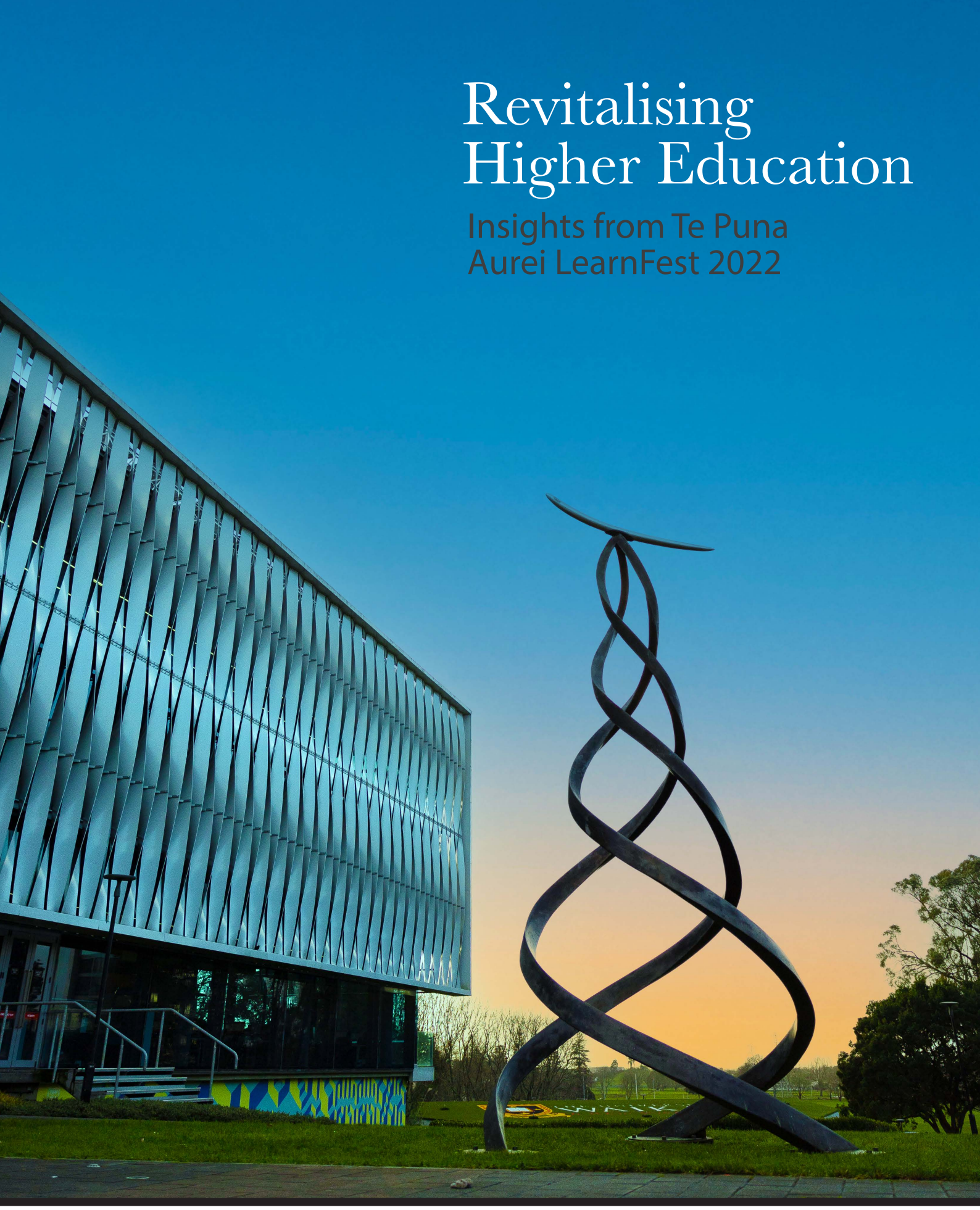
Revitalising Higher Education

Insights from Te Puna Aurei LearnFest 2022



THE UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

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Te Puna Aurei LearnFest 2022 was an online conference delivered by The University of Waikato in partnership with Cardiff University on 23 and 24 November 2022.

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Contents

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All participants at LearnFest 2022.

The editorial team: Tracy Bowell, Nicole Pepperell, Anthony Richardson, and Maria-Teresa Corino.

Introduction

Te Puna Aurei / LearnFest is an annual symposium that celebrates innovation in tertiary teaching and learning. Historically, the symposium was a face-to-face event hosted since 2016 by Te Puna Ako - Centre for Tertiary Teaching and Learning at Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato / The University of Waikato in Hamilton Aotearoa, New Zealand. The pandemic period saw the event moved online for the first time in 2021 — which opened up opportunities to reach out to a more global audience. In 2022, Te Puna Aurei was jointly hosted for the first time with Cardiff University. The papers in this collection emerged from that partnership and were inspired by discussions, reflections and synergies arising from that event.

For the 2022 symposium, when much of the world was at an (almost) post-pandemic point, our theme was Revitalisation. Understood broadly, this theme embraced revitalisation of higher education generally, revitalisation of individuals' practice, and revitalisation of teaching specific disciplines. Although we had continued to host LearnFest symposia throughout the global pandemic, having moved the event online from 2020, our joint hosting with our partner, Cardiff University, served as an opportunity for revitalisation of LearnFest itself.

Meanwhile the joint venture of publishing this volume — the first to emerge from LearnFest — deepens the Waikato/Cardiff partnership further in what we hope will continue to be a friendship through which we share ideas and inspiration.

It is by now a commonplace that the global pandemic was a significant disruptor for education at all levels and has been pivotal for the way that teaching and learning takes place in higher education. As educators, we have witnessed, and enacted, major shifts in approach that have been embraced by many learners and by some teachers. While much of the future of tertiary education is uncertain, it is clear that many aspects of teaching and learning are not going back to how things were.

This volume is structured by theme, with the first being **Key Challenges**. This contains three papers exploring key themes that arose throughout the conference. The first chapter, by Kathryn Jones and Emmajane Milton, explores how university teaching staff understand and create their professional identities in a post-Covid context. The second piece, by Dan Weijers, engages with the complexity of efforts to indigenise a largely Western European curriculum. It explores this through the case study of the Philosophy Department at the University of Waikato. The final piece, by Julie Price, Stephen Rutherford, and Jason Tucker, looks at a case study of a Cardiff University law programme, exploring the possibility of 'silver linings' from the recent Covid experience.

Theme two explores the challenge of both student and staff **Motivation**. In the first chapter Jonathan Morris, Charlotte Brookfield, Maria Jose Rodriguez Pinzon, Barbara Holt, and Elin Arfon report on a research project investigating the motivations of adult Welsh language learners, while Owen Crawford in the second chapter describes the challenges and advantages of experimental collaboration between disparate teams working on the development of the Wales Virtual Hospital. The third chapter in this theme, by Nigel Gearing, explores the challenge of addressing demotivation amongst both Korean language learners and teachers as a result of the Covid pandemic. Finally, Emma-Leigh Hodge, Rahat Hasan, Eden Poihipi, and Rebecca Barker discuss the application of new artificial intelligence tools to the sentiment analysis of large-scale qualitative datasets generated from student evaluations."

Gamification is the third theme in this volume, and it opens with a case study by Anthony Richardson on the use of an educational computer game (on the Palestinian-Israeli conflict) to teach complex systems concepts to postgraduate policy students. This is followed by Benjamin Dorrington Redder's chapter on the possibilities of using historical computer games as multimodal tools to revitalise history teaching pedagogies. Michael Schoenberger's discussion of the pedagogical possibilities and challenges of teaching through role-playing games (RPGs) continues this theme. The theme closes with Vida Bote's case study of using the word game *Wordle* to promote equity and inclusion for Māori learners in an undergraduate accounting degree.

The fourth theme in this volume is **Confronting Climate Change**. Here both chapters address the onrushing challenge of climate change: the first at a classroom level and the second at an institutional level. In his piece Edgar Burns suggests an approach for teachers aiming to address the emotional and pedagogical implications of climate change, while Jennfier Campion outlines the current approach to mainstreaming climate change throughout the law curriculum in Te Piringa Faculty of Law at the University of Waikato.

The final theme is **Revitalising English Medium Instruction**. The Covid-19 pandemic was particularly disruptive to international higher education, and the three pieces in this theme wrestle with the implications of this challenge. The first chapter by Anthony Ryan provides a case study of how one English for Academic Purposes course in China dealt with Covid and the resultant lockdowns. The piece by Brendan Sheridan and Lucy Campbell focuses on the use of *Panopto* (a video capture and hosting tool) to facilitate the rapid transition of a language course to a fully online delivery mode. The final chapter by Nykki Lane presents a different kind of case study, exploring the use of an iterative group activity that provides students with opportunities to practise their language skills by engaging with environmental, social, economic, and political challenges confronting the world today.

Earlier, we made the now commonplace observation that the global pandemic had inflicted changes on tertiary education pedagogies that seem unlikely to be reversed. While this presents us with challenges, as the papers collected here demonstrate, it also presents us with opportunities for revitalisation, not only of pedagogies, but also of disciplines and of tertiary education more broadly.

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KEY CHALLENGES

Revitalising Higher Education

Thinking inclusively to enable teaching-focused colleagues to flourish

Are you in a teaching-focused role? Do you have a non-traditional background having moved into Higher Education (HE) from industry or professional practice? Does the idea of not 'fitting in' resonate with you? In this chapter we explore how teaching-focused roles are often in a minority in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), leaving colleagues in these roles feeling misunderstood and/or underrepresented. However, these roles can and do bring a richness to HE and can support the revitalisation of institutions and the sector. This chapter presents key considerations which we propose are necessary for supporting these colleagues to flourish.

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Jones, K. and Milton, E. 2024. Revitalising Higher Education: Thinking inclusively to enable teaching-focused colleagues to flourish. In: Bowell, T., Pepperell, N., Richardson, A., and Corino, M-T. (eds.). *Revitalising Higher Education: Insights from Te Puna Aurei LearnFest 2022*. Cardiff: Cardiff University Press, pp. 3-8.

Introduction

This chapter draws on our reflections as academics in teaching-focused roles in a research-intensive institution in the United Kingdom (UK). Our perspectives are also informed by the career roles that we have previously held in professional practice and industry. Through these experiences and those of a diverse set of colleagues on similar pathways across the sector, we propose that teaching-focused roles can bring an important richness to HE. We suggest that, if harnessed and supported to flourish, the capacity, talents, and ways of working these colleagues bring can support a revitalisation of their institutions and the sector more broadly.

We make the case that teaching-focused colleagues are inherently diverse (McHanwell & Robson 2018), in part because of their learning and student-centred orientation and/or because of their varied and established roles within professional practice or industry (Santoro & Snead 2013; Fung & Gordon 2016). Consequently, as Bennett et al. (2018: 238) suggest, in being 'dual professionals', they can often bring a plethora of varied experiences and professional expertise, alternate perspectives and skill sets, a questioning approach, and a desire to bring about change. In some instances, this richness can have the unintended consequence of positioning them as disrupters who question or even challenge established norms and orthodoxies or whose 'disjointed identities … deviate from socially scripted or institutional trajectories' (Bennett et al. 2018: 280). Their externality can sometimes make colleagues wary, as when these teaching-focused colleagues (in seeking to understand ways of working) ask questions about the way things are done—they can be seen to be challenging the status quo. Teaching-focused colleagues can also be unfamiliar with, or lack experience and/or awareness of, the ways in which things work in HE. This can often unwittingly exacerbate notions of them not 'fitting in' or indeed provoke their own feelings of not 'fitting in' which, in turn, fosters experiences of not being understood, valued and/or considered in the fullest sense (Gretton & Raine 2017; Bennett et al. 2018).

There is much evidence to suggest that, in the complex and turbulent times in which we find ourselves, both locally and globally, and in grappling with the far-reaching and precarious impact of the pandemic, we need to revitalise HE and think differently about the work of HEIs (Corrall 2022; McIntosh & Nutt 2022; British Academy 2022). There may have never been a better and more important time to reconsider and reconceptualise what HE stands for and its place in society, in terms of learning, research, and knowledge creation. The cultures, climate, and ethos within institutions and across the sector will no doubt determine how successful they will be in meeting this challenge head on. Valuing diversity within institutions could be the key to unlocking even greater potential and helping them to be forward-looking, agile, and responsive.

The Nature of the Teaching-focused Role

The definitions and understandings of teaching-focused roles in UK HE can be complex and can vary depending on the institution and context. These roles can be called different things in different institutions—teaching only, teaching-focused, teaching and scholarship, etc. (Anderson & Mallanaphy 2020; Smith & Walker 2022)—which can itself exacerbate the different ideas of what the role is, what is important, and what is perceived as being essential. These roles represent a large and rapidly increasing share of the academic workforce in the UK. In the Higher Education Statistics Agency's (HESA) 2023 report, the 'teaching only' category comprised teaching-focused academics (although it is not clear if this category also included sessional staff). The percentage has steadily increased year-on-year since 2015-2016 when it was 26%, increasing to 35% by 2021/22. In comparison the 'research and teaching' category shrank by 1% between 2020/21 and 2021/22 (HESA 2023). This could be due in part to some or all the following:

- **Focus on Teaching Excellence**
  There has been a growing emphasis on the quality of learning and teaching in HE (Hénard 2010; Patfield et al. 2022) with the advent of the Teaching Excellence Framework (OfS 2023) which has encouraged institutions to recognise the importance of investing in teaching-focused staff who have a strong commitment to developing their pedagogical practices and broader student experience and support (Hulme 2022).

- **Student-centred Education**
  With the evolving landscape in HE, there is a greater recognition of the need to provide student-centred education (Pickering 2021). This includes a greater emphasis on more personalized learning experiences, active learning approaches, and targeted and tailored student support.

- **Teaching Enhancement and Pedagogical Innovation Initiatives**
  Many institutions have created teaching enhancement centres/initiatives to improve the quality of teaching and improve student learning and experience. These initiatives often involve the provision of professional learning and development opportunities and recognition of teaching expertise through accredited awards (Advance HE 2023). In addition, the advancement of technology, the shift to blended delivery models because of the pandemic, and a focus on exploring and developing expertise in terms of pedagogical approaches has also led to the adoption of more innovative teaching methods in HE and the associated recruitment of staff to deliver in these domains.

- **Funding Priorities**
  Funding bodies and government initiatives have also played a role in increasing teaching-focused contracts, activities, and offers. Some funding schemes, particularly those orientated towards meeting industry needs, specifically allocate resources to support teaching-focused roles and projects, which in turn has enabled some institutions to create more teaching-focused positions (Cooper et al. 2016).

Whilst the increase in teaching-focused roles in UK HE reflects a developing recognition of the importance of teaching excellence, McHanwell and Robson (2018: pp.10-12) make clear that:

> *Recognition and reward of teaching needs to take into account this diversity and ensure an inclusivity of processes to recognise a full range of teaching practices and career roles within institutions and between institutions with very different missions.*

Similarly, a survey conducted with teaching-focused academics working in the UK identified that improved understandings across the sector in relation to both the nature of these roles and the planned opportunities for progression and development within them was urgently needed (Smith & Walker 2022). In thinking about how to proactively meet these challenges, in the pursuit of equality of opportunity and being inclusive, we outline three key considerations which are not distinct, but intimately connected and interrelated. We suggest they might prove helpful in thinking about how to support colleagues in these roles to flourish. These are:

- reconceptualising barriers,
- valuing external/alternate perspectives, and
- being meaningfully inclusive.

Reconceptualising Barriers

There are barriers associated with teaching-focused roles, which tend to be related to how the roles are valued and their place within institutions (Fung & Gordon 2016; Gretton & Raine 2017). Valuing the diversity of all academic roles is important, as all roles contribute to the overall environment, culture, and success of each institution. Both research and teaching are core components of a university's work and are inextricably linked because, whilst the generation of new knowledge is essential, so is enabling learning about knowledge (old and new), in order to continue its ongoing generation. Teaching and research should therefore be viewed as being reciprocal and 'symbiotic' (British Academy 2022: 7). However, it is well documented that external accountability measures used to determine the success of institutions (e.g. the Research Excellence Framework and international league tables) can create a tension and can be viewed as privileging and encouraging research to be perceived as dominant and/or of most significance to institutions (British Academy 2022: 30).

Valuing research-focused roles is important because research plays a crucial role in advancing knowledge, driving innovation, and pushing the boundaries of all disciplines. Research helps institutions establish their reputation and attract high-quality faculty and students. But equally important is valuing teaching-focused roles, as teaching is the core function of HEIs and the enabler for developing new ideas. Central to this function are educators who can communicate and translate complex ideas in ways that are accessible to learners, enabling them to both develop as individuals and advance their understanding for the wider societal good. Privileging thinking about the relationship between research and teaching-focused roles, and emphasising their symbiotic and reciprocal nature, may need to be revisited and restated in ways that demonstrate more explicitly and expansively their mutual value in the current HE context. Exploring how these roles can work productively in harmony, by developing shared understandings as to their value and complementary nature, urgently needs to be grappled with and reconceptualised.

Another central barrier is achieving a jointly defined or shared understanding of the term scholarship and what constitutes scholarship activities (Fanghanel et al. 2016; Smith & Walker 2022) which are often presented as a key aspect of the teaching-focused role. It seems, that for some, this is bounded purely to the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) (Kim et al. 2021). For others, it can be understood more broadly, or used by institutions as a catch-all term to label a pathway, contract, or role type (to accommodate colleagues, both those with a student and teaching orientation and those who have been recruited based on their industry or professional practice expertise). Therefore, it may be more important to rethink and separate the 'activities' that constitute SoTL from the 'name' of the pathway, contract, or role type and rather focus on developing understandings of the breadth and benefits of expansive articulations of SoTL, for example:

> *[SoTL is] an approach that marries scholarly inquiry to any of the intellectual tasks that comprise the work of teaching – designing a course, facilitating classroom activities, trying out new pedagogical ideas, advising, writing student learning outcomes, evaluating programs (Shulman 1998). The scholarship of teaching and learning encompasses a broad set of practices that engage teachers in looking closely and critically at student learning to improve their own courses and programs, and to share insights with other educators who can evaluate and build on their efforts. (Hutchings, Huber & Ciccone 2011: 7)*

> *SoTL covers concepts as diverse as reflection and inquiry on learning and teaching practices, strategies to enhance teaching and learning, curriculum development, the promotion of research-informed teaching, undergraduate research, and student engagement in disciplinary or SoTL research. (Fanghanel et al. 2016: 8-9)*

It is only through doing this that understandings of what SoTL might 'look like' can be better supported and advocated for in line-management and/or career development or promotion conversations.

Part of the problem may lie in persistent attempts in UK HEIs to define SoTL more narrowly, in an effort to improve the transparency of what it means to support career development and progression or promotion opportunities (Smith & Walker 2022). However, this pursuit of a tighter agreed definition may in fact work to dilute the importance of engaging in the SoTL as an integral practice that should underpin the educational work of all those engaged in HE teaching. It might also serve to dominate and distract the narrative, as the focus becomes all about achieving a single or 'one-size fits all' definition which can become constraining and limiting. It may be more productive to accept that, despite the best of intentions—in just the way that research is diverse and discipline specific—scholarship may also be equally diverse, discipline specific, and therefore futile to narrowly define.

Valuing External / Alternate Perspectives

The alternate perspectives that those on teaching-focused contracts can bring to their work and HE can often result in these colleagues feeling misunderstood. Such alternate perspectives can result from either their strong student-centred focus or from external perspectives arising from entering HE from industry or professional practice (Santoro & Snead 2013). Valuing the alternate/external perspectives that often characterise teaching-focused colleagues can bring benefits in helping to counter established narratives and ways of working. This is because these staff can be less invested in maintaining the status quo and can question practices, bringing an unfamiliar or outsider perspective. In doing this, they can create dialogic 'third space[s]' which can be 'innovative sites of collaboration and contestation' (Bhabha 2012: 1-2). McIntosh and Nutt (2022: 2) describe third spaces in HE as 'enabl[ing] cultural hybridity, where culture, identities, practices and differences can be explored without an assumed or imposed hierarchy'. Consequently, these spaces can be powerful in encouraging learning environments and communities of practice (Wenger 1998) to develop which can initiate change. They also encourage the adoption of an enquiry or questioning stance (Morgan & Milton 2022) as a valued and integral part of educational academic practice, which in turn can develop pedagogical expertise.

Teaching-focused colleagues, where they transition from professional practice and/or industry into HE, can also be characterised as boundary-crossers who bring alternate and external perspectives to the institutions they serve. The idea of boundary-crossing suggests a way of working that brings together approaches, colleagues and artefacts from varied contexts which can catalyse environments to respond with new or innovative perspectives. This creative, although often disruptive, approach can result in more expansive and novel practices and can be a positive and productive consequence of encouraging and embracing the external viewpoints that those who boundary-cross can bring. As Daly and Milton (2017: 182) note, 'expansive learning environments foster a range of collaborative and dialogic practices, both formal and informal, which support risk-taking and the introduction of critical outsider viewpoints on practice'.

Being Meaningfully Inclusive

Fundamental to equality of opportunity and the inclusion of staff in teaching-focused roles is the responsibility that sits with all leaders. Key to this is recognising that the responsibility does not solely reside with the head or lead of an institution but is a shared responsibility that needs to be visible and enacted across all devolved leadership roles (e.g. heads of college/faculties and/or heads of schools/sections). This is essential to promote a strong sense of belonging and to counter or eradicate feelings of being marginalised. Influential research in this area has highlighted the impact that 'local leaders ... can have … in promoting or contradicting the message that teaching and education leadership are core to the academic mission and identity' (Fung & Gordon 2016: 20). Consequently, it becomes crucial that leaders engage with and value all staff perspectives when working to build shared understandings about aspects of academic practice. All leaders need to be visibly supportive of the diversity of career contracts/roles in an institution in order to encourage an inclusive culture to become normalised and expected.

