due to having experienced or planned for teaching, online or otherwise, through various disasters in the past (e.g., Dhawan, 2020; Pusey & Nanni 2021; Wong, 2020).

The experiences of many teaching and studying online from home in 2020 and beyond were *not* those of well-planned and prepared online programmes, and should not be conflated with such (Moore et al., 2021; Clandfield, 2021). However, this has not stopped some students benefitting even under ERT conditions from the new 21st Century digital skills learned (Hasper, 2021; Kern & Smith, 2020), and from extended and more varied opportunities to practice language use (Kern & Smith, 2020). Some students also perceived studying from home as preferable with fewer worries about discrimination or campus access (Brown et al., 2021; Moore et al., 2021; Pusey & Nanni 2021).

Much of the research from 2020-2021 (e.g., Elfman, 2020; Jelińska & Paradowski, 2021; Rasiah et al., 2020; Soria et al., 2020), had findings similar to each other. New skills were learned and students in general, but not universally, appreciated that education continued and was achievable in some form. Part of the appreciation for this was that a sense of community was maintained to some degree, although this was considerably less cohesive than in face-to-face classes. Some students, however, were asked to learn too many new skills and interfaces (Bryson, 2021; Ensmann et al., 2021), something we as teachers learned in the first few weeks of teaching shared classes online.

Further, discrepancies between both individuals and socioeconomic groups regarding access to and skills in using reliable equipment, connectivity, and study environments become apparent everywhere. Examples include Brown et al. (2021) finding varied home conditions were a more productive learning environment for some and less productive for others. Bryson (2021) discussed the need to learn digital literacy in one's own language to enable online language learning. Both Smith Jaggars (2021) and Samson (2022) highlighted a digital divide. Kern and Smith (2020) discuss how lack of everyday social interactions necessitated greater effort for interaction online.

The majority of the authors above also recommended preparation of staff, students and infrastructure for future needs or choices to teach and learn online/remotely, whether planned or an emergency (Bryson, 2021; Kern & Smith, 2020; Rasiah et al., 2020; Soria

et al., 2020). This is seen as beneficial for both general professional development and as planning for future ERT, and is especially needed by students and teachers whose personal circumstances leave them lacking the skill and equipment necessary for online/remote teaching and learning (Bryson, 2021; Clandfield & Hadfield, 2021; Padilla Rodríguez et al., 2021).

As courses moved online in early 2020 it was clear that most existing research and experience teaching online did not include teaching under ERT conditions, and that which existed was not related to worldwide emergencies (Pusey & Nanni, 2021). Many courses that had begun on campus, *some* of which later in 2020/2021 returned to campus, effectively became blended learning courses. Blended learning had also been researched pre-2020 but there was limited research on its use in unplanned contexts, such as education during or following disasters (e.g., earthquakes, floods, bushfires, shootings, and foot-and-mouth outbreaks) (Mackey et al., 2012).

These gaps and new circumstances in early 2020 provided opportunities for research, in relation to the experiences of educators and learners on specific courses, and through following and comparing research and experiences of practitioners worldwide to seek trends or differences in findings. Below the author summarises the procedures and findings of one such piece of research conducted in New Zealand in 2020, explained in greater detail in Edwards (2020), and relates the findings to those of other research worldwide, some of which have been outlined above already. The hope is for the findings, strengthened by triangulation with other research findings, to be useful for teachers and course planners during the current (at time of writing) pandemic and in preparing for the future.

Many of the findings outlined in this article were found using methods that could fall under the umbrella of Quick Response Research (QRR) (Mackey et al., 2012). QRR aims to collect data quickly while it is still current and accessible, often as a form of action or practitioner research, is strengthened by recording multiple perspectives from people involved, and comes from a desire by researchers to help improve or recover from a situation. QRR often uses case studies, such as in the example research outlined below and in many other sources in this article. Although a pandemic lasting more than two years may not appear *fleeting*, it is a shorter timescale than is used for many research projects and the ERT conditions where students and teachers lacked training, experience, equipment, infrastructure, and software, were for many people more fleeting than the pandemic (Moore et al., 2021; Samson, 2022). Recent scholarship completed under conditions less like an emergency serve to demonstrate the early findings were valid.