In practice this requires leaders to actively engage all staff to contribute their thoughts and perspectives and to proactively work, in all staff interactions, from where each staff member *is* rather than where leaders or the broader community *want or expect them to be*. It is also important to actively explore, resolve or counter any real or perceived barriers in a non-judgemental and supportive way, actively working to create caring and developmental relationships with all staff regardless of their career contract/pathway. Central to adopting such an approach is being responsive to the 'expressed needs' (Noddings 2012: 773) of the individual through considering and working to meet their needs both as a person and in specifically developing their professional practice and expertise. This approach requires the flexibility and understanding to find the most appropriate support and opportunities for staff on different career contacts/pathways. It demands that leaders listen to all staff and resist making assumptions. It privileges trust and integrity and a commitment to sustained dialogue, focused on building relationships and mutual understanding. It is a conscious commitment and needs to be practiced and developed over time.

Conclusion

Given the need for all in HE to think differently in order to be prepared and resilient in facing future challenges, we suggest that harnessing the power that comes with diverse staff teams can be helpful. We are not all the same, and that is a good thing. Valuing the diversity and alternate perspectives that teaching-focused staff can often bring, choosing to see their challenges and their questioning approach as being in the spirit of making things better, and embracing their desire to understand the underpinning rationale for established practices, may in fact help institutions move forward.

Creating positive change, especially for learning, teaching, and student experiences, is communicated in everything institutions do—it is not confined or discrete to the lecture theatre; it is pervasive at every level of an institution. Teaching-focused colleagues can often be at the forefront of thinking about this challenge and whilst this chapter is not suggesting that embracing the diversity of teaching-focused colleagues will solve everything, enabling them to flourish might just help HEIs unlock more capacity to meet future challenges and could bring wider benefits for all.

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KEY CHALLENGES

Self-decolonisation in Aotearoa

Pushing through programmatic Pākehā paralysis

Te reo, tīkanga, mātauranga, te Ao, and kaupapa Māori are finally seeing a resurgence in Aotearoa. This revitalisation is occurring in the tertiary education sector, but staff and skill deficits are holding back many academic disciplines. This chapter documents the challenges facing a traditionally colonial tertiary programme—philosophy—attempting to de-colonise itself. The overlapping nature of the challenges can make decolonising appear to be so difficult that some programmes may feel paralysed. This chapter argues that the importance of decolonisation requires that programmes push through any paralysis they may be experiencing by prioritising decolonisation above other goals.

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Introduction[1]

Te reo (Māori language), tīkanga Māori (Māori customs), mātauranga Māori (Māori knowledge), te Ao Māori (the Māori worldview) and kaupapa Māori (actions and purpose based on a Māori world view; Royal 2007) are finally seeing a resurgence in Aotearoa New Zealand (East 2020; Skerrett & Ritchie 2021; Waitoa & Dombroski 2020). Although much more work is to be done, institutions are decolonising and individuals are upskilling in all things Māori (see various perspectives in Kiddle et al. 2020). While this revitalisation is also occurring in the tertiary education sector, staff and skill deficits are holding back many academic disciplines (Ruru & Nikora 2021).

This chapter documents the challenges facing a traditionally pākehā (non-Māori New Zealander, usually of European descent) tertiary programme—philosophy—attempting to de-colonise itself. The challenges include overcoming staff skill and knowledge deficits, locating appropriate resources, doing justice to Māori philosophy without the requisite background knowledge, attracting Māori staff and students, upskilling in a time-pressured environment, and avoiding tokenism, cultural appropriation, and overburdening Māori colleagues. Unfortunately, overcoming many of these challenges requires having already overcome others. The overlapping nature of the challenges can make decolonising appear to be so difficult that some programmes may feel like progress is unrealistic or even impossible. As a result, programmes may become frozen, a kind of programmatic paralysis that perpetuates the status quo instead of achieving decolonisation. This programmatic pākehā paralysis is the academic programme version of the phenomenon Tolich (2002) identified in non-Māori researchers and Hotere-Barnes (Kirkness 2019) popularised for non-Maōri te reo (Māori language) speakers. This chapter argues that the importance of decolonisation requires that programmes push through any paralysis they may be experiencing by prioritising decolonisation above other goals, even if they have to do it themselves. Finally, some suggestions for how programmes and individuals can achieve self-decolonisation are offered.

While this chapter is specifically about the Aotearoa New Zealand experience, the main themes and recommendations may be applicable to academic units in other nations with a colonial past.

> *He aha te mea nui o te ao?*
> *He tangata, he tangata, he tangata!*
>
> *What is the most important thing in the world?*
> *It is people, it is people, it is people!*

1 *For an introduction to the author (my pepeha and whakapapa), see the end of the chapter.*

The Value of Philosophy and Failing to Appeal to Māori Students

Within academic philosophy in Aotearoa New Zealand and in the Philosophy Programme at the University of Waikato, there have been several discussions about the underrepresentation of various groups, including Māori. In the context of these conversations, it has been considered an 'anecdotal truth' that Philosophy has very few Māori staff and attracts much less than our fair share of Māori students. At least for the University of Waikato, the anecdotal truth is also an empirical truth. The University of Waikato's data reporting tools for 2022 show that 24% of enrolments across the whole University are from Māori, while only 18% of enrolments in Philosophy-coded papers are from Māori. Furthermore, Māori students have made up only 9-19% of graduates with Philosophy majors or minors over the last 20 years. Specifically: 2002-6 = 9%; 2007-11 = 19%; 2012-6 = 13%; 2017-21 = 15%. Figure 1 shows no clear trend, but the fact remains that Māori are somewhat underrepresented in Philosophy at Waikato.

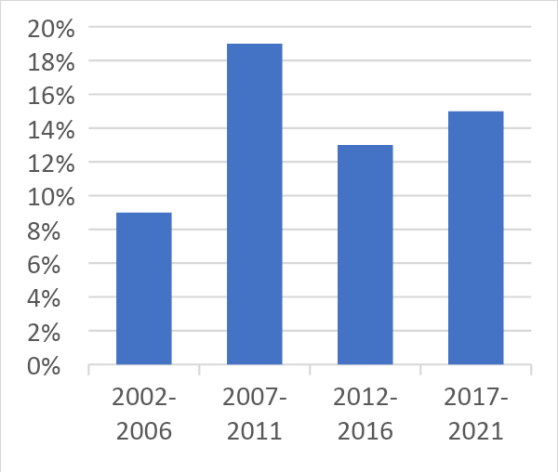

Figure 1. Proportion of Philosophy majors and minors completed by Māori. Graph created using the University of Waikato's 'Award Completions' data (2002-2021).

My colleagues and I believe that the under-representation of Māori in Philosophy is a problem because philosophy is valuable, and we are probably unwittingly deterring Māori students from studying it.

The analytic, critical, creative, and holistic thinking skills philosophy students develop are useful for students' lives outside of and after university study. These are the kinds of skills that will help students succeed in any cognitively demanding job and especially in the ones that cannot easily be outsourced to intelligent machines (Weijers 2018). Philosophy graduates' thinking skills are demonstrated by their excellent results on the various graduate examinations in the United

States (see Weinstein for a summary of the research). For example, data on Graduate Record Examinations from the United States (2015–2018) shows that students going on to graduate-level study in Philosophy outperform those going on to all other areas of graduate-level study (Bogardus 2019).

These thinking skills also translate into economic value. In an in-depth analysis of the return on investment of college majors, Altonji and Zimmerman (2019) found that a Philosophy degree is great value, generating returns similar to engineering and health degrees. Furthermore, a 2008 survey of 1.2 million US degree holders by PayScale, Inc. shows that philosophy majors increase their starting salary by 103.5% after 10 years (WSJ 2017; Bump 2015). This is the greatest increase among the 50 majors surveyed, tied with mathematics. It also showed that the median mid-career salary for a philosophy major is US$81,200 (NZ$112,198), fourth among all 50 majors surveyed (Bump 2015).

In addition to the financial benefits philosophical thinking skills can bring, most philosophers also think that studying philosophy can lead to the good life. Perhaps most famously, Socrates is often attributed the saying: 'the unexamined life is not worth living'. There is more to be said about the value of studying Philosophy, but I take the point to be sufficiently made.

The worry, then, is that some Māori are missing out on the opportunity to learn the valuable skills we teach in Philosophy. A quick clarification is required here. It may be thought that Māori students are studying philosophy, just not with the Philosophy Programme. At least at the University of Waikato, this is true. The Philosophy Programme endorses Māori students learning Māori Philosophy from Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao, our Faculty of Māori and Indigenous Studies (FMIS). We list their Māori Philosophy paper as part of our Philosophy major. However, FMIS only teaches one Māori Philosophy paper. So, a prolonged course of study in Philosophy at the University of Waikato must be done with the Philosophy Programme.

Since Philosophy is valuable and cannot be sufficiently studied outside the Philosophy Programme, the under-representation of Māori in the Philosophy Programme is a problem … and it may be our fault. We worry that the way we have historically designed and delivered our courses is not seen as appealing, appropriate, or comfortable by some Māori students. If our courses really are valuable, and many Māori students do not feel welcome or understood in them, then we may be failing our duty of inclusivity to Māori. It is unfair to use the public's (everyone's) tax dollars to create a valuable service that benefits non-Māori more than Māori. Excluding Māori was certainly not our conscious goal, but ignorance can quickly blur into culpable complicity. Failure to notice when the status quo disadvantages Indigenous people perpetuates the insidious racism within colonial institutions. In addition to the general moral duty to be fully inclusive of Māori, academic programmes in Aotearoa also have an obligation of inclusivity under Te Tiriti (the Māori version of Aotearoa's founding treaty, known as The Treaty of Waitangi in English; Durie 2005). While some people disagree about exactly how Te Tiriti should be interpreted (O'Sullivan et al. 2021), it at least demands that Aotearoa's resources should not fund institutions that prioritise or otherwise favour non-Māori.

If we cannot change our ways to be more appealing and inclusive to Māori, then we are not respecting the mana (inherent dignity) of those we fail, we are not acting fairly, and we are failing to uphold our responsibilities derived from Te Tiriti. Although important, recognising this failing is just the first step, and one that achieves very little by itself. We need to somehow change this failure into a success.

> *He iti hau marangai e tū te pāhokahoka.*
> *Just like a rainbow after the storm, success follows failure.*
> (Te Reo Māori Classroom 2019)

Programmatic Pākehā Paralysis

With the problem identified, we began to think about how to solve it. Unfortunately, we discovered many overlapping barriers to the potential solutions. As will be discussed, we could not identify any first steps that were easy or without risks. This lack of a clear path forward could very easily have led to Programmatic Pākehā Paralysis—inaction on programmatic decolonisation caused by being unable to see how to proceed.

With the main goal of making the Philosophy Programme and its courses safe and appealing places for Māori to come and be as Māori, we first considered changing our curriculum. By including Māori philosophy in our curriculum alongside our usual 'Western Analytic' philosophy, the content of our offerings might appeal to Māori students' interests and promote their mana in the context of our courses by validating mātauranga Māori. Unfortunately, we did not have any staff with expertise in Māori philosophy. While the oft-touted pedagogical benefits of research-led teaching may in fact be a myth (Kinchin & Hay 2007), teachers must still have some salient knowledge and experience to effectively create and teach courses for higher education. So, with our current staff, the Philosophy Programme was not in a place to create or teach courses on Māori philosophy.

Our next consideration was hiring new staff that already have expertise in Māori philosophy. Despite tough times for academics (e.g. tens of thousands of higher education workers lost their jobs during the Covid-19 pandemic; Littleton & Stanford 2021), we have hired new staff over the last decade. Unfortunately, none of the hundreds of qualified applicants over this period had expertise in Māori philosophy. Asking around our close-knit philosophical community in Aotearoa also reveals that no one with expertise in Māori philosophy is

in the 'PhD pipeline' either. Given that nearly all the philosophy programmes in Aotearoa (and around the world!) are and have been lacking expertise in Māori philosophy, it is not too surprising that we are not attracting or training academics that could create and teach Māori philosophy.

Of course, academics with expertise in Māori philosophy do exist; it is just exceedingly rare to see them in philosophy programmes. Instead, the likes of Professors Tom Roa and Carl Mika work in Māori and Indigenous Studies units. These units have been steeped in te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori since their inceptions, making them much more appealing homes for academics interested in Māori philosophy, especially if they are also Māori themselves.

If academics with expertise in Māori philosophy do not apply for our jobs, then we could consider head-hunting them. While possible, this would be expensive and unlikely to be effective. Recent changes to how university research is funded in Aotearoa make Māori research and Māori researchers more financially valuable for universities (TEC 2021). For this reason, and hopefully for the fairness and Te Tiriti reasons discussed above, some universities are starting to value Māori researchers and Māori research, including Māori philosophy (as shown by a shift in hiring and promotion patterns). This recent change has led to a big increase in demand for the few academics with expertise in Māori philosophy. As a result, head-hunting anyone with expertise in Māori philosophy is likely to be expensive.

But even if we had the finances available to hire an in-demand academic with expertise in Māori philosophy, they may not choose to work with us. As mentioned above, academics with expertise in Māori philosophy are likely to want to work in an academic unit that is proficient in te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori. They are also likely to prefer to work alongside academics with similar research interests. Pākehā philosophy programmes tend not to have these features, and certainly cannot compete with Māori and Indigenous Studies units on them. So, absent the funding and managerial will for a block hire of Māori staff, attempts to head-hunt academics with expertise in Māori philosophy will likely fail because pākehā philosophy programmes are still too colonial.

Given the implausibility of hiring staff with expertise in Māori philosophy, we reconsidered the PhD pipeline—perhaps we could think more long-term and start putting students with an interest in Māori philosophy into the pipeline. Unfortunately, this strategy also seems doomed to failure. As mentioned, our current staff do not have expertise in Māori philosophy. It will be very difficult to get students interested in Māori philosophy if we do not teach it and do not have a good understanding of it. Even if we could get a student interested in pursuing post graduate research on Māori philosophy, we could not supervise it; they would need to be supervised by staff in other units, most likely Māori and Indigenous Studies units. As a result, we would just have put those promising students into a different pipeline, one that does not end up in our Philosophy Programme.

Given the problems getting Māori philosophy experts to come to us, a solution might be found in going to them. We have already listed Māori philosophy courses taught by staff in other units in our Philosophy major. We did this because we appreciate the philosophical value of Māori philosophy and wanted to ensure our students had the option to learn about it within our major. While better than nothing for our students, this approach fails to achieve our main goal of making the Philosophy Programme and its courses safe and appealing places for Māori to come and be as Māori. If anything, sending our students with an interest in Māori philosophy outside of our programme sends the message that we are not a good home for people with an interest in Māori philosophy.

On a practical note, very few of our students take the Māori philosophy options. This may be because the Māori philosophy courses do not have PHILO course codes, or because many students prefer to take courses from their local or degree-specific units. So, the approach of listing Māori philosophy options from other units fails to make our programme more inviting to Māori students and doesn't seem to result in many of our students experiencing Māori philosophy courses. When combined, these two weaknesses of outsourcing Māori philosophy are sufficient to rule this out as a long-term solution—it's much too close to doing nothing and thereby perpetuating our colonial legacy.

If we must deliver some Māori philosophy from within our programme, but lack the expertise to teach a whole course, one further possibility remains. Perhaps we could include little bits of Māori philosophy in our existing courses? But who should create and teach the Māori philosophy parts? The most qualified people are the academics with expertise in Māori philosophy. But expecting, or even hoping, that they will do it contributes to a different problem—he aronga takirua (cultural double-shift). In the context of science, Haar and Martin (2021) show that Māori academics working in Aotearoa have all the responsibilities of non-Māori staff and a host of other demands on them because they are Māori. Now that universities are taking steps towards decolonising, managers want Māori staff representation on all committees, Māori cultural elements added to various activities, and Māori input on every research proposal. With Māori staff underrepresented in universities (Haar & Martin, 2021), this extra work is spread over just a few staff. Of course, this adds up to a lot of extra work for Māori academics (like having to do another shift).

Although based on interviews with scientists (Haar & Martin, 2021), he aronga takirua is a problem in all subject areas at universities in Aotearoa. It is also a problem for pākehā philosophy programmes because nearly all Māori philosophy

expertise is found in Māori academics. For example, the only academics that specialise in Māori philosophy at the University of Waikato are Māori and work in FMIS. Making he aronga takirua worse, there is little to no reciprocity or established relationship to help make the extra work feel valuable. Even when there is an established relationship and a genuine offer of reciprocity, Māori colleagues may not need the kind of help we can give and may not even have time to work out a way to make use of potential reciprocal favours. After all, it is all things Māori that are suddenly in high demand, not all things philosophy. Because of concerns about he aronga takirua, we have limited our demands on Māori colleagues to some consultation. It is too burdensome to ask our Māori colleagues to create and teach parts of our Philosophy courses.

So, if we cannot get the most qualified people to create and teach some course content on Māori philosophy, we might consider some less qualified people to do it instead. The current staff may lack the requisite experience and knowledge to teach a whole course on Māori philosophy, but perhaps we could teach little bits of Māori philosophy in our existing courses? Unfortunately, there are risks here too. Including a very small amount of Māori philosophy in our courses could easily be viewed as tokenism, especially if it is not delivered authentically and enthusiastically. This kind of successful delivery is not easy to achieve without a solid grounding in the material. But this is not the only issue. While consulting with colleagues from FMIS, we are sometimes told that our lack of grounding in te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori means that we should not teach any Māori philosophy. Their point is that Māori philosophy is deeply intertwined with these other aspects, so that being able to effectively teach Māori philosophy is very unlikely without expertise in them as well. In Western Analytic philosophy, we spend most of our time critiquing (mainly criticising) different theories about important issues. This raises the further worry that Māori philosophy and te Ao Māori might be treated negatively and disrespectfully within a Western Analytic philosophy course.

Taking stock, we found ourselves in a trilemma. Given the implausibility of hiring a Māori philosophy specialist, we have three bad options for teaching some Māori philosophy in our programme: do not teach Māori philosophy in the Philosophy Programme at all; teach it badly; or add to the he aronga takirua of Māori colleagues. All of these options seem unacceptably bad, so bad that we could have frozen like a possum in headlights and given in to programmatic pākehā paralysis because, despite our best intentions, we could not see a viable path forward.

But we didn't stay paralysed for long. Working through dilemmas and trilemmas is actually a speciality of philosophers, so we took the philosophical approach of returning to our initial question and thinking about the issue from a different perspective. The main goal was to make the Philosophy Programme and its courses safe and appealing places for Māori to come and be as Māori. The main reason that none of the potential solutions would work is that our programme and especially our staff are very pākehā—we lack proficiency in Māori philosophy and te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori.

Given our responsibility to stop being part of the problem, the only viable solution seems to be that we, the current staff, do our very best to upskill ourselves and be the change we wanted to see. Given the interconnectedness of Māori philosophy and te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori, we would need to upskill in all these areas in order to teach some Māori philosophy effectively and without causing concern to our Māori colleagues. Upskilling in all these areas is no easy task, but the seriousness of the problem demands that we try. So, several years before we were formally encouraged to do so by management, philosophers at the University of Waikato began upskilling in earnest. I recommend that at least some people in every programme make upskilling in te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori the focus of their professional development. And I reiterate that failure to do so may be a moral failing.

> *Haere taka mua, taka muri; kaua e whai*
> *Be a leader not a follower*
> (Massey nd.)

Recommendations for Decolonising

Based on our experience in the Philosophy Programme at the University of Waikato, below are some suggestions about ways in which programmes and individuals can push through pākehā paralysis. Of course, institutional policies and contexts vary, so all suggestions should be considered in light of these. For example, the University of Waikato currently supports staff by encouraging participation in several different kinds of free training and education to help staff upskill in te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori.

In order to decolonise an academic programme and appeal to Māori students, I suggest reflection and actions in several areas: curriculum. teaching approach, and liaison.

Curriculum discussions should at least cover overall philosophy, courses offered, and content and assessment topics. These discussions may be facilitated by research in discipline-specific networks and collections. Where those networks or collections do not exist, programmes can lead their organisation and development. For example, the Philosophy Programme at the University of Waikato is organising a Māori-philosophy-specific stream at the Aotearoa New Zealand Association of Philosophers' annual conference in December 2023. The express goals of the stream are to create

a network of philosophers and other academics interested in decolonising philosophy in Aotearoa and to produce Māori philosophy resources to be used in Aotearoa philosophy programmes.

As for decolonising the general teaching approach, specific meetings are likely to be required. In the Philosophy Programme at the University of Waikato, we have an annual mini-conference meeting dedicated to sharing our reflections on current approaches to teaching and learning. We always invite a few people from other academic programmes and a few more from Te Puna Ako Centre for Tertiary Teaching and Learning. With the generous help of some Māori colleagues, we have used our last two annual mini-conferences to discuss the whys and hows of kaupapa Māori teaching in our programme. These gatherings also enabled us to encourage each other to continue to develop ourselves and our teaching in this area.

Finally, programmes should also consider appointing a staff member to be a specialised first point of contact for Māori related inquiries, students, student support services, and so on. The point of such a position is not to alleviate the duty to upskill on kaupapa Māori for other staff in the programme (and it should not do this). Rather, the point is to signal our willingness and cultural competency to other individuals and groups.

For individuals to upskill in order to decolonise and appeal to Māori students, I suggest reflection and actions in several areas: te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, kaupapa Māori[2], and whakawhanaungatanga (the process of building relationships). It can be overwhelming to even consider finding the time to improve in so many areas at once, but the interwoven nature of these different aspects makes this necessary and not quite as difficult as it might first appear. I suggest the best approach is to identify the areas you need to work on and then make concrete measurable goals in each area. Look especially for activities that contribute to multiple areas at once. For example, I am currently studying Te Ara Reo Māori Level 1 at Te Wānanga o Aotearoa. The course is run in a completely kaupapa Māori way, so I get to learn about te reo, tīkanga Māori, and kaupapa Māori teaching all at the same time. See opposite for an example of some concrete decolonising goals.

In addition to learning about and practising te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, and kaupapa Māori, I suggest getting to know your Māori colleagues. The method most recommended to me and that seems most successful is to invite them for a cup of tea or coffee with the only agenda of getting to know them better. Being friendly with and supporting Māori colleagues is an important part of being a good colleague and decolonising your institution. As obvious as this may seem, my Māori colleagues say that it does not always happen, and often happens a lot less than the invite with a self-serving agenda attached. Do not contribute to he aronga takirua: Māori colleagues are people to cherish, not resources to exploit.

Decolonising ourselves and our programmes means learning about te reo, tīkanga Māori, mātauranga Māori, te Ao Māori, kaupapa Māori, and Te Tiriti. This is no small task. As academics, we are used to being expert teachers in our areas, but now we need to be novice learners. While learning, there will be many times we mispronounce words or perhaps violate an important protocol. Being so obviously bad at something may make some of us feel uncomfortable. But we must persevere. After all, it's probably our turn to feel uncomfortable for a while.

He moana pukepuke e ekengia e te waka
A choppy sea can be navigated
(Ako Aotearoa 2011)

2 *A wonderful resource for learning about Kaupapa Māori teaching is* Ngā Hau e Whā o Tāwhirimātea: Culturally Responsive Teaching and Learning for the Tertiary Sector *(Rātima et al. 2022).*

Examples of Concrete Steps Towards Self-Decolonisation

1. Te reo

Goal: I want to be more familiar with te reo pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary so that I can better pronounce student names and Māori terms and understand and participate in simple conversations in te reo (before the end of 2023).

Measure: I will use passing Te Ara Reo Māori Level 1 at Te Wānanga o Aotearoa as the formal measure of success and my own experience pronouncing student names and Māori terms and understanding and participating in simple conversations in te reo as an informal measure.

Method: I have applied to enrol in Te Ara Reo Māori Level 1 at Te Wānanga o Aotearoa. This is a 60-credit part-time course that runs for 38 weeks, starting in March 2023. At least two of my colleagues have also applied for the same course and we plan on practising together.

2. Tikanga

Goal: I want to memorise my pākehā pepeha, fully understand the translation, and be able to deliver it with reasonably good pronunciation before the end of 2023.

Measure: I will perform my pākehā pepeha to one of my Māori colleagues and ask them whether they think I should feel OK doing it to that standard in front of Māori I do not know. I will also informally gauge reactions to it when I use it.

Method: I will refine and practice my pākehā pepeha when I present talks, at the start of teaching, and with my colleagues in the Te Ara Reo Māori Level 1 course.

3. Mātauranga Māori

Goal: From now on, I will include at least one lesson's worth of mātauranga Māori in all the papers I teach, including having it be part of the assessment; and I want to do a good job of delivering the related content.

Measure: I can see for myself whether I included the mātauranga Māori content. I get very high response rates in my teaching evaluations, so I will gauge whether I have done a good job based on how Māori and non-Māori students respond to it in the formal evaluations (or if they email me about it).

Method: Some of my colleagues in philosophy and I already have a plan to host a special symposium in December 2023 at which we and others will present Māori philosophy in a specific context that is useful for teaching popular philosophy courses (and will hopefully lead to an edited volume of comparative Māori/non-Māori philosophy). My incorporation of mātauranga Māori content in my other papers will help me prepare for this and encourage me to start planning my teaching early so I have time to do it.

4. Te Tiriti o Waitangi

Goal: I will include content on Te Tiriti o Waitangi as part of two linked courses that I will teach in 2024A. It will be included in the assessment and will be delivered well.

Measure: I can see for myself whether I included the Te Tiriti o Waitangi content. I get very high response rates in my teaching evaluations, so I will gauge whether I have done a good job based on how Māori and non-Māori students respond to it in the formal evaluations (or if they email me about it).

Method: I will include content on Te Tiriti o Waitangi in PHILO106(HAM&NET)24A: Social and Moral Philosophy. I used to teach about racism and positive discrimination in this course, but I used mainly examples and content from the United States. I will change the focus to similar issues in the Aotearoa context and be sure to provide some information about Te Tiriti o Waitangi as context.

5. Kaupapa Māori

Goal: Use the Ngā Hau e Whā o Tāwhirimātea / The Four Winds of Tāwhirimātea model (Rātima 2022: 15) to plan all my courses for 2024. I will check that I include elements of the four winds (whanaungatanga, manaakitanga, rangatiratanga, and kotahitanga) in the course design and delivery style. For example, I will make sure to include my pākehā pepeha in my face-to-face and online courses to help show that 'cultural and personal identities [will be] embraced' (Rātima 2022:15), not least Māori culture and identity.

Measure: I will conduct a self-assessment of the goal and keep notes. I will use these notes to help me write my next teaching portfolio and my promotion applications. I will also keep an eye out for formal and informal student feedback regarding my kaupapa Māori approach.

Method: In different courses, I will put different amounts of emphasis on how deeply I follow the Ngā Hau e Whā o Tāwhirimātea / The Four Winds of Tāwhirimātea model and on how much I refer to the winds when explaining to students what we are doing and why. I will use this variegated method to see what students, and especially Māori students, respond best to. This is relatively new territory for me, and I expect I will have to feel my way through it to some extent. I suppose it is possible that my advertising my approach to students will not make any difference to them, or maybe even annoy some students, so I will try a range of things and see how it goes.

My Pākehā Pepeha and Other Aspects Commonly Used in Mihimihi

A good resource to help get you started on a pākehā pepeha is Opai (2022).

Greeting
Tēnā koutou, tēnā koutou, tēnā koutou katoa
Greetings to you (all) (x3) without exception.

Whakataukī *(proverb)*
He aha te mea nui o te ao?
What is the most important thing in the world?
He tangata, he tangata, he tangata!
It is people, it is people, it is people!

Paku mihi *(acknowledgements)*
Tuatahi, ka mihi hoki au ki ngā tohu o te rohe nei.
First, I acknowledge the important landmarks of this area.
Tuarua, ko tēnei taku mihi ki ngā tāngata whenua o te rohe nei.
Second, I acknowledge the Indigenous people of this area.

Ki a tātou e tau nei, ka nui taku mihi.
To all of us, I am very grateful.

Ko tēnei taku pepeha
(a Māori cultural statement of where I'm from)
Ko Ashover Rock tōku maunga
Ashover Rock is my mountain.
Ko Press Brook tōku awa
Press Brook is my river.
Ko Ingarangi rāua ko Tangata Tiriti ōku iwi
English and Non-Māori Kiwi are my tribes.

Ko Chesterfield, Derbyshire rāua ko Taranaki ngā whenua tupu
I grew up in Chesterfield, Derbyshire and Taranaki.
Ko Enderley, Kirikiriroa tōku kāinga
Enderly, Hamilton is my home.

Whakapapa
(the people in my family tree)
Ko Mick Turton rāua ko Anne Barker ōku mātu
Mick Turton and Anne Barker are my parents.
Ko Joe Turton tōku tuakana
Joe Turton is my older brother (I'm male).

Ko Dan Weijers tōku ingoa
My name is Dan Weijers.
Ko Eli Weijers rāua ko Asher Weijers āku tamariki
Eli Weijers and Asher Weijers are my children.

Closing
Nō reira, tēnā koutou, tēnā tatou katoa
So, thank you (all), thanks to all of us without exception.

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KEY CHALLENGES

A Silver Lining

Revitalising impacts of Covid for students, staff, and the institution in Higher Education - a case study

In the past decade, global higher education has undergone significant transformations in learning and teaching (L&T) practices. The 2020 Covid-19 pandemic and subsequent lockdowns acted as a disruptive force, prompting rapid changes in L&T methods—dubbed 'panic-gogy.' We examine a UK University's response to the pandemic's impact on L&T, focusing on institutional, staff, and student dimensions. The university strategically prioritised teaching and student experiences, implemented staff development initiatives, and addressed challenges in student engagement and placements post-pandemic. We identify aspects that led to successful long-term adoption of approaches to revitalise provision and highlight long-term challenges that still need solutions.

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Introduction

Higher Education (HE) has been experiencing considerable change in educational practices, globally, over the last decade, focusing towards more-effective methods in learning and teaching (L&T). Revitalising L&T approaches is key, especially with regard to effective teaching, student engagement, technology use, and employability. However, adoption of evidence-based educational practices in HE has been relatively sedate. When driving change, often a disruption is necessary to elicit rapid progress. One such disruption, with extreme impact, was the 2020 Covid-19 pandemic, and resultant social lockdowns across many countries. This chapter aims to provide examples of how this disruption drove institutional change in HE and evaluates the impacts of those changes.

The direction and rate of change in the Higher Education sector

Across the global HE sector, there has been considerable and ongoing development over the last decade in practices for L&T. HE institutions are increasingly investing in the development and support of L&T practices and innovations, in a sector which has traditionally been more research-focused than teaching-focused (McKinley 2018). As a result, evidence-informed enhancement of educational practices has typically been slow in comparison to innovations in research or professional practice within disciplines (British Academy 2022). Changes in the HE sector as a whole have driven some changes to practice. Substantive shifts include the introduction of tuition fees for home students in parts of the UK; moves towards widening access to university study; or increased numbers of young people entering HE. Other drivers relate to the changing face of knowledge and information, such as the democratisation of information with the internet (Brabazon 2007); the rise of social media and interactive user-led ('Web 2.0' and beyond: Kitsantas & Dabbagh 2011) platforms; and the increased use of blended learning approaches (Müller & Mildenberger 2021). The shifting landscape has begun to effect a greater focus on student-centred learning and student personal development and challenges to the didactic knowledge-focused models of education (Samuelowitz & Bain 2011).

As technologies for blended and online learning developed, there was substantive, though not universal, adoption of these technologies to educational practice in HE. These changes enabled wider access to learning across society. For example, the introduction of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) in the second decade of the century opened up university-designed education to millions of subscribers who would not have had the opportunity to attend university in the traditional way (Kaplan & Haenlein 2016). The adoption of screen-recording software for lecture capture and distribution has become increasingly prevalent (and in some cases, ubiquitous), potentially transforming how students engage with didactic teaching activities (Müller & Mildenberger 2021).

In addition, the increasing number of graduates, and financial strictures after the 2008 financial crisis, meant that there was increasing demand (and competition) for graduate level employment. With only 65.2% of graduates in 'Graduate highly-skilled' employment in 2021 in the UK (UK Government 2022), having a degree is no longer of itself an elite marker which leads easily to a graduate-level job. It has therefore become increasingly important for HE institutions to provide embedded employability skills and transferable skills alongside content knowledge and discipline-specific skills. Graduate employability outcomes have become increasingly important to students assessing the value and quality of their programmes of study and to UK Higher Education providers (with HESA Graduate Outcomes survey data being utilised in all the main UK Higher Education League tables). As a result, there is greater focus on universities supporting students to develop a broad framework of skills and attributes necessary to become lifelong learners and succeed in their future careers.

However, the tension between research and teaching, and the potential detrimental impact on the student experience, has long been the subject of academic commentary (for example, McKinley et al. 2018; Hordósy & McLean 2022). In particular, educational provision that supports students' transition into the world of work, with its emphasis on developing transferable employability skills, can often be regarded as having nothing to contribute to the research agenda and is, therefore, relegated down the list of strategic priorities and regarded as being for the careers service to deliver. Therefore, particularly in research-intensive institutions, achieving the change of focus necessary to meet students' expectations is challenging and requires the balancing of competing priorities. Progress in these areas of innovation, however, has been a process of slow adoption limited by the pace of cultural change, and in many sectors this has not kept up with the rate of change of technology, or professional practice outside of university.

The Covid-19 pandemic and panic-gogy

Within any sector or community of practice, for the rate of change to accelerate, and/or paradigm-shifting changes to practice to be made, a substantial disruption to the status quo is often required. For HE, such a disruption came with the impact of the Covid-19 global pandemic in 2020. Amidst the tragic loss of life, there were also widespread social lockdowns in most countries. These lockdowns in turn required a sudden, and generally unprepared-for, change from face-to-face teaching to often fully online delivery of courses and online assessments (Hordósy & McLean 2022). This seismic upheaval required an immediate rethink of educational practices, with new approaches needing to be adopted by staff and students who often had little or no training or expertise in such pedagogies. This rapid attempt to manage the situation, often referred to as 'Panic-gogy' (Baker 2020; Kamenetz 2020; Spinks et al. 2021), required a fundamental rethinking of pedagogies and processes of learning. As a result, several methodologies

were adopted wholesale that had previously been avoided or treated with caution in the sector. Examples of these rapid adoptions included:

- **The use of online platforms for teaching delivery.** There was a sudden need to upskill students, teachers, and support staff in digital tools for learning and communication. Online platforms such as Microsoft Teams™, Zoom™ and BlackBoard Collaborate™, whose use had been patchy across the sector, and often confined to online or distance courses for delivery of content, became the prevalent methodologies for delivery of material.

- **Remote and Open Book Assessments.** Online assessment and the adoption of 'open-book' assessments became more widespread, especially in early-mid 2020, when students were often distributed internationally, in different time zones, and in locations where they could not be monitored. There had been some engagement with 'online proctoring' of remote examinations before the pandemic (Alessio et al. 2018), in most cases requiring an independent company to monitor students during each assessment. The sudden increase in remote assessments made this approach impractical in most cases, and so required a rethink of the design of summative assessment. Remote assessments required a shift from assessing content knowledge and understanding (which could be easily found online in a remote assessment), to assessing the application of knowledge and understanding to solving problems and scenarios (Sam, Reid & Amin 2020; Bansal 2022).

- **Online alternatives to practical training**. Online methodologies to replace formerly face-to-face training activities (such as laboratory work, professional interactions, fieldwork, clinical interactions, and performance) were needed, leading to the development of communities of practice (such as the #DryLabsRealScience community in bioscience education: Francis, Smith & Turner 2022) for sharing online alternatives to face-to-face practical training.

Despite the many student-centred advances in pedagogies, several challenges were also identified for this remote approach to L&T. Such challenges included:

- **Social isolation for students (and staff)**. The lockdowns globally had strong impacts on personal relationships and mental wellbeing. This was especially true of students, particularly those new to university, who were unable to form the social relationships that are necessary to support learning in the HE context. The limitation on the formation of Personal Learning Networks (Rutherford 2019) to support learning, and the knock-on effects on socialisation, engagement, and mental wellbeing for isolated young adults, was widespread and well-documented (for example, Copeland et al. 2021; Chen & Lucock 2022).

- **Digital Poverty.** The sudden move to online learning identified an area which had previously been present, but largely unrecognised—the issue of Digital Poverty. Not all students were able to afford the necessary hardware to engage with remote learning and assessment. Students frequently were required to share equipment, wi-fi/ internet access (if indeed they had these resources at all), and physical spaces with close family, who were also working/studying from home.

- **Opportunities for academic malpractice.** The lack of supervision of summative assessment and end-of-unit examinations assessment led to a widespread concern over the veracity of students' work and its authenticity. Essay mills saw an increase in activity and there was an increased need (real or perceived) to have mechanisms in place to check for plagiarism or collusion.

Returning to a 'new normal'

In the post-lockdown situation, with the return to mostly-face-to-face delivery, many of the advances undertaken in the pandemic have been retained. However, in many instances there has been a wholesale return to the pre-Covid practices. The impact of the lockdowns on both learners and educators will be visible for several years. The impact on students' educations will have aftershocks, with those impacts changing each academic year, depending on the stage at which they experienced the lockdowns in their educational journey. There have been measurable changes to the behaviours of both students and educators (Hordósy & McLean 2022; Day et al. 2023) as well as to the preparedness of students for independent learning.

Another effect of the pandemic was potentially an increased level of value placed on L&T in the university sector. There was a high degree of uncertainty during the summer of 2020, when it was not clear what educational decisions students would make at the start of the academic year. If students decided to stay away from a socially-distanced, or locked-down, university experience and defer for a year, the HE sector was faced with the prospect of substantial, even catastrophic, shortfalls in funding. It is possibly not coincidental that many institutions began to invest more substantially in teaching infrastructure after this potential threat was writ large.

In particular, the engagement of students with face-to-face activities, and their preparedness for engaging with employers in the post-university world, are issues. In tandem with this, the training and engagement of staff is also a challenge. Educators had experienced a sudden change to online learning, followed by a move to an unstable hybrid learning situation (2021-2022), and then back to full-time face-to-face learning (2022-2023). The degree to which students are prepared for

university, and to which educators are prepared to teach these individuals effectively, needs to be questioned.

Chapter aims

This chapter focuses on three elements of a case study featuring Cardiff University: attempts to adapt to the post-lockdown environment in HE, focusing in particular on staff preparedness to educate in such an environment and student engagement with face-to-face activities. We begin with a review of the **institutional** response to L&T in the context of the student experience. We discuss the adoption of a series of strategic initiatives which also revitalised L&T post-pandemic. Initiatives were implemented through institutional KPIs, a revised Education & Students sub-strategy, new programme revalidation processes, and embedding graduate attributes in curricula. **Staff** support was enfolded into a range of approaches aimed at upskilling staff. This case study element discusses the need and embedding of these interventions. We offer a case study of **students** in the Law School. New students intend to enter the legal profession and thus placement/work experience is essential. Yet the Covid lockdown removed our real client portfolio (23 schemes/partnerships) of placements. We discuss how we addressed post-pandemic reduced student engagement and attendance, and other challenges.

We aim to identify the challenges and potential opportunities related to a post-lockdown sector that is finding its feet again after the disruption of the Covid-19 pandemic.

Revitalising the Institutional Approach

Prior to the pandemic, programmes at Cardiff University were generally delivered in a traditional way, with most of our teaching being in-person and the majority of our assessment undertaken through standard formats, such as essays and examinations. The suspension of in-person activities and the pivot to online delivery necessarily increased staff workloads as we grappled with the demands of new pedagogical approaches and technologies. To manage the workload in such a way that we gave our students the best experience possible, whilst protecting the wellbeing of staff, the University made a strategic decision, in Summer 2020, to prioritise learning and teaching in this new environment. Staff were asked to ensure that sufficient time was available for teaching, with a consequent reduction in priority for research that was not supported by a grant or contract. Whilst an understandable concern for many colleagues on a research career pathway, the decision coincided with the fact that the Research Excellence Framework (REF) cycle was ending (in March 2021), so many of the returns were complete and any work immediately REF-related was also prioritised.

To ensure that staff understood what the prioritisation of learning and teaching meant in practice, and to try to ensure that the student experience was comparable across the University, the institutional 'Education and Students Sub-strategy' was revised (Cardiff University 2022a). Key changes included giving greater priority to high-quality blended approaches to learning and teaching, and creation of a 'successful student futures' area of focus to align the institutional commitment to ensuring that our curriculum provides learning experiences that equip students for whatever path they follow once they graduate, with the support provided by the University's Student Futures team.[1]

A key enabler for the successful student futures workstream was the institutional principles on programme structure, design and delivery.[2] These principles set out the approach that academic schools should take when designing a new academic programme and require that programmes focus on supporting students to acquire the Cardiff University graduate attributes to help them prepare for their future careers. The attributes had been devised with input from employers, to enable students to become socially, economically, and environmentally aware global citizens, with specific focus on ensuring that our graduates are:

- collaborative
- effective communicators
- ethically, socially, and environmentally aware
- independent and critical thinkers
- innovative, enterprising, and commercially aware
- reflective and resilient.

Both undergraduate and postgraduate students should be enabled to develop the attributes, although support for postgraduate students is designed to enable them to develop their skills to a higher level, particularly to provide them with opportunities to prepare for leadership roles.

Although the principles and attributes had been devised prior to the pandemic, the prioritisation of learning and teaching meant that the institutional scrutiny of programme design and delivery was heightened, with the expectation that the graduate attributes should be present as a 'golden thread' running through every student's programme and their wider University experience. To ensure that all programmes, rather than just new provision, complied with the design principles, a revalidation process was introduced. The process requires

1 Student Futures is part of the Student Life professional services division, and provides careers and employability advice and guidance, and support for international mobility opportunities. The nomenclature for the 'successful student futures' workstream was deliberately chosen to coincide with the re-branding of our careers and employability support as Student Futures.

2 Subsequently revised and re-issued as 'Institutional expectations for the structure, design, and delivery of programmes'. (Cardiff University 2022b).

schools to review the content of their programmes and reflect on whether they are strategically and academically fit for purpose. Whilst this is inevitably a 'slow burn' process, as it is likely to take approximately five years for all schools to go through the initial revalidation cycle, it is a very effective way of re-focusing schools where there has historically been little employability provision.

Key benefits of the requirement to embed the attributes have been an increase in collaborative work between academics and members of the Student Futures team and a recognition that employability support is not something that should be delivered in a silo, separate from the curriculum. This has led to a shift from responsive and transactional activity, driven by requests from schools for bespoke, standalone interventions, to a strategic approach, focused on embedding employability provision in the curriculum. The new approach is supported by a Student Futures framework, which prioritises developing accessible, impactful, and sustainable opportunities, designed to ensure that all students are enabled to develop the skills and attributes they require on graduation and throughout their early careers. Table 1 summarises the general approach that the Student Futures team takes under the Framework.

Generally, the impact of the prioritisation of learning and teaching will be measured through performance in the relevant student experience metrics of the main higher education league tables. However, the University already had its own employability key performance indicator (KPI) linked to placement learning, with a commitment that at least 50% of its undergraduate students would undertake a work placement during the course of their studies. Performance in the KPI was significantly impacted by the pandemic, as many employers retrenched and withdrew opportunities. However, it is clear that placement learning has a positive impact on future employability (Shury et al. 2007, Table 2).

Audit	Good practice	Guidance and support
Mapping against graduate attributes and employability milestones identified by the school for each year of the curriculum. Year 1 - to include a curricular element of careers education. Year 2 - to include options to undertake a placement in the curriculum (including an enterprise/start-up option) and have curricular opportunities to undertake international mobility. (Ideally schools should have shorter/taster options available in Y2, with the opportunity to move to a four-year variant with a Y2S/ full-year activity.) Year 3 - to include an assessment task which enables students to analyse and articulate their skills and graduate attributes. OUTCOME -Student Futures provides a mapping template for schools to complete that identifies how current provision meets the graduate attributes and employability milestones, and where gaps exist. Schools may also complete a survey encouraging staff to provide existing examples of good practice related to employability and enterprise in the curriculum.	**Student Futures will provide examples of what good practice looks like for each of the graduate attributes and the employability milestones proposed.** This will include case studies of initiatives at Cardiff University and in the sector more widely, such as AdvanceHE Knowledge Hub. OUTCOME - Schools submit proposals about new areas of good practice around employability and enterprise which they would like to develop.	**Menu of the support which Student Futures can offer and contact details for the team so schools can navigate to the right people.** Digital curricular resources will be developed for academic staff, including 'bitesize' employability and enterprise content, which can be delivered independently or in conjunction with Student Futures staff as required. OUTCOME - Early meetings with Student Futures as part of the programme development or revalidation process, to discuss the areas schools wish to develop and inform proposals, including resourcing.