What follows is an example of practitioner research done in 2020, under ERT conditions at a university in New Zealand. The students were on an ESP programme which included specific goals relating to learning about New Zealand society and culture and building relationships with New Zealanders. The course, for government officials from

developing countries, usually includes language classes, field trips and local workplace visits, and explicit time spent socialising with local New Zealand volunteer conversation partners. The students spend seven weeks in homestays in regional New Zealand, attending classes there, then 12-13 weeks in Wellington in apartments with a flatmate from a different country.

The programme moved online with two days warning in March 2020, ten days after the students moved to Wellington. Lessons, social interactions, and guest lectures thereafter either happened by Zoom or social media, or not at all. All people involved worked, studied, or volunteered from home, initially following, as much as possible, the original planned schedule. One reason for this was that the students would otherwise be alone in a foreign country with nothing to do except watch news of a disaster. It quickly became apparent that shorter blocks of learning, with activities away from the screen, were needed. Teachers took advice from workshops and several online forums and were helped by the students already having paper copies of materials.

For making connections with New Zealanders, conversation partners were offered training from the pastoral team on use of social media, and some planned workplace visit hosts and guest subject-matter speakers agreed to online talks. The pastoral team also organised zoom-based social activities to engender a sense of community. This was helped by the fact that two hours before the 2020 lockdown was announced all students had brought laptops to class, installed and practiced using Zoom with support staff in the room.

As part of the research, it was decided to compare feedback from the previous cohort's participants with those of 2020 to investigate the student experience in general and the achievement of the goals mentioned above specifically. Ultimately, ERT teaching lasted for eight out of 12 planned weeks of the programme, although once back on campus in May 2020 many activities and interactions available to previous cohorts were not available to the 2020 participants. This left interactions with New Zealanders and with students' own multinational classmates reduced to happening online, if at all, for the majority of the programme[1].

Edwards (2020) sought to compare the 2019 and 2020 participants' self-reports regarding learning about New Zealand society and culture and building relationships with New Zealanders, and the activities leading to any achievement of those goals. The 2019 cohort was the most recent one which completed the course not under ERT conditions. The current study seeks to answer the question**:** *What changes can be applied to future teaching based on lessons learned from the 2020-2022 experience of and publications on ERT?* This question is addressed below, with findings summarised in this article's final two sections.

[1]For further information on the programme, its rationale, and teaching online experiences, see Edwards (2020).

The methodology used in Edwards (2020) acknowledged the difficulty of measuring gains in understanding society and culture and building connections. It used as data student comments from anonymous end-of-programme surveys with closed and open-ended questions, and comments from semi-structured interviews near (for the 2020 cohort), or six months after (for the 2019 cohort), the end of the programme. All students had the opportunity to respond to the survey questions, a methodology since seen to have also been used by such researchers as Jelińska and Paradowski (2021), and Padilla Rodríguez et al. (2021). Interviewees volunteered for 10-to-20-minute interviews conducted face-to-face or online depending on the students' locations. The semi-structured interviews (Friedman, 2012), with questions informed by the programmes' goals and earlier student comments on their activities, were reviewed reiteratively for themes (Baralt, 2012), and pseudonyms were used for reporting comments.

Participants came from Myanmar, Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, Indonesia, Timor-Leste and Mongolia. Sixty-nine percent (41/59) of the 2019 cohort and 94% (59/63) of the 2020 cohort, each with a roughly even gender split, took the survey. Interview data was collected from interviewing nine students from the 2019 cohort (seven male, two female, aged 26-43), and eight from 2020 (four female, four male, aged 27-46). The process for recruiting interviewees is described in greater detail in Edwards (2020). The use of informal or semiformal interviews is described as a data source in Mackey et al.'s (2012) description of QRR, and although the interviewees represented only 14% of course participants small sample sizes are expected in qualitative research (Friedman, 2012) and can still represent a range of ages and backgrounds.

Findings

For both cohorts closed-ended survey questions found that 97.6% to 100% of participants either agreed or strongly agreed that their understanding of New Zealand culture and society had improved and they had formed positive relationships with New Zealand and New Zealanders. Free-form answers to questions in both surveys provide further insights. Both groups repeatedly mentioned conversation partners and homestay families, and activities with them, Māori cultural activities, getting to know multinational classmates, and the class theme work.