Table 1. Guidance and practice for employability audit.

The revised Education and Students Sub-strategy reiterated the University's commitment to supporting students to access a wide range of domestic and international placement opportunities in all sectors, and acknowledged that those opportunities are valuable in traditional, virtual, and blended formats, which reflect the changes to the world of work occasioned by the pandemic. Therefore, a focus on placement learning as a KPI remains appropriate as a proxy for ensuring that the graduate attributes, employability, and wider transferable skills remain a 'front and centre' requirement for all programmes to enable our students to succeed in their future careers.

Empowering Staff to Rethink Folk Pedagogies

Ongoing CPD for staff regarding L&T is a challenging issue; with competing elements of time pressures, requirement for research outputs, or administrative/managerial tasks, the importance of teaching development is frequently minimised (British Academy 2022). One of the most challenging concepts to address in staff L&T is Jerome Bruner's (1996) concept of 'Folk Pedagogies': educators' reflexive behaviour to base their teaching activities on the way they themselves were taught. The adoption of folk pedagogies typically leads to a heavy reliance on didactic teaching methods and summative assessment. The adoption of new media for L&T was typically limited primarily to the more engaged and innovative staff. The pandemic forced this rapid adoption of different teaching approaches and some of those approaches have persisted. However, there is a continual need to ensure that educators are reflective over their teaching activities, to ensure that they are addressing the needs of the students.

Table 2. Impact of placement activity on employability (Shury et al. 2007).

Placement Activity	Professional/Managerial Employment	
	6 months	30 months
An industrial or sandwich year placement	64%	73%
Shorter structured work placement as part of course	62%	73%
Shorter structured non-compulsory work placement	49%	68%
No work placement	37%	58%

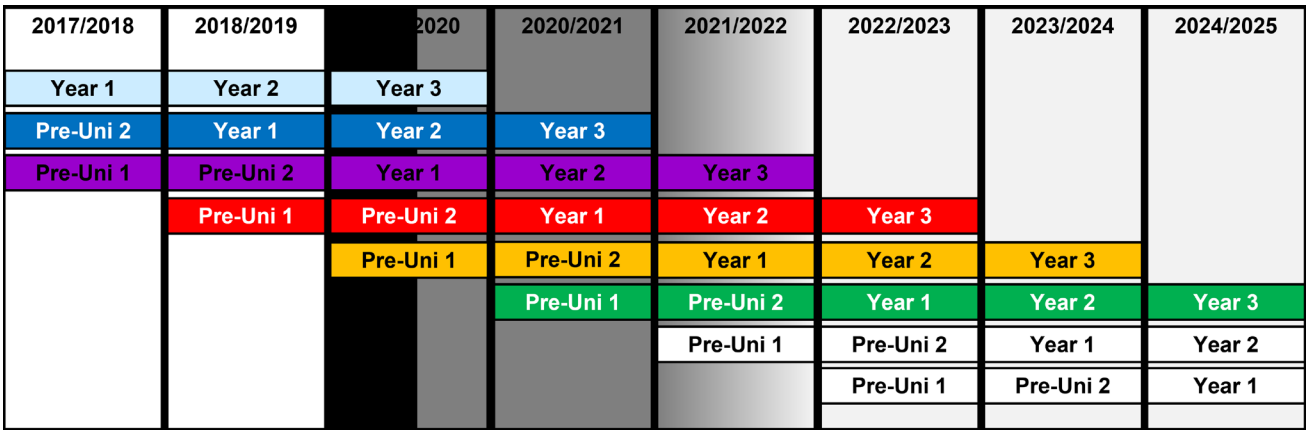

Figure 1. Student cohorts relative to the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic. Year cohorts of students showing Years 1-3 of Undergraduate BSc, and two years of pre-University study (small rectangles). Different year groups are coloured to aid identification. Vertical rectangles represent academic years, with shading showing the existence of Covid-19-related lockdowns and/or social distancing measures, which began suddenly in early 2020, and then gradually reduced during 2021 and 2022.

Student needs have changed quite considerably over recent years. A key starting point for staff development around L&T post-pandemic is to understand the experiences of the pandemic for students and its impacts on them. The student experience was impacted substantially (some might argue catastrophically) by the pandemic lockdowns and social distancing requirements. Impacts on the student experience included both the academic (content knowledge, engagement, and academic skills) and the pastoral (mental wellbeing, opportunities for social interactions and peer-support, developing learning networks). However, there are nuances to the student experience that often get overlooked. Students of different academic years are often considered as a homogenous group, but their experiences were quite different, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1 represents a time-course of academic years (vertical boxes), with the impact of the lockdowns/social distancing highlighted (grey shading). Overlayed on this are the university cohorts, showing their years of study (assuming a 3-year degree), and two years of pre-university study. The 2017/18 Year 1 intake (row 1, pale blue boxes) experienced a sudden shift online just before their final examinations, and therefore a change in the examination format for which they had not prepared (open book, online/distance, in most cases). The 2018/19 intake (dark blue boxes) faced a sudden disruption to Year 2, followed by uncertainty and extended social distancing in Year 3. The 2019/20 intake (purple boxes) have undertaken most of their degree in a lockdown form, except for the initial transition period. Arguably, the most impact has been felt by the 2020/21 intake (red boxes), who completed their high school experience after the sudden move to distance/isolated/home-schooled learning, and then began their university experience during continued lockdowns, which impacted the crucial initial semester of Year 1 (fundamental for the transition to university: Rutherford 2019). The 2021/22 intake (orange boxes) undertook the majority of their pre-university stage under lockdown; in the UK there was widespread grade inflation due to grades being allocated by teachers, rather than through examinations. This meant unusual distributions of students in courses, with some courses in top-tier universities being massively over-subscribed. The 2022/23 intake (green boxes) have not experienced university during lockdown, but the entirety of their two pre-university years was affected by lockdowns, as well as their age-16 examinations. These students typically have less experience of formal final examinations than any other cohort. Each of these cohorts is unique and would require different teaching and assessment methods, according to their experiences. However, in the majority of cases, universities did not adapt their courses to the varied needs of these students; they merely returned to a semblance of the pre-pandemic modes of L&T.

Key adaptations that were seen among staff during and after the pandemic were successful in some cases, and less so in others. Across the sector there has been varied retention (or active abandonment) of these adaptations; sometimes for sound pedagogical reasons, sometimes for logistical reasons, inertia, or the desire to return to a pre-panicgogy idealised 'normality'. The key to retaining the effective pedagogies, and refining or removing the detrimental ones, has its fundamental base in staff reflexivity and an open mindset that welcomes change (Bruner 1996). A series of initiatives were prompted, or at least accelerated, by the pandemic that aimed to enhance staff engagement with, and understanding of the potential of, teaching innovations.

The Digital Education Project. During the summer of 2020, at the initial height of the lockdown, the University brought in a series of working groups to facilitate the upskilling of both staff and students for a digital-based course delivery in the 2020/21 semester ahead. This project encompassed support for students, staff, and university policies and procedures, as well as introducing Five Key principles for Blended Learning (Cardiff University 2020)

- Keep it simple.
- Concentrate on what works in a blended context.
- Provide clarity and structure.
- Focus on quality.
- Accessibility.

The project produced suggestions for numerous online/distance/blended pedagogies, use of digital media, open-book and remote assessment design, as well as strategy development and peer-support. As a result, the blended learning landscape of the University has changed radically from the pre-pandemic situation, with substantive investment in digital education support and platforms.

Learning Communities. As mentioned above, the establishment of mutually supportive online communities of practice has had a substantive impact on some areas of educational activity. Another approach that was undertaken at Cardiff University was the establishment of a strategic project in partnership between the Students' Union and the university's Learning and Teaching Academy. This project aimed to understand student and staff perceptions of learning communities and their potential impact on the learning environment. The aim of this project was to develop a university environment where all students and staff saw themselves as part of a single learning community, to encourage student-staff partnership. This partnership approach, and an environment where students feel part of a learning community rather than consumers of a product, aimed to support enhanced teaching practices. Table 3 illustrates some of the proposals for Schools that emerged from the project.

Guidance and Professional Recognition. In order to support formal L&T CPD and to support colleagues in applying for accreditation of their teaching via AdvanceHE, the UK's

Observation/Theme	Approach
Development of a joint 'Community of Practice' in learning, inclusive of students and staff, within each School. Breaking down the 'Us and Them' feel.	Encouraging the perception (and reality) of students and staff being part of the same 'community of learners' within a School and address the 'them and us' mentality. Use of inclusive terminology in emails (e.g. do not use 'Dear Students' as an address).
Interactions and activity with the SU: - at the student level - at the School level - at the College level	More interaction with the SU for encouraging students to see links with the SU. More links between academics and Schools with the SU. Make students aware of their College.
Student peer mentorship.	Establishing systems for students mentoring or partnering with each other across years.
Importance of staff who demonstrably care about the students' education and welfare	Celebrating and raising the profile of excellent teachers.
Increased active student partnership in the development and design of courses, curricula, assessments etc.	Adoption of a programme of active student partnership at the School, College and University level, to engage students as active partners in change projects and development. Sharing and celebration of the outputs of student partnership projects with students. Enhanced opportunities for student internships. Visible partnership activities between the CSU and CU.
Dedicated focus to responding to student voice and student feedback.	Active and rapid responses to student voice comments. Early opportunities for students to offer feedback on courses and modules.
The importance of personal interaction between students and teaching staff.	Post-pandemic increased use of Blended Learning, mixing face-to-face teaching and digital approaches to enhance the interactions between students and staff. Thinking about ways in which we communicate with students. Meet-and-greet activities for each module, to enhance staff-student interactions. Opportunities for students to contact staff and/or ask questions.
Enhanced social interactions between students and/or students & staff at the School level.	Embed activities within curricula that encourage student social interaction (e.g. groupwork activities, collaborative projects). Increased interaction between Discipline-based student Societies and Schools. Create personal feel/belonging within large cohort sizes. Sharing student work within the School/College. Encourage students to feel part of their School spaces. Encourage Schools to set up physical or online communities for students associated with the module/course.

Table 3. Learning Community Activities suggested from the 'Learning Communities' Project. Summary of suggestions made to academic Schools for enhancing student-staff 'learning community' perceptions (SU = Students' Union).

professional body for HE educators, we developed a suite of 'Education Fellowship' programmes. AdvanceHE offers four levels of fellowship: Associate (AFHEA, aimed at those supporting educational activities designed by others), Fellow (FHEA, aimed at those who design and deliver educational activities), Senior Fellow (SFHEA, aimed at those who support the educational delivery activities of others), and Principal (PFHEA, aimed at those who impact L&T policy at the institutional level, or higher). We designed programmes to support AFHEA, FHEA and SFHEA accreditation. The design of these programmes was a collaborative activity (Roberts & Rutherford 2022) involving various stakeholders (students, junior and senior academic staff, directors of L&T, National Teaching Fellows, Directors of Research, Learning Technologists, Information specialists, learning specialists, technical staff, and Heads of Schools). The collaborative activity identified a series of key principles which should underpin the proposed programmes. The schemes were accredited in early 2021 and the first pilot cohorts began in the summer of 2021, at the tail-end of the lockdowns. To date there have been over 700 colleagues through these programmes, with 254 successfully gaining accredited status, as of June 2023 (see Table 4 below).

This investment in staff CPD, related to L&T, is a fundamental cornerstone of the institution but was accelerated dramatically, and its importance emphasised, by the challenges and revelations induced by the pandemic. As a result, the profile of L&T within the University has been raised and pockets of innovation, always present prior to the pandemic, were broadened and given greater impact. The importance of staff training and support in L&T matters was emphasised and while one cannot claim that we have reached a state of perfection, there is certainly a more upwards trajectory in evidence.

The Cardiff Law School Model of Clinical Legal Education and Real Client Work

The Law School's portfolio is an obvious choice for this revitalisation case study because of the additional driver of law being a vocational subject and the particular student needs that brings. 79.1% of Law Degree programme entrants aspire to become practising lawyers (Hardee 2012), although the number eventually qualifying into legal practice is inevitably lower. Graduate outcomes data tend to be imperfect and do not give a percentage of students graduating into legal work, so our estimate of c.53% is composed using law-related job titles within the data.

The number of law students in England and Wales in 2020/21 was 138,080 (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2022). Entry into the legal profession is competitive; US law firms in London can offer trainee solicitors £75,000+ salaries plus benefits, while the top tier offer £165,000-plus p.a. to newly-qualified solicitors(Chambers 2022). It is little wonder, then, that it is an attractive profession to students, and law schools arguably have to service early student aspirations.

As outlined earlier, the university has revised its Education and Students Sub-Strategy to enhance its commitment to student employability. But in law we have had to observe that ethos for decades anyway, albeit largely through extra-curricular activities, recognising that students need to show prospective employers relevant activities 'over and above' their degree studies, including through giving something back to society/communities. Law clinics (modelled on medical training problem/enquiry-based learning: law students see clients to establish the problem and its potential solution) are essential to the survival of law faculties; the latest survey conducted by LawWorks and the Clinical Legal Education Organisation shows that 77 of 78 responding UK law schools had clinical provision (Sandbach & Grimes 2020).

The Cardiff model of clinic is unique—by design—reflecting its position in the capital city of Wales, with devolved laws as well as those emanating from Westminster. But alongside strategic planning, organic reactive evolution has played its part. From a starting point of zero in 2005, we introduced our first clinic—the Cardiff Innocence Project. Cardiff Law School peaked at 23 separate projects and won an award for best pro bono clinic (Cardiff University 2019), but the pandemic years effectively reduced our programme to two major schemes: Innocence, and our new Climate Change initiative, with only remnants of the rest surviving.

Table 4. Numbers of cohorts, participants, and awards from the Cardiff University Education Fellowships Framework since 2021.

Fellowship Level	Number of cohorts to date	Participants enrolled since inception	Participants awarded fellowship to date
Associate Fellow	12	286	119
Fellow	14	310	115
Senior Fellow	4	113	20
Total		**709**	**254**

As the pandemic proceeded, some of our partner charities retained a skeleton service, largely online. Not treated as key workers, students were not allowed in-office experience. As shares in Zoom soared and online became the new norm, public demand for our services reduced by 80%. One scheme, a partnership between Wales Arts International, the law school, and international law firm Latham & Watkins, was a direct victim. The plan for students to assist with legal advice for artists wanting to come to the UK post-Brexit was seen off by Covid preventing any artist mobility!

Online became our only clinical activities option. We developed our secure case management system, so students could work on Innocence files remotely. We launched our Grand Challenge: Climate Change, which could take large numbers remotely. It was attractive to students as it coincided with the COP27 conference being held in Glasgow. Our climate change expert colleague (Dr Jen Allen) facilitated outputs, with students writing for the Wales Climate Week Bulletin on the government website (Welsh Government 2022).

So, over the two Covid/hybrid years, we managed to give all students the chance of something extra on their CVs. Simultaneously, coming out of those two particularly difficult years, we started to rebuild some of our smaller schemes. For example, our new Enterprise Clinic gave legal advice to students/recent alumni of Cardiff University on business start-ups, the number of which had seemingly increased during lockdown. We also gave greater prominence to marketing our legal skills programmes, which are linked to long-established international competitions (Centre for Effective Dispute Resolution 2023; International Bar Association 2023).

What Next?

Our current position is one of consolidation: further enhancing our legal skills programmes and our public legal education focus, and strategically expanding our policy clinic activities. We will never again hit our peak of 23 separate activities in the pro bono portfolio, partly because of the lasting impact of the Covid-19 period. But it is more complex than that. Legal education and training has just been massively overhauled: the Solicitors Qualifying Examination and Qualifying Work Experience now includes the right for students to claim law clinic work towards the two-year on-the-job experience which allows them to qualify as solicitors (Solicitors Regulation Authority 2022).

Ours is not so much a perfect storm, but rather a perfect watershed. We are still being shortlisted for national awards (Cardiff University 2023) but we face many considerable challenges, including the new Covid generation of non-engaged, non-attending students, which may become the new norm. For example:

- The pandemic forced law firms and other organisations to change their business model. Home/hybrid working has remained, with fewer in-office staff to support our students, resulting in fewer physical placements. Law work placements are still commonly a virtual experience, and this is likely to remain as it is more efficient and cost-effective.

- Large numbers: our student numbers rose hugely during Covid, largely because of teacher-assessed grading of entry qualifications leading to grade inflation and lower retention rates.

- Funding: some of our resourcing comes indirectly from the Welsh Government. Funding for advice work is competitive; we do not want to disadvantage struggling third sector organisations by competing for a shrinking central money pot: they cannot access HE funding as we can (in theory).

- Practitioner support: one foundation of our clinical work has been the willingness of practising lawyers, often our alumni, to support us. But there remains a tension between timesheet-driven paid work and targets, and pro bono missions of law firms. Timely pro bono work delivered to the same standard sometimes is given lesser priority.

- Workload allocation models for clinical work that falls outside the curriculum remain a challenge. To be sustainable and scalable, our clinical work ideally needs to be linked to colleagues' research/scholarship interests. But a fair workload allocation allowance still evades us and will remain thus unless/until non-assessed clinical work is held institutionally in the same regard as excellent assessed teaching and research.

We have a multitude of questions that we regularly debate, and after a two-year dearth of opportunities, we have to refocus. Should we rebuild on breadth or depth of opportunity? How can we provide meaningful experiences to such large numbers, e.g. 700-plus in some year groups? Should we proactively move towards a balance of law and policy clinics? The latter is easier to manage, being self-contained projects rather than ongoing real client casework. Transferable skills linked to international competitions are easier to deliver without the added pressure of real clients, but how do we make those programmes have equal attraction to students?

How should we deal with the mismatch between what students want and what they are capable of? We cannot expect them to deliver work of the quality of qualified lawyers, but they may think they can. Students training for the Bar want advocacy to enhance their CVs but few meaningful

opportunities exist, so we have to be inventive with our definition of advocacy. Should we build skills incrementally (embedding activities in the first year, then shadowing in second, and seeing clients in third year)? To keep all cohorts of students happy in a huge law school that currently offers none of these opportunities to our first years is a challenge.

There is a disparity of student offerings within our mixed discipline School: our Politics and International Relations students have virtually no such opportunities. Is that fair?

Should we revisit operating a walk-in clinic open to the public? Ongoing cases outside university semesters are problematic. Typical public-facing law clinics give welfare benefits and housing advice. Those are often time-sensitive, so not ideal for a short academic year. Could/should we repackage our skills programmes as simulation clinics? Those are artificial, obviously, but can be loaded for optimum learning experience.

How do we deal with the need for a balance of social justice and commercial schemes? How do we persuade a research-intensive university to fairly allocate workload hours to clinical activity, which is not direct research activity?

How do we make our Innocence Project less attractive to our students? They have to select our optional second year 'Miscarriages of Justice' module to be entitled to apply for casework. Numbers in that module are capped at 250, but it is regularly over-subscribed because of the attraction of the project, perhaps fuelled by mania for *Making a Murderer* and the *CSI*-effect.

Conclusion and Reflections

These elements of this case study highlight some key factors for consideration.

The prioritisation of L&T over research activity was always intended to be a short-term, emergency response to the pandemic, which has now been re-balanced by the reinstatement of research activity into workload allocation. However, as we have noted, the impact of the pandemic on the student cohort extends beyond L&T activities delivered under lockdown restrictions. Therefore, emergence from the pandemic should not be seen as 'job done', and institutional leaders need to ensure that approaches to L&T continue to evolve to meet the changing needs of current and future cohorts.

Institutional challenges are several, but a key factor for success is the embedding of training and support for students in priorities for the modern workplace and society.

A similar situation is required regarding **staff CPD and upskilling**. There is the need to provide 'relentless support', including financial investment, in order to achieve sustainable changes in practice. Also, a culture of recognising effective teaching methodologies and being open to the idea of change are fundamental.

From the **student perspective**, as regards the law clinic, the main challenge has remained constant: resourcing. We are one of the largest UK law schools, yet historically have experienced Cinderella funding supplemented by an Oliver Twist begging bowl!

However, a new challenge on the block has emerged: the substantial non-engagement of the Pandemic Student Generation. If this is the new norm then how do we deal with it—carrot or stick? We cannot ignore current cost of living pressures. Ours are full-time courses, but the reality is increasingly that students have to work to live: if we record all lectures what incentive is there for them to attend live?

There is a similar scale of challenge of having to become a campaign/policy unit too, particularly as regards our innocence and environment projects. This opens up a whole new ballgame , but perhaps it may drive a move towards clinical collaboration with our School colleagues in Politics and International Relations.

All of these challenges together highlight the extent to which the lessons of the pandemic were both valuable and paradigm-shifting. However, the major challenge is keeping what was effective practice, removing what was less effective/ineffective practice, and having the means to be able to identify the former from the latter.

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MOTIVATING STUDENTS AND STAFF

Motivations for Learning Welsh among Adult Learners

The rise of online learning in recent years has led to an increase in the number of people learning Welsh as adults, particularly outside Wales, and more diversity in the way in which the language is learned. Drawing on a quantitative questionnaire completed by 746 Welsh learners, 47.5% of whom lived outside Wales, this chapter examines the motivations of Welsh learners and the extent to which such motivations are influenced by social factors.

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Introduction and Research Context

This chapter reports the results of a project designed to investigate the motivations for learning Welsh among adults. The rise of online learning in recent years has led to an increase in the number of people learning Welsh as adults, particularly outside Wales, and more diversity in the way in which the language is learned. While previous work has examined the reasons why learners engage with the language, they have (1) largely relied on learners on national 'Learn Welsh' (formerly 'Welsh for Adults') courses in Wales and (2) not considered potential correlations between socio-psychological factors and learners' motivations for learning Welsh.