The 2019 cohort's responses also covered some activities unavailable or less available to those studying in 2020: class activities, international food sharing and concert performances, walking around the city, visiting museums, and multinational flatmates. The usual model of flat-sharing with a course-mate from another country was changed under ERT conditions when same-country residential 'bubbles' were organised for mutual support.

Lacking those activities, the 2020 cohort's survey responses instead repeatedly mentioned activities that happened online or independently: guest lectures, evening discussion groups (facilitated by course staff and involving volunteers from among local scientists and Ministry officials), and New Zealand-focused reading. In addition, the

2020 cohort responses specific to studying online under ERT conditions included negative sentiments around not being able to visit New Zealand workplaces or tourist sites, issues with connectivity, comments on a reduced ability to build cultural knowledge and connections, and 10 mentions of conversation practice being less effective or available.

The seventeen interviews allowed more individualised and in-depth responses. Interviews with both cohorts contained responses focusing on New Zealand society, culture and personal connections, and around professional learning and connections, while the 2020 interviewees also repeatedly gave responses that can be grouped into a theme of online study and ERT conditions impacting their experience. These are discussed briefly below and in greater detail in Edwards (2020).

New Zealand society, culture, and personal connections

Conversation partners and activities with them were discussed by all and homestay families by most interviewees as the main way that they had learned about New Zealand society and culture and connected with New Zealanders. Example quotes referring to this include from Va and Loc from the 2019 group:

> Staying with the homestay, they talking about daily life, daily activity, so they share their culture of New Zealand. We talk every day…Conversation partner we walk, we talk, we discuss…so they tell us about the culture of New Zealand…at the coffee shop…we visit some place like a museum so he tell me what inside the museum and what is show the culture of New Zealand, and we talk to the mountain and many, many place. (Va)

> I have a very nice conversation partner, so every week we meet one time a week and every time she took me to a new coffee shop and also tells me so much about many things in New Zealand…So the number 1 activity is the conversation partner and the number 2…the programme to stay with the family in New Zealand…for the first time I was not so confident so for the first time we don't have so much anything to talk, after maybe two of three weeks we have so many things to talk. (Loc)

And similar sentiments emerged from 2020's Panha and Betu:

> My conversation partner is very nice and helpful…Every place that we went he always bought his family so I had many opportunities to talk to his granddaughters and wife so I have learnt a lot of culture and very interact[ive]. Sometimes we feel like a family, we are very close to each other and I have time to visit his house two or three times, some of the time we spent playing games. (Panha)

> Our homestay they are New Zealanders…we learnt much about the culture during our stay with them and also they took us to visit their relatives, their friends. That's

> what we learnt more about we had interaction with lots of people. Also, we are visit to the Maori organisation like orchard. (Betu)

Maintaining these connections into the future after leaving New Zealand was also discussed, such as Ngan (from 2020) saying, "I'm also keep in touch with my family host and make comments, also a conversation partner we kept in touch by WhatsApp, and I think in the future we also keep connection with them". Arif (2019) agreed, with, "I have a conversation until now with my host family...and my conversion partner. We talk about the covid-19 and everything", and multiple interviewees mentioned maintaining contact on social media.

Professional connections

Interviews for both cohorts described professional connections and learning related to workplace visits, guest lectures, and field trips, although the 2020 cohort had far fewer of these to draw on. Among the 2019 interviewees, Arif remarked on how safety-conscious New Zealand workplaces were, Loc expressed thanks for connections with professionals in the Geographical Information Systems field who "send me some publication and research article and with this I can develop some idea for some new research", and Ratha provided the following details about a workplace visit:

> That was a great opportunity for me to learn how the New Zealand meteorologist work in the office, how they conduct their weather forecast, how they install their data, how they conduct their announcement, early warning…that is a great role model. (Ratha)

The 2020 interviewees agreed with 2019's interviewees to a certain extent, with Tok making note of the concept of various organisations working together to export products, and Huong finding contacts to help her government-backed agency in Vietnam import wood from New Zealand, saying:

> …the professor who gave me the lecture about wood and forest in Napier, but I contact with him to advise me how to link between Vietnamese Enterprise with New Zealand enterprise (Huong).