Drawing on a quantitative online questionnaire completed by 746 Welsh learners, 47.5% of whom lived outside Wales, this chapter examines the motivations of Welsh learners, the extent to which such motivations are influenced by social factors, and the extent to which these reasons can be grouped in order to look at wider trends. Specifically, we ask the following research questions:

1. What motivates adults to learn Welsh and continue to attend courses?

2. To what extent do social factors, specifically where they live, or their age, influence learners' motivations?

3. To what extent do individual reasons correspond to the dichotomy of integrative and instrumental motivations for language learning?

In answering these questions, we aim to contribute to work in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) which examines learner motivations in minority-language contexts and also show that learners' backgrounds influence their motivations. We argue that increased understanding of learners' own motivations for language learning among practitioners could lead to increased and sustained engagement and, ultimately, acquisition. We also reflect on the co-creation of the research design with undergraduate students at Cardiff University and highlight the benefits of this for both student and staff researchers.

Motivation in SLA

There is a substantial body of work in the field of SLA on universal influences which affect the pursuit of learning a second (or any other additional) language (Ortega 2009: 9). Such universal influences include the age of acquisition (e.g. Lenneberg 1967), with second language learning tending to become less likely among older children and adults, and the extent to which speakers are exposed to the new language in the wider environment (see Ortega 2009: Chapter 4 for a more thorough overview). More recently, the research focus has shifted from universal influences in order to uncover the cognitive and socio-psychological factors which cause individual differences in both learners' rate of acquisition and ultimate attainment.

Among the individual differences that have been shown to influence second language learning, motivation has been shown to be an important indicator (e.g. Masgoret & Gardner 2003). Dörnyei (2014: 519) notes that 'motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it'. While external forces such as teacher engagement (see Guilloteaux & Dörnyei 2009), learner attitudes, and the status of the language in the wider community can influence dynamic learner motivation (e.g. Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry 2015 and chapters therein), more long-term, stable attitudes also warrant attention.

The reasons for learning a new language have traditionally been seen as either instrumental or integrative (after Gardner 1985). Instrumental motivations are largely externally focused rewards which might come from acquiring the new language (e.g. exam grades or better job prospects). Integrative motivations, on the other hand, refer to reasons for language learning which are based on the language and its speakers: for instance, the desire to live in the country where the language is spoken or communicate with those who speak the language. It is thought that integrative motivations are generally more important to language learners than instrumental motivations, although the relative importance varies between individuals and can be influenced by the sociolinguistic context within which learners are situated (Cook 2016: 154-155). More recently, the dichotomy of instrumental and integrative motivations for language learning has been thoroughly questioned, which has led to the recognition that motivation is not only a dynamic phenomenon which can change over time (see above). This suggests that learners' reasons for learning go beyond instrumental and integrative binaries and are inherently linked to how they conceptualise their future identity, either how they would want to be in the future or how they feel they ought to be (Dörnyei 2005, 2009).

In the context of widely spoken global languages, the idea that motivational factors are less likely to be purely integrative has emerged. This suggests that learners are less likely to view the language as a tool for integration with native speakers even if they do have an interest in the wider culture of countries where that language is spoken (Oakes 2013: 179). Indeed, it appears that English is a special case here, as Lamb (2004: 3) notes: 'as English loses its association with particular Anglophone cultures and is instead identified with the powerful forces of globalization, the desire to "integrate" [among learners] loses its explanatory power'. The dominance of English as a global language also has ramifications for language learning among native speakers of English, as 'the "monoglot culture" or "English is enough" mentality may now have usurped much of the instrumental value of other foreign languages' (Oakes 2013: 179).

The instrumental and integrative dichotomy is further complicated when applied to the context of minority

language learning. On the one hand, it could be argued that integrative reasons for learning are weakened by the fact that speakers in such contexts are often bilingual and speak the majority language of the wider nation state. On the other hand, such contexts are often marked by disruption to family language transmission which may provide a powerful reason for learners to seek to regain their 'ancestral' language. Similarly, autochthonous minority languages, certainly in a western European context, are often the subject of language revitalisation measures which might mean that competency is required or encouraged for work opportunities, particularly in the public sector. The following section examines the Welsh context in further detail and discusses previous work on learners' reasons for engaging with the language.

Motivations among learners of Welsh

Previous accounts of the motivations of adult learners of Welsh have focused on those who were living in Wales at the time of acquisition and attending a 'Learn Welsh' (previously Welsh for Adults) course. The groups under discussion in these studies, whilst not necessarily living in Wales, had attended regular and/or intensive face-to-face Welsh lessons in the community. Trosset (1986) conducted ethnographic fieldwork with Welsh learners at various sites across Wales and concluded that 'successful' learners often had started to learn the language for integrative reasons. She notes that typical motivations included the wish to speak to family and friends in Welsh, the drive to appreciate Welsh-language culture, the desire to regain an ancestral language, and the belief that one should be able to speak Welsh in Wales (Trosset 1986: 182).

In addition to the integrative themes outlined above, Newcombe's (2007) work also highlights the emerging theme of instrumental motivation and the workplace. Courses which provide Welsh instruction for work purposes have developed since the 1990s and continue to be a priority in the sector today (National Centre for Learning Welsh 2023). Newcombe (2007: 103) found that learners often had both integrative and instrumental reasons for learning the language, even if they had done so primarily for work purposes. In many cases, such learners had previous experience with the language through schooling and wished to reconnect with the language in adulthood. Newcombe also notes, however, that instrumental learners 'often do not want a window into another culture and are usually not as successful as learners who are eager to imbibe Welsh culture and socialise with Welsh speakers' (Newcombe 2007: 104).

In a quantitative survey of those on Learn Welsh courses in north Wales, Baker et al. (2011) examined motivations for learning Welsh and included both integrative and instrumental reasons. They found that learning Welsh in order to help children with their homework was the most important reason among the sample. The second most important reason was that learners had moved to Wales (Baker et al. 2011: 51), which hints at the importance of integrative factors in the choice to learn Welsh. At the other end of the scale, less than 50% of the sample felt that it was important to learn Welsh for employment prospects and less than 30% indicated that it was important to gain a qualification or engage with Welsh-language media. None of the motivational factors explored in their study correlated with age, gender, language background, or educational background.

The results of previous work, along with societal changes in recent years, raise further questions concerning the motivations of adult Welsh learners which we aim to address in the current chapter. Firstly, it remains to be seen whether the inclusion of a wider sample of Welsh learners will yield interesting relationships between motivational factors and social factors. Secondly, previous work has focused on learners within Wales on Learn Welsh courses. The more recent development of online courses such as Say Something in Welsh and Duolingo, as well as a shift to online or blended learning in the Learn Welsh sector, have resulted in a wider spectrum of Welsh learners both within and outside Wales (e.g. Griffith 2020). The following section highlights how we attempted to achieve these aims, followed by the results of the statistical analysis of learners' motivations.

Methodology

Student and staff collaboration

Staff from the Cardiff Q-Step Centre (School of Social Sciences) and the Language, Policy and Planning Research Unit (School of Welsh) worked with undergraduate and postgraduate students from the School of Welsh and the School of Psychology in this collaborative and interdisciplinary research project. Two undergraduate students (Authors 3 and 4) and one postgraduate student (Author 5) collaborated with academic staff to design an online survey and analyse the data. The students' involvement in the research was deeper and more meaningful than simply consultation (Advance HE 2016; Healey and Healey 2019). Instead, the students partnered with the academic staff and became co-researchers or co-investigators, with both parties having active voices in the research project and benefitting from each other's involvement. The opportunity to work as co-researchers on this project enabled the students to learn about the realities of researching in a meaningful and authentic context. For instance, the students gained valuable insights into the research process and some of the practical, subjective decisions which researchers need to make. For instance, when to stop data collection and how to code and group respondents. It also provided the students with the opportunity to work as part of an interdisciplinary team across departments, year groups, and levels of study or experience. This was particularly important following Covid-19 restrictions which had limited opportunities for collaborative partnerships, leaving many students unfamiliar with the experience of working as part of a team. The researchers hope that the

experience of partnering with academic staff empowered the students involved, made them feel more confident and comfortable speaking to academic staff and providing feedback, and enhanced their sense of belonging in the institution.

For the academics involved in the research, the students brought with them their own insights and experiences of learning second languages. This helped provide additional content and ideas to the survey, underscoring the potential of student-staff collaborations in generating opportunities for reflection and the development of new knowledge, particularly in instances where the partners are able to provide valuable insights as 'insiders' (Abegglen, Burns & Sinfield 2021). In addition, the opportunity to respond to students' queries relating to the research project in a 'live' setting provided unique insights into some of the potential difficulties which students may encounter translating taught skills to novel research problems. This has subsequently informed the design and delivery of research methods modules co-ordinated by the academic staff involved in this project.

Survey design and distribution

An online survey was designed using Qualtrics Online Survey Software. The survey consisted of 27 questions and took approximately nine minutes to complete. The survey was divided into five main sections. These were: 'Demographic Information', 'Motivation for Learning Welsh', 'Anxiety Learning Welsh', 'Personality', and 'Opinions of Welsh Speakers'. This chapter explores the demographic data as well as the data relating to motivations for learning Welsh.

The absence of a complete sampling frame of Welsh learners meant that volunteer sampling was the best approach to elicit the views of a range of learners. The survey was distributed via social media and relevant mailing lists during summer 2022. When interpreting the findings, caution is needed as it is possible that those who have strong feelings or attitudes toward learning Welsh (either positive or negative) may have been more likely to respond. Similarly, the online mode of distribution and the promotion of this survey may have further biased the sample. It cannot be assumed that the whole population had access to the internet, or that their internet usage style and frequency would have enabled them to see the survey link (Couper 2000; Callegaro, Lozar Manfreda & Vehovar 2015: 131-133; Dodge & Chapman 2018; Lehdonvirta et al. 2021). The anonymous nature of the survey also entailed a risk that participants could complete the survey multiple times.

Permission to conduct the research was granted by the School of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee at Cardiff University following an independent review (Reference: SREC/4293).

Sample

The survey was distributed in English and Welsh, with 653 participants responding in English and 93 participants responding in Welsh. A non-probability sample of 746 Welsh learners responded to the survey.

Of the 746 participants, over a quarter were aged 60-69 and a further 24% were aged 50-59. Less than 20% of the sample fell into any one of the remaining age brackets, with less than 10% being aged 18-29, 13.8% aged 30-39, 18.4% aged 40-49, 8.6% aged 70-79, and less than 1% aged 80 or over. In relation to gender distribution, almost three quarters of the sample identified as female, 24.5% identified as male, and less than 2% of the sample identified as 'other' or answered 'prefer not to say'. The split between participants living in Wales and those living outside Wales was almost 50/50, with 52.5% of respondents currently living in Wales compared to 47.5% who lived outside Wales. Of those living in Wales, 14.8% resided in Cardiff (the capital city of Wales). Almost 13% of the participants who lived in Wales were resident in Carmarthenshire. Less than 10% of the sample living in Wales resided in each of the remaining twenty counties.

The majority of learners in the sample (63.7%) started learning Welsh as adults. Some had started learning the language at school (3.1% in a Welsh-medium or bilingual school and 17.6% in an English medium school in Wales) and 15.3% had started learning Welsh in the home. Almost everyone in the sample (93.3%) reported learning Welsh online, while a small group learnt the language in a face-to-face setting (3.6%), and a further 3.1% learnt Welsh through both face-to-face and online modes. Indeed, over 40% of the sample reported that they were using the Duolingo mobile app as their main way to learn Welsh. Duolingo reported that Welsh was the most popular language among UK learners in 2020 and the second most popular language among UK learners in 2021 (Blanco 2021). Almost 40% of the sample reported learning the language through Learn Welsh courses which are coordinated by the National Centre for Learning Welsh. Other ways of learning the Welsh language reported by the sample included: Say Something in Welsh (11.7%), informal learning (8.5%), Welsh Sabbatical Scheme (1.7%), and other courses (1.2%).

Of those undertaking Learn Welsh courses, almost a quarter were studying 'Entry' level courses, a further 23.2% were studying at 'Foundation' level, almost 30% were studying 'Intermediate' level courses, 16.6% were studying 'Advanced' level courses, and less than 5% reported studying at 'Proficient' level. The remaining respondents reported working at 'other' levels. The majority of the sample described their skill level in speaking, reading, and writing in Welsh as 'Beginner' (61.6%, 51.9%, and 59.9% respectively).

Data analysis

The survey data were downloaded into SPSS and analysed to look for patterns and trends in the data. Specifically, the

team were interested in exploring the relationships between different demographic factors and motivations for learning Welsh. In the results section below, we present the percentage of applicable participants who agreed or strongly agreed with a particular statement. For instance, the percentage of those who agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that they were learning Welsh 'because I am Welsh' includes participants who self-identified as Welsh only.

Results

Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with a series of statements aimed at measuring their motivations for learning Welsh. Table 1 shows that 84.2% of the survey sample agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'I learn Welsh to preserve the Welsh language'. Similarly, over 60% of the sample who were Welsh strongly agreed with the statement 'I learn Welsh because I am Welsh'.

Living in Wales and being able to communicate with Welsh speakers were also statements which many of the participants strongly agreed were motivations for learning the language. Meanwhile, only 15% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'I learn Welsh because I am required to learn Welsh by my employer' and 35.7% agreed or strongly agreed that they learnt Welsh to improve their career prospects.

Familial motivations, including communicating with partners and children/grandchildren, seemed to be less frequent motivating factors for learning Welsh among the sample, with only 14.2% agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statements 'I learn Welsh because Welsh is my partner's first language'. Less than half of the sample agreed or strongly agreed that they were learning Welsh to speak with their children or grandchildren.

Further analysis of the data revealed patterns between some demographic factors and motivations for learning Welsh. Specifically, age differences and differences between participants who live in Wales and outside the country were found.

Age

Perhaps unsurprisingly, younger participants were more likely to agree with the statement 'I learn Welsh to improve my career prospects'. This association was statistically significant, with over half (56.4%) of those aged 18-39 either agreeing or strongly agreeing with this statement, compared to 25.6% of those aged 40-59 and less than 10% of those aged 60 and above. Younger survey respondents were also more likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement 'I learn Welsh because Welsh is my partner's first language'. Over a quarter of participants aged 18-39 agreed or strongly agreed with this statement, compared to 12.1% of those aged 40-59 and 8.7% of those aged 60 and above.

Statement	Percentage agreed or strongly agreed
To communicate with other Welsh speakers	85
To preserve the Welsh language	84.2
Because I am Welsh	64.8
To integrate into the Welsh speaking community	62.6
Because I live in Wales	60.8
To use Welsh media	59.9
To speak to my children/grandchildren in Welsh	48
To improve career prospects	35.7
Because I am required to learn Welsh by my employer	15
Because Welsh is my partner's first language	14.2

Table 1. Percentage of participants who agreed or strongly agreed with statements on the motivations for learning Welsh.

Statement	18-39 (%)	40-59 (%)	60 and above (%)
To preserve the Welsh language	87.2	82.4	84.6
To communicate with other Welsh speakers	83.9	85.0	85.8
Because I live in Wales	74.0	61.6	68.2
Because I am Welsh (Welsh-identifying participants)	73.4	61.3	63.8
To speak to my children/ grandchildren in Welsh	68.2	44.7	40.2
To use Welsh media	60.6	59.5	60.0
To integrate into the Welsh speaking community	60.3	62.7	63.9
To improve career prospects	56.4	35.6	12.7
Because Welsh is my partner's first language	27.5	12.1	8.7
Because I am required to learn Welsh by my employer	17.2	18.2	8.3

Table 2. Percentage of participants who agreed or strongly agreed with statements on the motivations for learning Welsh by age group. Statistically significant associations are in bold.

Similarly, a statistically significant association between age and level of agreement with the statement 'I learn Welsh to speak to my children/grandchildren in Welsh' was observed. Of those aged 18-39, 68.2% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'I learn Welsh to speak to my children/grandchildren in Welsh', in contrast to 44.7% of those aged 40-59 and just over 40% of those aged 60 and above. Table 2 shows the percentage of participants who agreed or strongly agreed with the statements on motivation by age group

Place of residence

Some of the most remarkable differences in motivations for learning Welsh were observed between those currently living in Wales and those living outside Wales. These differences are perhaps unsurprising: for instance, it seems plausible that the benefits of learning Welsh for career enhancement may be apparent for those currently residing in the country. Indeed, nearly 50% of the sample living in Wales agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'I learn Welsh to improve career prospects' compared to only 20.9% of those living outside Wales. This difference was statistically significant. Table 3 shows the percentage of participants who agreed or strongly agreed with statements on the motivations for learning Welsh by place of residence.

There was a statistically significant difference in agreement with the statement 'I learn Welsh because I am required to learn Welsh by my employer'. Almost one quarter of the participants living in Wales agreed or strongly agreed with this statement, in contrast to less than 3% of those living outside Wales. Those living in Wales were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they were learning Welsh to help them communicate with others, especially children and grandchildren (61.0%), compared to those not living in Wales (32.6%). Interestingly, the same differences were not observed for the statements 'I learn Welsh to use Welsh media' or 'I learn Welsh to preserve the Welsh language'.

Factor analysis

A factor analysis was undertaken to see whether the motivations for learning Welsh could be grouped into distinct components. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic was .74 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, indicating that factor analysis was appropriate. The analysis yielded a three-factor solution (see Table 4) accounting for 63.2% of the variance. These factors were named: Connecting with Others, Belonging, and Culture and Heritage.

Statement	Live in Wales (%)	Live outside Wales (%)
To communicate with other Welsh speakers	88.7	80.9
To preserve the Welsh language	86.5	81.8
Because I am Welsh	75.7	51.7
To integrate into the Welsh speaking community	69.6	53.4
To speak to my children/ grandchildren in Welsh	61.0	32.6
To use Welsh media	59.5	60.4
To improve career prospects	49.1	20.9
Because I am required to learn Welsh by my employer	23.9	2.6
Because Welsh is my partner's first language	19.7	7.5

Table 3. Percentage of participants who agreed or strongly agreed with statements on the motivations for learning Welsh by place of residence. Statistically significant associations are in bold.

Statement	Factor 1: Connecting with Others	Factor 2: Belonging	Factor 3: Culture and Heritage
Because I am required to learn Welsh by my employer	0.8		
To speak to my children/grandchildren in Welsh	0.7		
Because Welsh is my partner's first language	0.6		
To improve career prospects	0.6	0.6	
Because I live in Wales	0.6		
To communicate with other Welsh speakers		0.8	
To integrate into the Welsh speaking community		0.8	
To preserve the Welsh language	0.4		0.8
Because I am Welsh			0.6
To use Welsh media			0.6
Eigenvalue	2.6	1.9	1.8
Percent of Total Variance	25.8	19.1	18.3

Table 4. Factor analysis for statements on the motivations of learning Welsh.

Discussion and Conclusions

This chapter aimed to examine the motivations of adult learners of Welsh. Specifically, we asked whether the age of learners is associated with certain reasons for learning Welsh and whether those learning outside Wales had different motivations to those who live in Wales. Furthermore, we hoped to ascertain whether the reasons for learning Welsh can be grouped into broader categories and whether these categories can be described as 'integrative' or 'instrumental' motivations.

The fact that 85% of learners agreed or strongly agreed that they were learning 'to communicate with other Welsh speakers' shows a strong integrative desire among learners of the language (cf. Baker et al. 2011). Even though Welsh speakers are bilingual with English, this finding highlights a perception among learners of a broader Welsh-speaking community with whom they wish to communicate. How does such a perception arise? Many learners in the sample were living in predominantly Welsh-speaking communities where the language would be unavoidable. For others, however, and particularly those living outside Wales, it could be argued that aspects of language policy, such as the visibility of Welsh in Wales and the 'branding' of Wales as a bilingual country internationally, contribute to such perceptions which provide a reason for learning the language.

Of the 746 participants, 84.2% also agreed or strongly agreed that they were learning Welsh in order to preserve the language. It is therefore clear that Welsh is viewed as something which requires preservation or protection. It remains to be seen, however, whether preservation is an impetus for sustained engagement with Welsh learning and whether preservation amongst learners is seen as a way to also *revitalise* the language.

The investigation of the relationship between age and reasons for learning Welsh also yielded significant results. A significantly higher proportion of younger speakers were learning Welsh to speak to their children. This supports previous work that suggests that the birth of a child can act as an impetus for people to re-evaluate their relationship with the Welsh language and attempt to increase their use of Welsh, especially if they are eager to send their children to Welsh-medium education (Evas, Morris & Whitmarsh 2017). Similarly, a greater proportion of the younger cohort agreed or strongly agreed that learning Welsh was important to improve career prospects. The younger cohort are arguably more likely to be embarking on or developing their career trajectory than older generations; the results show that for many learners, Welsh is seen as an important part of career building in Wales. This result also supports the claim that there is an inherent link between life stages and motivations for language learning (cf. Pujolar & Gonzàlez 2013).

The current study is the first to investigate differences between learners who reside in Wales and those who live in other countries. While the relative importance of each statement was largely similar for both groups, a greater proportion of those living in Wales stated that they were learning Welsh to communicate with other Welsh speakers, because they were Welsh, to integrate into the Welsh-speaking community, to speak to children or grandchildren or a partner, to improve career prospects, or because they were required to by an employer. This is unsurprising given previous work on the role that proximity to the target language community plays on acquisition (Ortega 2009: 237), but does show that more research is needed into the motivations of those who are learning Welsh internationally.

Finally, the results of the factor analysis grouped together the statements on the motivations for learning Welsh. Rather than a two-way distinction between integrative and instrumental motivations, the model showed a three-way distinction. The analysis suggests, for this study at least, that we can distinguish between three themes: Connecting with Others, Belonging, and Culture and Heritage. Further examination of the statements which form part of each theme suggests that both integrative and instrumental reasons for language learning are intertwined and that a learner's motivation for language learning is perhaps not so much based on individual isolated factors but rather on a myriad of reasons which represent their identity, their priorities, and who they would like to be (cf. Dörnyei 2005).

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MOTIVATING STUDENTS AND STAFF

Maintaining Innovation Between Projects

A reflection on the journey to the Wales Virtual Hospital

This chapter presents a reflection on the key factors that enabled a small Digital Education Team to maintain innovative practice across several small immersive learning projects, leading to a much larger project with significant impact. These factors revolve around relationship building, team culture, working with students, and dissemination that encourages further engagement. These are presented within the context of the Digital Education Team's approach which focuses on empowering staff to do things for themselves and considers issues such as deployment of innovative practices at scale and across disciplines.

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Maintaining Innovation Between Projects: A reflection on the journey to the Wales Virtual Hospital

Introduction

During the experimental phase, innovations in digital education can take the form of specific, small-scale projects with a fixed timescale and fixed budget. While this may be appropriate as the outcomes are unknown, it creates challenges for the implementation, sustainability, and scalability of successful innovation projects.

This chapter reflects on the key factors that allowed a small team from within the Cardiff University Learning and Teaching Academy's Digital Education Team to maintain innovative practices between several small-scale projects investigating immersive learning which led to the development of the Wales Virtual Hospital (WVH), an immersive teaching platform for all universities and National Health Service (NHS) Health Boards in Wales.

After briefly outlining some of the work undertaken from 2015 to 2022, this chapter presents the team's reflections on the factors that made their work successful:

- Relationship building, leading to authentic collaborative working between digital education staff, academic staff, and external partners.
- Time and appropriate financial support being available to support the early stages of innovative practice.
- Genuine recognition of experimentation as a valuable use of time.
- Constructive and supportive dialogue with peers in a safe space.
- Dissemination with a focus on how staff can take their first steps into these areas.
- Connecting with other central teams and processes.
- Working with students on innovation projects.

Context

The Cardiff University Learning and Teaching Academy

There are several teams and sub-teams mentioned in this chapter. This short explanation provides clarity, context, and the acronyms used.

The Learning and Teaching Academy (LTA) at Cardiff University is a team within Academic and Student Support Services and occupies a central role in the University, working with all academic disciplines rather than being attached to one specifically. The LTA has held different names in the past and the name was changed during the time period discussed in this chapter. However, for clarity, this team will be referred to as the LTA throughout.

The LTA is made up of sub-strands working in areas including Digital Education, Education Development, and Student Engagement, as is relatively typical for these sorts of teams (Kottmann et al. 2016), and also in Welsh language provision as Cardiff is a bilingual university. Most of the activities described in this chapter were undertaken by specific people in the Digital Education Team (DigEd Team), a sub-strand of the LTA. These specific people will be referred to as the Wales Virtual Hospital Team (WVH Team) throughout this chapter to distinguish them from the other members of the DigEd Team, which will be necessary for clarity.

Immersive learning

Immersive learning will be used as a term to cover learning activities that involve digital simulations, immersive media (360-degree images and video), virtual reality (VR), mixed reality, and other similar concepts such as desktop VR and immersive projection rooms.

The Journey

This section outlines some of the work that the WVH Team undertook during their investigations into immersive learning. The stages of the journey can be considered as broad descriptive categories of how the WVH Team felt about the work they were doing, rather than aligning specifically with one of the many models available that describe how innovations take place.These stages will be described as:

- Exploration
- Focusing and Prototyping
- Virtual Hospital Project

Exploration

The exploration stage was about determining what was currently happening in immersive learning, what was technically possible, and what was on the horizon, with a focus on how it might be used to enhance teaching and learning.

Exploration of the current capabilities of immersive technologies began in late 2015 and was informed by the interests of the WVH Team, who had briefly explored this area shortly before joining the LTA.

At this time, the 'second wave of VR' (Anthes et al. 2016) was in its infancy with several consumer level products that were not much more than minimum viable products, relying on novelty value and enthusiasts to look past the shortcomings. Products such as Google Cardboard (launched 2014), and Samsung Gear VR (launched 2015) are good examples of what was available at this time, shortly followed by a myriad of similar plastic headsets using a mobile phone as the screen.

Content for these devices was — and still is — generally split between real life capture using 360-degree cameras, and 3D generated content using platforms such as Unity and Unreal Engine. 360-degree cameras at a consumer level were generally made up of two fisheye style lenses positioned on opposite sides of the camera, or more DIY setups utilising

several action cameras attached to a tripod-mounted rig in such a way that their lenses covered the entire 360-degree field of view.

In 2015, the LTA awarded a small amount of funding to the School of Dentistry for a project titled 'Enhancing assessment and feedback quality through the use of multimedia technology'. During this project, students were responsible for creating video content involving exemplary and non-exemplary practices that could be used as preparation for assessments and discussion points in reflective practice.

Towards the end of this project, the WVH Team created a short video using a 360-degree camera made up of two fisheye lenses to capture exemplary practice of someone cleaning a dental clinic between patients. A 360-degree perspective was chosen in an attempt to capture the entire process from a fixed observation point, rather than from a camera that moved around as the cleaning progressed. This was the WVH Team's first use of a 360-degree camera playing the role of an observer in a simulation.

A 360-degree photo of a dental clinical treatment room was also taken during this session to see if hotspots could be added to the image to add basic interactivity using existing, free, or open-source software. As this was such an early stage of exploration, there was no option to look at buying commercial software for this purpose until the educational value was clear.

While capturing the 360-degree media was relatively straightforward, determining how best to deliver the video and image content so that students could use it was more difficult. 360-degree editing and production tools were still in their early stages and were somewhat inconsistent. Even tools from the major companies, such as Adobe and YouTube, existed as plug-ins or add-ons rather than fully integrated tools.

Another example of an exploratory project that the WVH Team undertook was to create a 360-degree video of the Welsh Varsity (a multi-sports competition between Cardiff University and Swansea University). This was created in partnership with the Cardiff University Student Union.

The quality of the video footage that the WVH Team were able to produce at this point was considered 'OK'; however, it was not as high quality as other consumer-level 360-degree video being produced and shared on platforms such as YouTube. As this video was going to be a promotional video, the WVH Team decided to try increasing the quality of the video by using the multi-camera method described earlier.

The WVH Team procured a tripod rig that would allow six GoPro action cameras to be attached and borrowed six cameras from several other teams across the University. Following some initial tests, it became clear that, although this would increase the quality of the video, it would also add significant complexity to the entire process as there were six times as much video footage to transfer and store, six batteries that could run out of charge, six wireless connections that had to stay in sync, and six cameras producing heat that was absorbed by the mount with nowhere for it to dissipate to.

Once the virtual varsity project had been completed, the WVH Team reflected on improvements needed in both their technical workflows and in the content production, particularly identifying a need to develop further understanding of the value of 360-degree content, and how to embed interactivity to enable active learning (Lee, Wong & Fung 2010).

By this time, it was clear that immersive learning was going to be a growth area. Although the WVH Team were aware that publication bias was important to consider, studies were showing positive educational outcomes (Christou 2010) and also suggested that immersive learning might help to address some of the challenges that the WVH Team were hearing about from teaching staff, such as the need to improve interprofessional education in healthcare disciplines (Bovill et al. 2016). However, much of the specific research on the use of immersive learning in education, particularly research relevant to the specific learning activities the WVH Team felt were more useful for Cardiff, involved quite small numbers of participants, used very specific experiences, or involved quite a lot of facilitation to make sure everything ran smoothly. Whilst these studies gave the WVH Team some confidence that they were going in the right direction, it was difficult to find specific examples in the research that matched the DigEd Team's approach to enhancing learning and teaching.

In brief, the DigEd Team's approach has always been to empower staff to do things for themselves, working in partnership to ensure that staff had the skills, platforms, and support to appropriately embed digital education practices into teaching, learning, and assessment. As a central team tasked with working across the University, it was also important to ensure that new platforms and tools would be relevant to a range of disciplines where possible. This approach gave the WVH Team some general direction during the exploration stage, meaning that, if it became clear that a piece of software or surrounding process would not align with this approach, then it was something to monitor, rather than actively pursue.

Focusing and prototyping

Many similar small pieces of work were undertaken during the exploration stage, and by summer 2018 the WVH Team felt that they had a decent overview of what was happening in the education and technology sectors regarding immersive learning, understood what was generally possible, and knew the next steps required to focus these explorations into something tangible and aligned with the DigEd Team's approach.

The WVH Team identified four areas that they needed to focus on, to move closer to that goal:

- Developing a solid understanding within the team about the value of immersive technologies so that they could confidently discuss this with staff.
- Developing a robust technical production workflow for the creation of immersive content.
- Determining the most appropriate delivery platform for immersive content, considering interactivity, accessibility, sustainability, and scalability.
- Developing the end-to-end process for developing immersive content, including expectations surrounding the roles of teaching and support staff within that process.

During the focusing and prototyping stage, the WVH Team completed more small pieces of work related to immersive learning and used them to help further develop in these four areas.

The WVH team next developed several prototypes that fitted in with the DigEd Team's approach and could be shown to staff to inspire them, using these as examples of what staff could achieve—and more easily than they might have expected. One of these prototypes was a virtual Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE) designed to prepare students for the sorts of questions they would be asked in their real examination, but also to familiarise them with the room that they would be in and the processes they would have to follow. This used a combination of 360-degree images and interactive learning objects. Another prototype used a mix of 360-degree video and 360-degree images to create an immersive scenario where a patient had collapsed in a waiting room, designed to let students practise and demonstrate their decision-making skills utilising gamification concepts and data tracking as they moved through the scenario.

The Wales Virtual Hospital project

Most of the small projects undertaken by the WVH Team could be described as more of a closed innovation (Almirall & Casadesus-Masanell 2010), with only a handful having a minor external component. However, in January 2020 a member of staff from the School Of Medicine approached the WVH Team about applying for some funding to take the concept of the virtual OSCE and patient collapse scenario and turn them into a proper product that would be scalable across clinical disciplines at Cardiff and potentially elsewhere.

In October 2020, the Wales Virtual Hospital project was funded by Accelerate Wales with representatives from most Welsh universities and Welsh NHS Health Boards as partners. The goal was to create a platform that could be used across Wales that would allow educators to themselves create good quality digital immersive simulations, using 360-degree photos and videos, rather than relying on third parties and incurring the associated costs. By creating a cross-Wales platform, the WVH Team hoped that it would encourage adoption and engagement, as staff who moved between universities and NHS Health Boards would be able to use the same platform and collaborate across institutions.

There were a few immersive learning platforms available at this time. However, the project team felt that buying an off-the-shelf product would mean that staff would be designing activities within the affordances of the platform (Maloney & Freeman 2020); it would be better instead to design the platform around the activities, especially as the potential uses of simulation are extremely varied (Gaba 2004). The platform was developed by local VR company Virtus Tech and version 1.0 was completed at the end of the project in November 2022. This has started to be used in several Welsh universities and is being centrally evaluated by NHS Wales. Further development of the platform is continuing based on user feedback and the platform is being commercialised (as the Virtual Hospital) outside Wales, which was an expectation of the Accelerate Wales funding. Feedback on the platform has been positive from staff and students; a formal evaluation of activities involving around 200 students is due to be published in Autumn 2023.

Key Success Factors

This section will outline and reflect on the key factors that enabled the WVH Team to continuously improve their practice in this area, even when there was not a specific project or a piece of work being delivered. The overall result of this continuous improvement approach was that, when the idea of a Wales Virtual Hospital was brought to a member of the WVH Team, they could advise on the current practices and technologies surrounding immersive learning and make valuable contributions to shape the project from the outset.

A reflection-based activity was undertaken by the two core members of the WVH team in September 2022. This activity was an unstructured discussion with the aim of identifying factors that contributed to their success, which could then be shared with the rest of the DigEd Team to shape how innovation occurred in the future.

The points raised in this discussion were grouped into seven key factors that the WVH Team felt contributed to their success; these were ratified by three experienced members of the DigEd Team who had been undertaking innovative practice in other areas.

1. Relationship building, leading to authentic collaborative working between digital education staff, academic staff, and external partners

The WVH Team had been invited to be involved in many of the projects listed earlier due to the relationships that they—as part of the DigEd Team—had developed over time by working closely with the teaching staff involved.

These relationships were developed through working with teaching staff on other projects, undertaking smaller pieces of day-to-day work, providing general digital education support, and through discussions at events.

By working in this way over several years, the DigEd Team had established themselves as a team to go to for their knowledge and skills, but importantly also as a team that were friendly, happy to help, and able to get things done.

These relationships meant not only that the WVH Team were invited to be involved in these projects, but also that once involved they could work in partnership with other participants as collaborators who understood the context. Their perspectives, ideas, knowledge, and skills were recognised, trusted, and valued because of these existing relationships.

When it came to external partners, being experienced in relationship building meant that they could quickly build relationships and influence partners effectively, with their feedback being taken on board in a constructive manner.

It was clear from the reflective activity that the WVH Team felt that, had these relationships not developed from working on other pieces of work and being generally helpful and friendly, the opportunity to be part of most of these innovative projects would never have existed.

This factor was considered highly important by the WVH Team and the other DigEd Team members who ratified the factors, and the value of relationships and trust when it comes to innovative practice has been documented (McGrath & Krackhardt 2003; Moolenaar & Sleegers 2010).

2. Time and appropriate financial support being available to support the early stages of innovative practice

In factor one, relationships were key to the WVH Team being offered the opportunity to be involved in innovative projects. Factor two is about ensuring that these offers could be accepted.

Although horizon scanning and supporting innovative practice was a part of the DigEd Team's remit, in reality there was a lot of other work competing for their time, much of which was more urgent, had a tangible impact, or was more visible to key University stakeholders. Being empowered to set aside short and specific periods of time for explorative work was seen as extremely valuable by the WVH Team during reflections. Being able to dip in and out of explorations as other workload naturally fluctuated was also important, with the WVH Team reflecting that ensuring each member of the team had enough understanding to continue exploring even when others were unavailable meant that the momentum of the exploration could continue. This did not mean that each member needed to be an expert in all aspects of the work, just that they needed to have enough understanding to push things forward whilst highlighting gaps to be later looked at by people with other specialties.

In terms of financial support, the LTA had no budget set aside for ad hoc innovation tasks, so the only way to request any money to support innovation-related activities was through the same channel as any other request for money such as travel expenses and IT equipment. The six-way camera mount mentioned earlier only cost £50 but was difficult to justify through this standard channel, as the reasons for purchase were less tangible than traditional requests. This situation also made it difficult to accurately estimate how much money to request when external funding became an option, as the WVH Team had been used to making do with what they had access to, borrowing equipment, and sometimes using their own computers to edit and render 360-degree content when this required more computing power than they had access to.

In contrast, during the pandemic a fund was created to cover digital education activities that fell outside standard provision and needed some financial support during the transition to remote learning. This was a well-managed fund that could respond rapidly and appropriately to requests as they occurred. During their reflections, the WVH Team felt that this sort of model of a low-value, well-managed fund, available internally, would have been ideal to support exploratory activities.

Innovative practice is something that does require time (Serdyukov 2017) and this factor was again quickly ratified by the other members of the DigEd Team.

3. Genuine recognition of experimentation as a valuable use of time

As mentioned in factor two, a small part of the DigEd team's work is around horizon scanning and innovative practice. However, factor three specifically involves the perspective of others in the DigEd Team who were not members of the WVH Team and were, at the time, working on different projects that were more tangible and deliverable rather than exploratory.

Being in a small office, the work of each member of the DigEd Team (and thus the WVH Team) was extremely visible to colleagues, managers, and senior management. The exploratory between-project work occurred mostly in or around the office and was also routinely mentioned in updates at weekly stand-up meetings, general team meetings, and in one-to-one discussions with line managers.

Innovation can be time consuming (Serdyukov 2017) and it would have been easy for these colleagues to question the value of this work, especially when they were also extremely busy. However, there was an informal understanding within the DigEd Team that, as long as the core work was being done, there would always be time for people to explore areas in which they were particularly interested, including the following exploratory interests from the DigEd Team at the time: micro-credentials and unbundling; Massive Open Online Courses; digital capabilities; communities of practice; and student digital champions.

The WVH Team reflected that, not only was this collegial understanding conducive to being able to continue exploring between projects, but it also created a culture where people supported and genuinely enjoyed hearing about their work, and where the WVH Team could take a similar interest in the innovative practice of others in the DigEd Team.

4. Constructive and supportive dialogue with peers in a safe space

In factor three, recognising the value of the WVH team's work meant that they felt supported and empowered to continue experimentation between specific projects. Factor four reflects how the DigEd Team were also happy to take this support further by being involved in discussions with the WVH Team to provide valuable external perspectives, feedback, idea generation, testing, and other support.

The DigEd Team considers one of its strengths to be the diverse range of experiences and interests across the team, alongside the trust, understanding, and respect that exists between its members. The WVH Team reflected that they could share their work and receive feedback in an environment that felt constructive and where everyone involved wanted them to succeed, whilst also wanting to make sure that they succeeded in a way that fitted with the DigEd Team's approach.

Both factors three and four involve people trusting each other enough to show some vulnerability in terms of their ideas. This resonates with discussions of trust being important for innovation in organisations (Dovey 2009).

5. Dissemination with a focus on how staff can take their first steps into these areas

Factor four helped to ensure that the work undertaken around immersive learning was done well; factor five relates to ensuring that staff around the University could then engage with the team and make use of that work.

The WVH team felt that, when immersive learning projects were presented at events, they regularly lacked a 'and this is how you can do something similar' component of the presentation. They reflected that this was sometimes because innovation funding had been necessary to achieve the project outcomes, making it out of reach for people with no access to similar funding, or because, once the innovative side of things was complete, there was no funding to roll out more widely.

Dissemination is key to adoption (McKenzie & Alexander 2006), so the WVH team and other members of the DigEd Team decided to actively change how they disseminated their work, ensuring that there was always a clear way for other staff to get involved. The WVH team started using the phrase 'Show (off) and tell' as a concept for how to avoid presenting their work. This was particularly relevant at internal events, as the goal was to enable Cardiff University staff to see what was achievable and how to get involved; it has also been a successful approach at external events.

Coupled with the DigEd Team's approach, particularly around the long-term support and scalability, the WVH Team felt that presenting their work in this way helped to address the criticisms that the LTA had previously received: that their innovation projects often focus on the same audience of innovators, early adopters, or previously engaged staff.

6. Connecting with other central teams and processes

As part of a central University team, the DigEd Team works closely with other central services, such as IT, procurement, and compliance. The WVH Team reflected that being aware of the processes that involved these teams, and knowing who the key contacts were, meant that they could get the right people involved in projects when required. This awareness meant that there were fewer unexpected issues arising during implementation and that the WVH Team were able to draw on the experience of these teams to help guide the direction of their work. The WVH Team reflected that they had seen innovation projects of different types and sizes struggle to get integrated because these central teams had not been consulted at all during the development.

In both factors five and six the WVH Team were able to act as orchestrators (Furr and Shipilov 2018), encouraging staff to work directly with each other. The WVH Team also felt that the change to dissemination in factor five and the fact

that they work closely with other teams in factor six helped to avoid innovations failing between the early stages and wider implementation, which can commonly occur (Edler & Fagerberg 2017).

7. Working with students on innovation projects

Finally, several of the projects involving the WVH Team included students, either as co-creators or taking the lead more formally as part of their studies. As well as adding value for the students themselves (Bovill et al. 2016), the WVH Team reflected that working with students had been useful as students often suggested ideas that the WVH Team would not have considered.

Students were also generally happy to give honest feedback and provide a perspective about immersive learning within the wider context of being a student studying multiple modules with different activities in each one. When planning and developing learning activities for students in lower years, students could reflect on what would have been useful for them, with the advantage of also knowing what would actually be expected of them based on what they learned during that activity. Much of this discussion in clinical disciplines related to preparing for going into practice.

When students took the lead on projects, the WVH Team reflected that the students often had more time and different priorities to teaching staff, so they could be more engaged in the projects that they were doing.

Overall Reflections

Apart from factor two (time and financial support), all the key factors are about people. Whether it was relationship building with teaching staff and central teams, constructive dialogue within the DigEd Team, or changing the focus of dissemination, people are at the heart of each of these factors. This came as a surprise to the WVH Team, who had initially expected the factors to have more of a technical nature.

The WVH Team felt that building and maintaining relationships across the University (factor one) was critical to the success of their work, as it was these relationships with teaching staff that allowed them to be invited to be part of innovation projects in the first place. Without this, the other factors would not have mattered. They also felt that it was very hard to evidence the value or impact of building and managing these relationships, despite knowing that it was clearly a valuable use of time.

Linked to this was that the WVH Team felt like they were empowered to say 'Yes' when these invitations came to them. This was partly because their remit involved some horizon scanning, but mostly because of the attitudes of their colleagues around the value of this sort of work and the support they could provide. Although not every idea turned into something, the WVH Team felt that being approachable and positive during initial discussions about their ideas made staff feel that they could come back to them with their next idea — which might.

Finally, the DigEd Team's approach is interwoven into several of these factors and the WVH Team felt that this approach has been crucial to their success, by providing a focus during the exploration stage. The WVH Team felt that the culture of understanding, trust, and respect amongst colleagues that has been actively developed in the DigEd Team over several years also contributed to this success and that the value of the DigEd Team's support cannot be overstated. They also felt that this did not always exist in other areas of the University, and they were extremely grateful to be part of such a team.

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MOTIVATING STUDENTS AND STAFF

Revitalising Motivation

Second language acquisition research as a means to understand student demotivation

Because second language (L2) acquisition is the branch of learning with the highest rate of learning failure, it provides the ideal starting point to draw from research into which factors demotivate these learners and why. Much L2 motivation research insight has high transferable value. I have drawn from it to positively inform my mentoring of pathway/foundation students and have found it extremely effective in fostering retention of online learners studying in any discipline. This article draws on this research and places it in the context of 'crisis' situations, including Covid-19, to illustrate its value.

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Revitalising Motivation: Second language acquisition research as a means to understand student demotivation

Introduction

The literature on second language (L2) acquisition defines amotivation as 'the realization that *there's no point … or it's beyond me*' and demotivation as the triggering of amotivation by a specific aspect of learning which becomes an obstacle to the point that the student becomes amotivated (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 140).