Online study in 2020 impacting the experience

Studying online under ERT conditions was felt by all 2020 interviewees to have negatively impacted their experience, although several also mentioned positive outcomes from the ERT online learning and interactions experience. Many interviewees indicated an understanding of the necessity for ERT conditions.

Numerous interviewees said "Zoom was better than nothing" or expressed similar sentiments. All also gave comments such as "I think if I had chance to meet face-to-face it would be better than by zoom…I like to talk with people face-to-face and I can propose to them immediately, this is my talent" (Tok). Further examples included, "During the lockdown [some classmates] didn't meet their conversation partner at all and some of them…only text or keep small talk online" (Panha), and "…we had a less

opportunity to connect to discuss with other New Zealanders...because of Covid-19 we had no opportunity to visit [Queenstown and Auckland]" (Ngan). Huong was unable to realise her desire to "touch real snow". This focus of the responses is explained by authors such as Ensmann et al. (2021) and Hasper (2021) describing the importance of building and maintaining connections, feelings of not being alone, and of being part of a community when studying online.

Mya made a point of mentioning the lack of expected workplace visits. Betu commented on learning about New Zealand through YouTube rather than conversation partners during lockdown. He also said that some of his 'bubble', "didn't have communication in the beginning maybe two, three weeks after that...started having communication with the conversation partner...we use a zoom…and sometimes send message" (Betu). Concurrent with our teaching, other institutes were using Virtual reality (VR) to substitute for physical interactions with people, workplaces and tourists sites. Practical descriptions of these are in Kern and Smith (2020) and Liu and Shirley (2021).

Positive aspects of the ERT online learning, and lockdown, experiences were framed as opportunities to learn new skills and to experience a different aspect of New Zealand culture. Examples include, "I can learn…new techniques…all of us tried to adapt to this" (Huong), and, "[accommodation staff] are very kind, they willing to help us when we ask and when we try to have communication with them…That's a nice thing that I feel" (Betu). Several of the 2020 survey respondents also commented on learning new skills for online learning and appreciating the course team's effort to keep something going rather than have nothing at all. Phout provided an example of good online interactions causing people to forget they were not meeting face-to-face, saying, "if we talked about the interesting things, we just forget about we interact by Zoom because we enjoy the conversation. But for the learning, the Zoom is…better than nothing".

Overall, the 2020 cohort had a range of individualised experiences regarding interactions with New Zealanders, building connections, and regarding reliable internet connectivity. While these experiences varied, none were what was expected when they came to New Zealand, although new skills with technology were unexpectedly learned.

Results and reflection

Recurring themes from the responses were that both cohorts felt they had achieved goals of learning about New Zealand culture and society and building connections, as well as developing professional knowledge and connections, but the 2020 cohort felt they had not achieved this as much or as well as they had hoped. The 2020 cohort also appreciated that some form of programme was offered and that learning took place but commented on the lack of connectivity or familiarity with the software as well as the fewer opportunities for interaction and cultural experience. For further examples of the findings see Edwards (2020).

Since this programme concluded, staff teaching on it have taught other, planned, programmes online to similar students in Asia. Student feedback from those courses has followed a similar pattern: appreciation of the effort, clear development in language proficiency, content, and cultural knowledge, but oft-repeated desires to have face-to-face classes, often for the feeling of community, and oft-repeated issues with reliable connectivity and equipment. As time has passed, familiarity with operating online and using the software seems to have improved, but connectivity and equipment in many cases has not. As the teaching staff have progressed through these programmes we have made use of new online platforms designed for socialising and pre-empted some connectivity problems by prescribing minimum equipment and internet reliability criteria before students apply for the course, as advised by Agar (2021), Moore et al. (2021), and Padilla Rodríguez et al. (2021). This has helped in most cases, but in some less developed countries equipment and infrastructure simply does not exist and the teachers have also found that eventually students get bored with socialising online through any medium.