The sudden, forced move to an exclusively online learning experience in response to Covid-19 lockdowns arguably intensified underlying or already present, 'ecological' or non-academic issues affecting some students in ways I could readily empathise with from personal experience—particularly the sense of isolation and lack of support. When compounded by this new learning landscape, these pre-existing issues posed very real challenges to some learners, particularly those now placed in a more marginalised position, specifically in terms of access to academic and pastoral care. Therefore, it could be argued that if there was one benefit of Covid-19, it may have been its drawing attention, due to its scale, to this often underacknowledged aspect of a student's learning journey. In this chapter, I draw on my own research into factors that demotivate L2 learners, on the literature on educational psychology which informed it, and specifically on how participants in my doctoral study negotiated amotivation and/or demotivation as L2 students of Korean.

As a mature returning student while working full-time, it was with some irony that I found myself directly experiencing what I was researching. At 46, I embarked on a PhD in Applied Linguistics through Macquarie University in Sydney, Australia online and by distance education. I had never studied this discipline before and was initially working full-time as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructor at a South Korean university. Halfway through my candidature, I relocated to Western Australia due to a personal crisis that almost cost me my life. I experienced personal challenges and an accompanying sense of isolation and alienation from any form of academic 'community'. Together, they halted forward momentum on my chosen academic pathway. I thought there was something wrong with me, that I was alone in this struggle, and therefore I internalised it. Over time, I lost confidence and was reluctant to ask for help—on reflection due to a fear that help would, no doubt, initially take place online by email or at best in a Zoom call. Within one year of graduating with a PhD that investigated factors that demotivate L2 learners, the world was plunged into the first of its Covid-19 lockdowns. The resulting literature on the tertiary sector's management of students forced to study in isolation confirms and reinforces that I was far, far from alone in my experience and that much of this research reveals strong parallels regarding amotivation and demotivation among the experiences of participants it examines with those of the participants in my study—despite mine having an exclusively L2 acquisition analytical focus.

The literature on L2 acquisition, the learning pathway with the highest rate of recorded 'failure' (Dörnyei 2009) gave me great solace. My deep dive into this literature enabled me to place myself in a larger framework. I gradually realized that, while the causes of my amotivation informed by academic and personal issues may have been unique, the resulting symptoms and impact on my study were not. I became gradually more attuned to how to respond to the 'inevitable ebbs and flows' that accompany language acquisition (Dörnyei 2007), and I applied strategies drawn from the very literature I was researching to rejuvenate and maintain my motivation. This enabled me to complete my thesis; I have since implemented these strategies with great success with the student cohorts that I have been entrusted to serve.

In this chapter, I will initially introduce my study and its participants. I then draw on select theoretical constructs in the literature that inform their struggles, and in one case, success, to illustrate their importance for any student, both in the L2 learning classroom and the broader sociocultural environment. Finally, I draw on the responses of tertiary institutions to crisis situations to briefly align the theoretical constructs and the experience of my participants with an empathetic understanding of their challenges.

The Study and its Participants

I began my PhD entitled *Factors affecting the motivation of EFL instructors living in South Korea to learn Korean* (Gearing 2018) in September 2009, part-time, by distance education, completing compulsory coursework for 18 months before embarking on the thesis, which was completed in September 2018. Anecdotal observation of seemingly chequered attempts by my peers and colleagues to acquire Korean led me to question why almost all of them, at some point, appeared to have become amotivated to learn the first language (L1) of their vibrant host nation. And so, the idea for this study was born. At that time, I was employed as one of 12 foreign EFL instructors at University of Ulsan (UOU) in South Korea. The resulting qualitative thesis by publication entailed conducting in-depth interviews of 14 EFL instructors, all working in South Korean universities, in one case at the UOU for 15 years, on what factors motivated and/or amotivated and/or demotivated their Korean language learning paths. Participants were recruited in late 2011 after gaining ethical approval, with the proviso that while seven recruits could be colleagues at the UOU, a further seven participants would each need to be working in a different South Korean university to each other. This was to ensure balance against any potential institutional or location-based bias among the UOU participants. The recruitment process entailed the sending of a formal letter of invitation to each of my UOU EFL colleagues, with the first seven to reply in the affirmative being recruited. The other potential participants were recruited via my professional network (the Korean Organization for Teachers of English to Speakers of

Other Languages (KOTESOL) with the first seven who worked in a different institution being recruited. The invitation letter requested that each potential participant keep a journal tracking their Korean learning journey for two weeks prior to their in-depth interview and six did so. The invitation to potential UOU participants also included the request that one of the selected seven become a one-year longitudinal case study. Her resulting commitment would entail weekly interviews for the year, with every second interview being audio recorded. All interviews were conducted face-to-face and audio-recorded in 2013. Participant details are listed in Table 1.

On completion of the interview process, all recordings were transcribed and thematically coded. This enabled a matching of participant experiences with the most robust theoretical constructs in the literature, that would inform a deep understanding of their experiences. Chapters for the thesis were accordingly allocated with four being successfully published in international first quarterly academic journals in the discipline of Applied Linguistics. Their findings largely inform the findings and discussion in this chapter.

Literature Review

It is not possible to enter a discussion about L2 educational psychology without acknowledging the doyen of this research literature, Zoltan Dörnyei. Upon relocation to England in 1998, the Hungarian linguist established himself as arguably the world's leading researcher on motivation in L2 acquisition before sadly passing in 2022, aged 62. His pathfinding L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei 2005) redefined the L2 motivation literature by placing the learner at its centre, replacing the previously dominant themes of the classroom learning environment and external sociocultural factors. The L2 Motivational Self-System comprises three aspects. *The Ideal L2 Self*, or the learner's image of their future L2 speaking self-vision, motivates them to reduce the gap between their idealised and actual L2 selves. *The Ought-to L2 Self* is the learner's image of which future qualities they need to possess to prevent negative outcomes. These may include duties, expectations, and responsibilities, imposed externally. Finally, *The L2 Learning Experience* refers to the immediate L2 learning environment. This model builds on the Process Model of Motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998) which conceptualizes motivation in three stages of continual fluctuation (Dörnyei 2005). In the *pre-actional stage*, motivation

Table 1. Participant details (Gearing 2018).

Participant (pseudonym)	Ethnicity	Age	Qualifications (Highest degree obtained)
John	South Africa	26	BA (Human Resource Management)
James	England	28	BA (English Literature)
Richard	United States	49	MA in TESOL
Andy	New Zealand	34	Bachelor of Hospitality Management
Barry	United States	34	BA (Broadcasting)
Patricia	United States	29	BA (Anthropology)
Sharon	United States	32	MBA
Robert	New Zealand	64	MA (Education)
Angela	United States	57	MA (Creative Writing)
Duncan	England	39	MA (English Language Teaching)
Paul	Australia	28	MA in TESOL
James	Canada	40	BA (English Literature)
David	Canada	49	BA (Psychology)
Vernon	Canada	46	BA (Computer Science)

needs to be generated and a goal identified. In the *actional stage*, motivation needs to be actively maintained and protected. In the *post-actional stage*, the learner retrospectively reviews their learning experience. Importantly, it is at the post-actional stage that learners look back on the actions that they have undertaken and form causal attributions to explain to themselves the reasons for their success, or otherwise, in achieving their goals. Although Dörnyei (2005) laments the Process Model of Motivation's limitations, my own experience confirms that it remains a highly effective means of interpreting and understanding L2 student motivation, both individually and at the level of curriculum development and design. Dörnyei is also credited with having conducted some of the most comprehensive studies of L2 motivation to date. His study of 4000 European L2 learners of French, Italian, German, and English (Dörnyei 1998) informed Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) comprehensive research summary of European learners of L2s. They found that by far the single most demotivating factor for students was their teachers (40%), followed by issues accompanying choices made to inform teaching practice, including methodology, curriculum, and resources. What fascinates many in this field of research is that these findings were almost identically corroborated by Kikuchi and Sakai's (2009) summary of similar research into the demotivation of Japanese EFL learners. In my study, only one participant achieved relative fluency in Korean, and she did not take formal classes. The one participant who did take them for nine years, 'James', still described himself as an intermediate speaker of Korean. All other participants who undertook formal face-to-face classroom Korean instruction, of which there were three, including the longitudinal case study's attempts to learn Korean online, withdrew after experiencing amotivation and/or demotivation (Gearing 2019). The models constructed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) and Dörnyei (2005) enable a candid analysis of why this may have occurred, including demotivating factors that may have been present before these learners entered the L2 classroom and may well have been exacerbated once they were in it. These include a dislike of the L2 itself and/or the community that speaks it and the learners' previous L2 learning experiences, particularly if these were negative (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011).

A review of the literature revealed two key broader sociocultural theoretical constructs that would most effectively inform and support an analysis of my findings. The first was the seminal qualitative study undertaken by Bonny Norton of immigrant working class women learning English in Canada (Norton 1997, 2013, 2014). Her findings clearly indicate very high extrinsic or externally based motivation, as opposed to intrinsic, or internal motivation or enjoyment derived from the activity (Deci & Ryan 1980, 1985, 2000, 2009) among her participants. Unsurprisingly, this was largely due to the social, economic, and cultural capital such investment could potentially produce (Bourdieu 1986). However, despite this high motivation, participants in her studies consistently noted that attempts to enter L1 communities of practice—where they could practice their newly acquired English skills—were often stymied. The result was inevitable, though reluctant, amotivation and demotivation. Seaman (2008: 270-271) underscores why a sense of belonging to a community of practice is so important, particularly for learning cohorts with a shared motivation or goal, arguing:

> *It is this shared practice that differentiates the community of practice from other communities. A community of practice consists of members that share more than simply an interest; a community of practice shares expertise, competence learning, activities, discussions, information, tools, stories, experiences, and a knowledge base … but also it creates, organizes, revises and passes on knowledge among the members of the community.*

Finally, contributing to any, or all, of the theoretical constructs introduced above may well be accompanying issues related to the 'ecology' of learning. Arguably, and precisely due to the ground-breaking theoretical constructs of Dörnyei (2005) and Norton (1997), a gap in the L2 motivation literature was now clearly identifiable. Casanave's (2012) autobiographical case study of her experiences of attempting to learn the L1 of her host nation, Japan, began the process of filling it. Her seminal study highlighted the often under-reported interconnected personal and/or work-related issues that plagued her progress of studying Japanese while teaching EFL in Japan, causing amotivation. Notably, these included her perception of being labelled and treated as an 'alien' living in a host nation with highly divergent cultural norms to those that she had previously experienced in western culture. Other issues included work-related stress due to a high workload and environmental and resulting health issues such as noise and air pollution and associated physical and mental health challenges.

In the following findings and discussion section, I will primarily draw on the theoretical constructs introduced above. However, I will also include the work of other prominent researchers from the L2 motivation literature, to illustrate how and why participants in my study experienced so much episodic and sustained Korean L2 amotivation and demotivation, particularly relating to the seemingly difficult task of justifying 'integrating' a minority L2 identity into the seemingly incompatible neo-liberal, globalised landscape that many participants believed would be the backdrop of their continued career pathway and journey (Gearing & Roger 2019). Finally, I will briefly draw on well-known 'crisis' situations experienced by the tertiary education sector internationally to demonstrate how the L2 motivation literature may inform understanding of, and therefore empathy to, the academic and pastoral/ecological needs of the affected learners in each case.

Findings and Discussion

Unsurprisingly, since I was following her Korean-learning path intensely throughout 2013, some of the deepest insight from my study emerged from the testimony given by its longitudinal case study. 'Patricia' (not her real name), is an African American with a Bachelor of Arts degree in anthropology. She arrived in Seoul in December 2007 from the United States, before completing a one-year contract at a *hagwon*, or private language academy, then returning, as intended, to the United States. Unable to find employment in the USA, she returned to South Korea and worked as a teacher at a hagwon outside Seoul for one year, before transferring to another branch of the same institute in Seoul, working there for three months, then joining the UOU as an EFL instructor. In the time I monitored her, the single most amotivating factor consistently experienced by research participants in my study was their perception that they were persistently not 'accommodated' as L2 users of Korean: be it by local L1 users in daily life (Gearing & Roger 2018a), as an online learner of Korean (Gearing & Roger 2018b), or face-to-face in the L2 classroom as summed up by Patricia: 'I know I'm saying it right. I say it over, and over, again. No matter how many ways I say it, nobody can understand me. A Korean person says it: "Oh". I still get very annoyed with that.' (Gearing 2019).

A recurrent theme she expressed was her desire to leave Korea with some grasp of the language (evidence of a nascent Ideal L2 Self) though admitting and regretting not being able to speak more Korean with her friends (an Ought-to L2 Self) (Gearing & Roger 2018b). Dörnyei (2005) states that the *internalised* vision of the learner as a fluent L2 speaker needs to be primed and nurtured to flourish. Patricia consistently cited many non-linguistic, or ecological, factors in her Korean language learning journey as reasons why the motivation required to sustain this did not develop. While empathetically hearing these, it was difficult, however, not to conclude that she did not appear to have internalised an Ideal L2 Self vision as a Korean speaker. In addition to the ecological issues outlined by Casanave (2102), Patricia referred to the persistent desire of Koreans to speak in English with her. A person-in-context relational view of motivation states that language learners' current experiences and self-states may facilitate or constrain their engagement with their future possible selves (Ushioda 2009). This view may offer insight into Patricia's interpretation of her Korean-learning experiences. While attempting to enter peripheral L2 communities of practice can be a long and difficult process for learners (Lave & Wenger 1991; Norton 1997, 2013, 2014), Patricia's Korean communities of practice comprised friends. However, in her interviews, she offered scant evidence that she made use of this resource as a language learning opportunity. Rather, she attributed her Korean friends' ability and desire to converse in English, and her temporary status in South Korea, as related amotivating factors. She also consistently referenced her frustration at attempting to gain access to an online community of practice through her online Korean course, an issue exacerbated by her sense of being a distance student. This led to a feeling of being 'exposed' or 'vulnerable', culminating in episodic imposter syndrome, or the persistent inability to believe in the validity of one's success (Bothello & Roulet 2018). It can be assumed that an individual with a more robust Ideal L2 Self would have explored other L2 acquisition options more fully, in addition to (or in place of) self-study. To sum up, Patricia consistently cited multiple external obstacles that she attributed to her lack of attaining an ideal L2 Self (Dörnyei 2009). In common with the findings of Casanave (2012), these included a less than ideal work schedule; however they included additional obstacles such as lack of long-term job security and parallel competing goals, extra-curricular commitments, perceived internal obstacles including a tendency to over-commit and a negative self-belief about her language learning ability and speaking anxiety, compounded by technical problems impeding progress with her online course (particularly software installation and compatibility), and lack of a suitable study space and study routine.

Only one participant, 'Sharon' (not her real name), achieved relative fluency in Korean. An African American, Sharon had a Bachelor of Science degree in speech communication and a Master of Business Administration. She arrived in South Korea in August 2001 and worked at a hagwon in a large regional city, then at a university there for one year, before joining the UOU as an EFL instructor. Her attainment of Korean fluency was arguably assisted by living a 'total immersion experience'. She shared an apartment with a roommate fluent only in Korean and was an active member of a Korean-speaking church. She displayed a strong Ideal-L2 Self, firmly believing that given her intent to reside permanently in South Korea, it was her responsibility to learn her host nation's L1. Associated with this was a strong underlying Ought-to L2 Self-component, largely expressed as respect for the people and culture of South Korea. She was arguably the only participant who was motivated to learn Korean—despite associated difficulties associated with some aspects of its grammar and needing to self-manage episodic demotivation. To counter this while self-studying, she engaged in enjoyable L2 activities, such as listening to Korean singers, watching Korean television, and engaging in simple gossip within her Korean communities. Such a methodology of stepping away from the more formal aspects of learning to focus on those that provide accessibility, enjoyment, and therefore the expectation of success, can be key in re-establishing motivation (Ushioda 2011).

What can we take from all of this? Based on their research focus on the L2 classroom and based on the findings of Falout and Maruyama (2004) and Kikuchi and Sakai (2009), Kikuchi (2015) concludes that that less motivated learners are more sensitive to demotivators, while more motivated students are more able to self-regulate their cognitive and emotional wellbeing when encountering demotivators, meaning learners with clear goals might not perceive potential demotivators as such and keep

their focus on the learning environment. Conversely, Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) found that students without clear goals far more readily highlighted many potential demotivators, particularly the monotony of the lessons, unmotivated fellow classmates, and the student's own lack of ability to understand the class. With this in mind, let us view feedback from 'Duncan', a qualified L2 teacher and EFL instructor at one of South Korea's leading universities, on his Korean L2 classroom experience:

> *'She tried to go through the material so fast, that we could never … consolidate the information. … she was trying to do a semester's worth of … language teaching in two months ... one evening a week, for two hours. … it became a little overwhelming …'*

Similar negative feedback was forthcoming from 'James', also employed as an EFL instructor at one of the other three leading universities in South Korea:

> *… if you are interested in the culture of the language, you are more interested in the language itself … [it] is not Hanbok … that's a small [part] of it … [it] is what I am talking about … to some dude in the coffee shop … to some businessman … [it] is what I see on TV, right now. … not [a] … one time a year Buddhist lantern festival … [which is] boring.*

As one possible reprieve to such beleaguered L2 students whose post-actional interpretation of the success of their learning (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998) is so dire, Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) advocate emphasising 'less studenty' tasks and the promotion of activities that students will more readily engage in because they can relate to them.

While this summary appears to posit the argument that a demotivated L2 learner may well be projecting their own lack of motivation outwardly as a possible means of not taking responsibility for their own lack of L2 acquisition progress, this does not concur with the findings of Norton (1997, 2013, 2014), nor resolve the 'big' non-classroom-related questions that continued to nag me. These included the persistent ecological and identity and investment-related themes raised by participants, particularly the sentiment that they were employed on one or two-year renewable contracts. Interestingly, of the only two on tenure, one was Sharon. All other participants, to varying degrees, believed it was not necessary, or in some cases actively discouraged, to speak Korean in the English L2 classroom and that, as they operated in English-speaking 'cocoons', they found it entirely possible to function in daily life using 'survival' Korean. Accordingly, the investment required to acquire a minority language with very limited perceived transferable value was deemed prohibitive, especially given the near universal and consistently expressed perception of a lack of accommodation of them as L2 speakers of Korean (Gearing & Roger 2018a, 2018b, 2019; Gearing 2018, 2019).

Rewriting History

In attempting to give these findings a theoretical understanding, I was not surprised to find that the 21st century has recorded an unprecedented movement of an ever-increasingly large number of native English speakers to host nations where the L1 was a minority language (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie 2017). Despite this trend arguably being symptomatic of the new globalised landscape, the only study of L2 identity and motivation not focusing on learning English was Lyons' (2009) analysis of the French Foreign Legion. From 2005 to 2014, 72.67% of all published studies on L2 motivation focused on English as the target language. The result was a lack of attention given to the acquisition of other languages in primarily monolingual settings (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan 2015). Ushioda (2017), however, did share my surprise that the spread of global English had not appeared to have motivated such potentially affected individuals to diversify their language ability. In South Korea's case, English is accorded an almost unquestioned respect due to the country's very economic survival depending on English-language proficiency (Song 2012), which may well explain why participants in my study almost universally experienced barriers accessing Korean-speaking communities of practice and being accommodated in them in daily life (Gearing & Roger 2018a, 2018b, 2019; Gearing 2019). This overriding desire of Koreans to embrace English due to globalisation, therefore, makes the following statement by 'Andy' much easier to understand:

> *'There's no reward in learning Korean … so when other priorities take over … it's the first thing I drop.'*

Korean's status as a minority language in the transnational, neo-liberal marketplace was cited by 'Robert' for his amotivation to acquire it:

> *'… in the globalized setting … how important is Korean … it makes much more sense to learn … [Mandarin], even if you are in Korea … because Chinese … is … such a big … language, particularly in Asia, here.'*

Finally, in assessing the merit of investing in a Korean L2 identity, Duncan surmised:

> *'… what's going to help me get a better job … in another country? Is it going to be learning Korean, or … publications, presentations … developing a better course … getting better at my teaching craft?'*

To sum up, my participants largely believed that they were working in a host nation with a minority L1 with little perceived transferability in the neo-liberal globalised economy. Its inhabitants displayed an insatiable thirst to acquire English to compete in this globalised economy; as such, they took every opportunity to strengthen their English skills. Therefore, the corresponding persistent theme of difficulty accessing

L2 communities of practice and being accommodated there (Norton 2014) had resulted in participants exhibiting a less than robust L2 Self, informing an equally unmotivated associated Ought-to Self (Dörnyei 2005).

Applying the L2 Motivation Lens to 'Crisis' Situations Experienced in the Tertiary Education Sector

To close our discussion, I will cite three 'crisis' scenarios in the literature, to demonstrate how students' experiences of them may be more empathetically interpreted by drawing on aspects of the L2 motivation literature I have now introduced. Arguably, the most intense challenge faced by the tertiary education sector this century has been in response to Covid-19. Gelles et al. (2020) found that while access issue disparities were already present, and often ignored in the face-to-face classroom learning situation, they were now exacerbated in the exclusively online one, noting that: 'Showing compassion for students can be more difficult when there is physical and social distance' (307). Their analysis of how a cohort of US engineering students responded to the need to study exclusively online indicated that they still needed academic, career, and mental health support. However, without adequate human resource and technological infrastructure, the information they gained was largely through informal interpersonal interactions with their teaching staff and peers. As a result, students found themselves reliant on limited and, at times, highly confusing directives and policy from their institution and academic staff, particularly on how their curriculum would now be managed and assessed. In South Africa, Swartz (2018) found that, as a response to significant student protests directly targeting the lack of accessibility to higher education and demands to decolonise the curriculum, causing widespread campus disruption, universities offered blended and online learning. However, this only intensified the issue that not all affected students had adequate access to, or literacy in, digital learning (Anderson 2005). Finally, Gómez (2008) makes the point that while Tohoku University reached out to its engineering faculty students after the 2011 Great East Japan earthquake, its international students were left in a very tenuous, unsupported position, with many returning home. These students reported their relying primarily on non-university sources of information for support and decision-making, particularly from their own nationality, subsequently stating that the slowness of the university's flow of information, with the most important of this being only published on websites, was totally insufficient to meet their needs. Wright and Wordsworth (2013) surmise that how students interpret the level of empathy displayed to them during a crisis highlights the importance of clear and transparent communication from the university. Therefore, by drawing on our newfound L2 motivation knowledge, a prima facie case can be made that students with a less idealised vision of themselves may become more easily demotivated in the face of obstacles such as those mentioned above.