Publications worldwide over the two years to early 2022, much of which has already been referred to above, show similar patterns: Teaching online works, it requires even more varied interaction and activity types than face-to-face teaching, people have got used to it but generally prefer face-to-face teaching, and there needs to be continued training and preparation of infrastructure and staff (through workshops and practice) for expected future use of online, blended, planned and potentially ERT, teaching and learning (Clandfield & Hadfield, 2021; Kern & Smith, 2020; Soria et al., 2020). In 2020, our teaching team and teachers worldwide attempted to simply move courses online. Experience since in many contexts has shown that synchronous learning online is a different experience from classroom learning, needs to be done in shorter sessions with explicit effort put into encouraging interaction, and is a useful tool rather than a 100% replacement for classroom-based learning.

Further consistent findings from the present and international research are that human interaction and feeling part of a community are important for students and hard to recreate online (Ensmann et al., 2021; Kern & Smith, 2020), and that significant discrepancies still exist around infrastructure and connectivity between regions and even between households (Samson, 2022; Smith Jaggars, 2021). While the publications referred to in this article cover many different teaching contexts, age groups, and subjects, including ESOL classes, it is clear that across all these similar themes are to be found. This means that teachers in 2022, compared to 2020, have a greater body of knowledge and experience to draw on of what works, what does not work, and what to be mindful of. Examples include not overloading students or staff (Ensmann et al., 2021), equitable connectivity and skills base, judicious choice of activity types, and length of teaching sessions.

Much pre-existing advice for preparing for disasters focused on what to do in the ‘moment’ of an event such as an earthquake or tsunami (Sowton, 2009, p.16), not an

extended years-long situation. But the world is now awake to the need to be prepared to teach online not only as a 21st-century skill but as a likely necessity in the future.

Recommendations on how to be prepared are numerous. The main one is to have all staff and students physically practice using relevant hardware and software, in class together and at home. This happened by luck in our own programme, by plan in Singapore with one week a year taught entirely online (Wong, 2020), and for some individual language teachers and institutes worldwide who had chosen to become familiar with various tools (Pusey & Nanni, 2021). To enable this a certain amount of scenario planning, having a 'Plan A and Plan B' with student and staff buy-in is needed (Dhawan, 2020; Wong, 2020). Florida, as a further example, requires high school students to complete one course through online learning to be able to graduate (Ensmann et al, 2021). For more recent programmes the author's own institute has made efforts to ensure students overseas are aware of, and have access to, appropriate reliable equipment, infrastructure (power, connectivity, bandwidth, etc), software and, through pre-course online meetings, skills in using them. As we plan for the future with several programmes remaining online, features such as development of 21st-century digital skills and access to education become course outcomes alongside developing language skills, professional knowledge, and connections. Such learning is now being designed around shorter class sessions, banks of resources for guided independent leaning, flexibility with schedules and assessments to allow for connectivity concerns, and facilities for online community building.

Some institutes have been developing programmes using VR, not only to allow students to 'visit' places such as cultural sites (Kern & Smith, 2020), and exchange partner institutes (Liu & Shirley, 2021), but also to allow students isolated at home to feel that they are in an actual classroom with peers who they can turn to look at (Agar, 2021). The author of the current article has recently been involved in setting up a VR platform which students across Asia can use for socialising, if they have suitable devices and connectivity. The various VR trials have met with mixed success to date (Kern, 2021), and Clandfield (2021) notes that use of too many new learning tools can overwhelm students and staff.

Conclusion

Teaching, learning, and connecting with people is possible online. This can be achieved most effectively with good planning, and with staff and students alike having advance knowledge that they will/may be working online. They also need training in how to use the appropriate platforms and hardware, which have to exist and be reliable in the first place. Institutes and governments who invested in such things prior to 2020 have found that to be advantageous, with Moore et al. (2021) relating the decision by some institutions to adapt and others not to adapt, as in Aesop's "Oak and Reeds" fable, where one survives a hurricane while the other is blown down.

Anecdotally, online education is often described as inclusive and accessible, but evidence shows that this only applies to people in the right socioeconomic and infrastructural circumstances. ERT does work, but with planning and training should be less, potentially not at all, necessary in the future. As we move beyond the ERT period, it is worth planning for both a general and imposed (by disasters) need for everyone to be able to teach and learn online at any time. It is useful to note that findings from 2020's QRR-style research have been supported by findings of researchers in numerous locations and education sectors, in studies carried out under less-pressured conditions than early 2020, so more precise suggestions such as those above for what to do, and what not to do too much of, can now be made.

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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