While they may outwardly appear to be projecting their own amotivation, such sentiments may be viewed more empathetically if the possible myriad academic and ecological challenges these students may be concurrently experiencing are taken into account.

Conclusion

That my peers in South Korea experienced such seemingly prohibitive amotivation and or demotivation to acquire the L1 of their vibrant host nation would, at first glance, appear contradictory to what one might expect from those employed as language instructors. By focusing on the psychology of the learners themselves, before broadening to include accompanying ecological factors in the broader sociocultural landscape, I have attempted to provide a means from which tertiary education providers may more fully understand and therefore respond to students who may well exhibit symptoms of amotivation or demotivation. More importantly, aspects of this information may be used to inform the forward planning of how to anticipate these causes and pre-emptively mitigate them occurring in potentially any learning setting. Finally, while acknowledging that some L2 learners may well be bringing 'baggage' with them, including a dislike of the L2 itself and the community that speaks it (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011), some of the most significant demotivating issues L2 learners experience include the accessing of communities of practice and subsequent accommodation in them. In our ever-increasingly globalised world, interactions among linguistically diverse cohorts will, arguably, only increase. Therefore, understanding the associated difficulties, from all perspectives, is imperative if we wish to minimize the potential for amotivation and demotivation. Hopefully, the literature on L2 motivation can positively inform this process.

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MOTIVATING STUDENTS AND STAFF

The Robots are Coming for your Students' Feedback

The Data Analytics team at The University of Waikato gathers student feedback (as rich qualitative data) but manual analysis of these comments poses a time challenge for reporting. To address this, we explored the possibility of condensing qualitative information by leveraging natural language processing (NLP) technology, specifically Google's NLP sentiment analysis. We employed a robust coding framework to test the validity of NLP-coded student feedback, analysing 1000 comments from the University's 2021 course evaluations. Results show a statistical correlation between our sentiment analysis and NLP, offering promising evidence for NLP's efficacy in providing accurate, high-level insights into student feedback sentiment.

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Introduction

As the Evaluations and Data Analytics team at the University of Waikato, we collect student feedback (i.e. evaluations) to enhance teaching practices and our students' learning. Some student feedback is collected as quantitative ratings of Likert-scale questions, measuring various aspects of the teaching and learning experience, such as whether a paper (i.e. a course) was well-organised or the learning objectives were reached (University of Waikato 2023). Quantitative rating data of this sort can be readily described in aggregate or presented in graphics. However, a substantial portion of students' feedback comprises detailed qualitative data that is less easily communicated en masse (Weis & Willems 2017: 223-243). While our quantitative analyses of student feedback provide staff with useful information about how a paper has gone overall, it tends to be students' qualitative responses that provide the most insight about specific things that could be improved. Furthermore, students' critical comments about a course often provide the starting point for thinking through how the required improvement could be achieved (e.g. Tucker 2015).

Although student feedback can provide individual staff with invaluable insight into their teaching practices (Tucker 2015; Zaitseva, Tucker & Santhanam 2022), the substantial time investment required for the careful and manual analysis of these comments at scale has thus far significantly limited the ability to aggregate insights from students' qualitative feedback. For our team's specific circumstances, condensing and aggregating the qualitative data would be an advantageous first step for three key reasons. First, it enables information from student evaluations to be more easily communicated to those not directly involved in the delivery of a course without sacrificing student confidentiality. For example, if multiple students in a course, or across courses in a programme, are raising similar concerns about specific teaching quality issues, it may be important for a supervisory staff member to see that professional development or other support is needed. Second, the volume of data and the in-depth qualitative analysis (e.g. thematic analysis) required to synthesise insights from qualitative evaluations data outweigh the staffing resources generally available to central evaluations teams. In recent years at Waikato, for example, we have received up to 40,000 pieces of qualitative feedback from our three main evaluation periods each year. Finally, the literature underscores the importance of university processes that are responsive to students' experiences (both good and bad) and recognise that students are active contributors who enhance the quality of education at such institutions (e.g. Knight et al. 2022; Mertens 2019). The best practice for engaging students in the process of evaluation and improving an institution's teaching and learning systems is through 'closing the loop'. In this context, closing the loop means collecting, responding to, and communicating a summary of their feedback and the subsequent institutional responses to the student body (Tschirhart & Pratt-Adams 2019).

When communicating the findings of student evaluations, it is important that student confidentiality is maintained and that data is presented succinctly. One common method for representing open-ended feedback and maintaining confidentiality is employing a text analytics word cloud, particularly when many student responses are available. However, word clouds tend to be based on the frequency at which keywords were used in feedback, which means that the valence behind those words is not always clear (e.g. Knight et al. 2022). Further, students may misspell terms or use colloquialisms that pose a problem for frequency-based measures (Kukich 1992; Sag et al. 2002).

An alternative option is to conduct an analysis of each piece of feedback to determine the overall sentiment—in other words, carry out a sentiment analysis (Zhang et al. 2023). While sentiment analysis can be done manually, artificial intelligence (AI) tools have become available that enable sentiment analysis using Natural Language Processing (NLP). Existing literature suggests that NLP can provide a resource-efficient approach that is increasingly being used to analyse textual content from students (e.g. Graesser & McNamara 2012; Ormerod & Harris 2010; Ormerod, Patel & Wang 2023). Popular evaluation software packages also include AI-powered text analytics to condense qualitative data (e.g. *Blue: The people insights platform* (Explorance 2023); *NVivo* (Lumivero 2023)).

Current Study

At our university (University of Waikato) we run frequent evaluations of the papers offered and of the contributions of teaching staff. Among other questions, the evaluations include open-ended questions to students about what they think was done well and what could be improved. Student responses to the open-ended questions often contain useful feedback but are difficult and time-consuming to aggregate for reporting purposes and aggregation is essential for retaining student confidentiality. We compared human-versus-NLP sentiment analyses to investigate the viability of leveraging NLP to revitalise our evaluations reporting. Therefore, with the assistance of a Bluenotes Faculty Grant and funding from the University of Waikato's Summer Research Scholar programme, we proposed that NLP sentiment analysis could serve as a first-step summary of student responses. Furthermore, we sought to identify an analytic process that would require minimal coding or pre-training so that, if successful, we could widely disseminate the approach to other educational institutions.

Method

Test Population

We opted to analyse the feedback provided by students during the two largest trimesters in 2021. The total population consisted of 35,925 pieces of student feedback. For both

trimesters, there was a larger number of responses regarding feedback of the paper (A = 7,692; B = 16,357) compared to feedback about individual teaching staff (*A* = 4,549; *B* = 7,327). Within these subsets of feedback data (e.g. *A Trimester and Paper Feedback*), the positively-primed question was answered more often than the corresponding negatively primed question, as shown in Table 1. Broadly, the positively-primed question asks students what they thought was done well in a paper or by a teacher, while the negatively-primed question asked students to reflect on things that could be improved upon.

	A Trimester		B Trimester	
	Positive Question	Negative Question	Positive Question	Negative Question
Paper	4017	3675	8499	7858
Teacher	2535	2014	4073	3254

Table 1. Frequencies of qualitative feedback in the sampling population.

Stratified sampling

For all coding samples, we drew evaluation data from the population, stratified so that each sample contained an equal number of comments from (1) A and B trimesters; (2) paper feedback and specific teacher feedback; and (3) each of the two standard open-ended questions. We sampled comments in this way to control for any impact resulting from the differences in the question wording. These sampling parameters were also used to ensure sufficient statistical power for later comparisons across categories in the full dataset: to test, for example, whether student sentiment tended to be more or less positive in their evaluation of papers compared to when they consider specific teaching staff.

Analysis

Prior to compiling the full sample of student feedback, we ran an a priori power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al. 2007). Assuming that A-trimester versus B-trimester feedback was similar in sentiment, we established that a sample size of above 800 was required for our planned 2-x-2 ANOVA testing given an alpha level of .05, a minimum power level of .80, and a small effect size (*f* = .10). Therefore, we determined that our final dataset would consist of one thousand student responses.

Developing the coding framework

To determine and then iteratively test a coding framework, we drew samples of comments from the population that was not a part of the full study dataset. We coded and discussed an initial set of 50 comments among the research team to establish a draft framework for our content analysis (Lauzen & Dozier 2005; Widnall et al. 2020). It was at this stage that we decided a five-point Likert scale would be appropriate for the sentiment ratings (*Sentiment*) and that a categorical measure of whether the feedback was constructive would be of use (*Constructivity*). A second sample of comments (evenly split, *n* = 200) was then coded in line with the draft framework. We added a third measurement intended to complement the sentiment and the constructivity measures: a frequency count of personal comments rather than comments focused on someone's teaching abilities (*Personal Comments*: e.g. instances where students stated their dislike of a certain accent or of a teacher's clothing). In this process, we also identified comments that were typical of each sentiment rating, which we collated into the coding guide shown in Table 2.

A second coder was given 25% of the test sample (*n* = 50) to code according to the framework outlined in Table 2, as well as according to the constructivity and personal categories.

Process

For summarising university evaluations, where results can be very consequential for teaching staff in particular, it is important to ensure that any analytic approach is sufficiently valid (Mertens 2019). Validity is the methodological concern of measurement accuracy (O'Leary-Kelly & Vokurka 1998). In our case, we were interested in whether the sentiment ratings applied by an NLP algorithm were as accurate (i.e. valid) as those determined by people. Based on our power analysis, our student scholar initially coded the sentiment of a sample containing one thousand pieces of student feedback, then re-coded 10% of the dataset a second time (*n* = 100) to attain intra-coder reliability. Other research team members also independently coded a random selection of 100 comments from the dataset (i.e. 10%) to check inter-coder reliability. For both types of reliability, we calculated the percentage agreement. In line with others' research, we considered an agreement of 80% or higher as acceptable to then use our content analysis as a benchmark (Lauzen & Dozier 2005).

We then generated 'Negative', 'Neutral', or 'Positive' codes for the same sample (*N* = 1000) using Google's out-of-the-box NLP sentiment analysis tool (Google 2023). Google's NLP is a pre-trained machine-learning model capable of sentiment analysis which we utilised without any additional training specific to our purposes (Wang 2019). In some contexts, researchers have produced promising results without extensive context-specific training (e.g. Uppaal, Hu & Li 2023), which, if accurate, can provide further time and resource efficiencies for analysts (Zang et al. 2023). We compared human coders' sentiment ratings to those of an untrained (i.e. without specific training) NLP, hoping that our procedure would be generalisable to other institutions. As others have done, we tested the NLP-derived sentiment ratings against the benchmark of ratings applied by human coders (e.g. Socher et al. 2013).

Table 1. Frequencies of qualitative feedback in the sampling population.

	A Trimester		B Trimester	
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Paper	4017	3675	8499	7858
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Sentiment Analysis of Course Evaluation Comments

Code	Example Comments for each Code	Explanation for each Code
1 = strongly disagree	'Poorly organised paper' 'It would have been nice to be taught rather than watching old YouTube videos'	The comment contains nothing positive and is focused purely on negative aspects.
2 = disagree	'This is a difficult paper to do online and I would recommend not running it as an online option, the teacher was enthusiastic and great on a whim' 'The lab workshops were helpful, however it is a lot to learn in one three hour session'	The comment focuses mainly on the negative but has a positive aspect to it.
3 = neutral / uncertain	'Offering workshops and practise [sic] tests' 'Online tools' 'Feedback, enthusiasm'	Comments that you cannot determine as being positive or negative without reference to which question (i.e. things that went well / improvements). If unsure on comment also code as a 3 to allow additional context.
4 = agree	'The teacher has a friendly approach to most students' 'The labs were good when I understood what was happening, but sometimes they felt rushed over'	The comment focuses mainly on the positive but it has an aspect which is negative. This could be a word similar to 'most', 'usually', 'sometimes' or it could be one negative sentence in an overall positive comment.
5 = strongly agree	'Lectures were very well structured, tutorials helped us to go over the content for the week' 'The lecturer was very helpful with responses to assignment questions, the specific assignment focused workshops were very helpful' 'Open communication line with content being explained clearly, described everything well and was enthusiastic about the paper' 'Overall great paper'	The comment is fully positive with no negative aspects. There is enough context in the comment to understand that it is wholly positive.

Table 2. Final version of the sentiment-coding framework.

Findings and Discussion

We found encouraging evidence for the application of NLP to accurately summarise qualitative evaluation feedback from students. For the paper feedback, three-point ratings attributed by coders were statistically related to the ratings generated by the NLP, X^2 (4) = 342.12, $p < .001$, $\Phi = .90$. In Figure 1, we show the relationship between the two sets of sentiment ratings. Most of the time, when our team coded feedback as positive, so too did the NLP (96.49%). To a slightly lesser extent, when we gave a negative sentiment rating, the NLP most often did as well (72.52%). Furthermore, our content analysis ratings were validated by two independent coders, who agreed with the primary coder's ratings of paper feedback in 92% and 84% of cases, respectively.

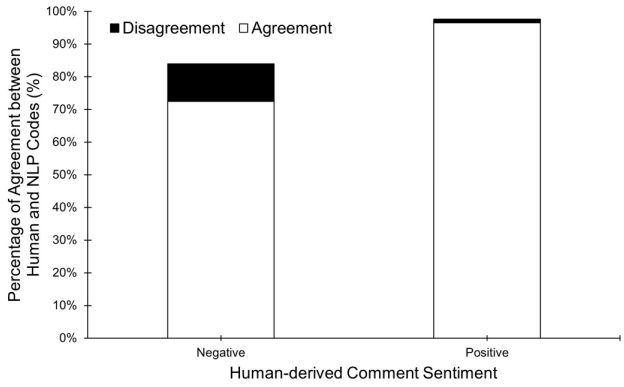

Figure 1. Percentage Agreement for Paper Feedback between Human- and NLP-ratings that Agreed (white) and Disagreed (black) as a function of Feedback Valence.
Note: the bars may not equal 100% as both the human and NLP categorised comments into three categories (negative, neutral, and positive) of which the neutral codes are not presented.

In the case of feedback about teaching staff, three-point sentiment raters from our coders were also significantly related to those of the NLP, X2 (4) = 226.62, p < .001, Φ = .68. We include Figure 2 to display the proportion of agreement when our human-coders considered the feedback to be negative (left: *Coder Agreement* = 60.44%) compared to positive in valence (right: *Coder Agreement* = 91.34%). We found sufficient inter-rater agreement between each of the independent coders and the ratings given by the primary coder (87% and 82% agreement). Overall, the Paper and the Teacher feedback ratings follow a similar trend; agreement between the human-given ratings and the NLP's is high, particularly when the feedback is positive.

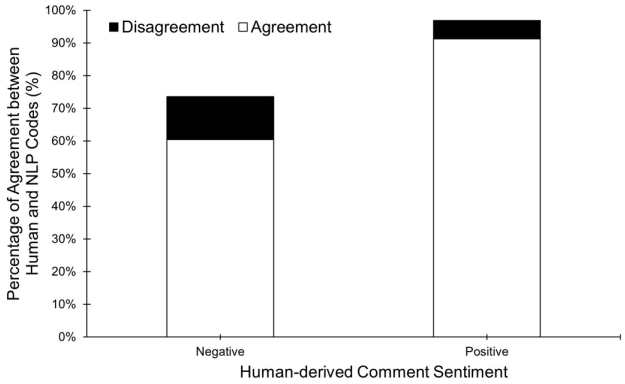

Figure 2. Percentage Agreement for Teacher Feedback between Human- and NLP-ratings that Agreed (white) and Disagreed (black) as a function of Feedback Valence.
Note: the bars may not equal 100% as both the human and NLP categorised comments into three categories (negative, neutral, and positive) of which the neutral codes are not presented.

To explore the relationship between the frequency with which the NLP gave positive ratings compared to the human coders, we conducted a 2-x-2 ANOVA. The complete model was statistically significant, F (3, 1926) = 15.36, $p < .001$. We found a main effect of comment type that feedback about teachers was more likely to be positive (M = 2.37, 95% CI [2.31, 2.42) than feedback about a paper (M = 2.17, 95% CI [2.12, 2.22]), F (1,1926) = 27.10, p < .001. We also found a small but significant main effect of the coder type, F (1, 1926) = 14.40, p < .001: specifically, the NLP-generated coding tended to be more positive (M = 2.34, 95% CI [2.29, 2.39]) than codes generated by the primary human coder (M = 2.20, 95% CI [2.15, 2.25]). There was no interaction effect between the subject of the feedback (i.e. paper vs. teachers) and the coder type (i.e. NLP vs. human), F (1, 1926) = 2.98, $p < .085$. Our analysis also showed that ratings from the NLP were more stable across subject type (M_{Diff} = .13) than the ratings applied by our team's primary coder (M_{Diff} = .26), although only marginally.

Evaluation responses in which students made personal comments were relatively few (*Paper Feedback* = 1.80%; *Teacher Feedback* = 6.41%). The content relating to specific teachers, where personal comments are more likely, amounts to one personal comment for approximately every 16 pieces of substantive critique. Further, not all the personal comments were negative. In fact, 34% of the personal comments were favourable, and another 3% were neutral in valence. Our general categorisation of whether comments were constructive was confounded by the incidence of neutral comments, where coders did not have enough contextual information to judge the sentiment. For the paper feedback, 99% of the comments that we categorised as unconstructive were also rated as neutral in sentiment. In the teacher feedback, 97% of unconstructive comments were neutrally

coded. It is likely that the neutral point on our sentiment scale is measuring a similar construct to the constructive category, and, therefore, the sentiment scale alone would suffice in a study replication.

As others have done, we found that much of the student feedback required a neutral rating due to an absence of information (Socher et al. 2013). For our study, we ensured that the human coders had the same limited amount of information as the NLP would, as we were primarily testing to what extent the NLP could generate meaningful data independent of human support. Although our concern was that the neutral rating would be overly prevalent in the NLP dataset, the neutral rating was more often applied by human coders for both the paper feedback (*NLP* = 20%; *Human* = 30%) and the teacher feedback (*NLP* = 16%; *Human* = 31%). As neither coding exercise included the questions to which students were responding, that the human coders categorised approximately 30% of feedback as 'neutral' was to be expected.

Given the potential impact of negative feedback on university teaching staff, particularly if the feedback is personal rather than constructive, a risk-averse approach to aggregating evaluations into a quasi-quantitative measure of sentiment is warranted (Graesser & McNamara 2012; Zaitseva, Tucker & Santhanam 2022). Often such a risk-averse approach is understood to mean one with significant active human oversight rather than an algorithmic approach (Khurana et al. 2023). In our research, however, we found that the use of NLP algorithms to summarise student feedback may, in fact, produce more favourable results. Further research regarding the precise circumstances in which an NLP tends toward more positive appraisals is needed, however, prior to any institutional-level use for communicating evaluation results. An avenue for such research is in applying the Summarize and Score (SASC) method to the analysis of university feedback. In general terms, the SASC method uses NLP to analyse the sentiment of texts and concurrently generate an explanation of the otherwise 'black box' process used to arrive at that sentiment rating (Singh et al. 2023). The greater level of transparency that the SASC method can provide would be beneficial for disseminating information from the evaluations to both staff and students, thereby helping to 'close the loop'.

In summary, our analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship between our team's sentiment coding and the NLP sentiment analysis. Consistently, when we identified a comment as positive, the NLP algorithm also classified it as positive. Notably, our findings indicated that, on average, the NLP tended to assign a higher proportion of positive codes compared to our human coders. These results constitute promising evidence for the future use of NLP to convey accurate top-level insights from large qualitative datasets more effectively. Specifically, these results support the use of NLP to revitalise our approach to evaluating the wealth of useful feedback provided by students.

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GAMIFICATION

PeaceMaker

Using an online educational game on Middle East politics as an 'Object To Think With' (OTTW) in a Masters-level Public Policy course

Teaching causality in complex adaptive systems to tertiary students poses dual challenges: presenting key concepts like tipping points, emergence, nonlinearity, path dependency, and feedback; and then guiding students to grasp the uncertainties these entail for policy and decision-making. While the pedagogical value of educational games is increasingly recognised, there is little consensus on underlying learning theories or game design principles. In particular, as traditional behaviourist approaches do not address the implications of complex systems, the author (teaching a Masters-level Public Policy course) used the Israeli/Palestinian politics game, *PeaceMaker*, in a more constructivist approach that understands games as 'objects-to-think-with' (OTTWs).

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Introduction

The importance of some awareness of complexity and systems thinking for the successful design and implementation of public policy is now widely recognised. At the same time, there is a growing acceptance in the academic literature that games and simulations are educationally valuable. This chapter discusses an attempt to bring these two areas together: the use of an educational game to teach complexity and systems theory to current and emerging public policy practitioners.

I taught a Masters-level Public Policy course on policy evaluation at an Australian university in 2017 and used the online game *PeaceMaker* (an interactive digital game from Israel designed to introduce the complexity of Israeli/Palestinian politics to high school students from both communities) in class to explore some of the challenges and implications of policy design and implementation within complex adaptive systems (such as dynamic public policy environments).

The structure of this chapter does require some patience from the reader, as it explores a number of conceptual areas before moving on to the case study. It first outlines the relevant pedagogical theories, and in particular a focus on games as 'objects-to-think-with' (OTTWs) (Holbert & Wilensky 2019), that underpin this example of educational gaming. It then presents a brief overview of complexity and systems thinking, before discussing the implications for public policy and the challenges of teaching these concepts to postgraduate students.

Finally, this paper presents the specific example of *PeaceMaker* as a case study in using educational games in this space and offers some general comments on this specific teaching and learning experience. It ends with a call for further exploration and evaluation of the pedagogical value of games as 'OTTW' for the teaching and learning of complexity and systems thinking.

The Pedagogy of Educational (or Serious) Games

There is perhaps a strengthening consensus (Al Mubarak 2023; Bechkoff 2019; Dörner et al. 2016; Arnab et al. 2015; Gentile, Groves & Gentile 2014; Black, Huang & Khan 2014) around the pedagogical value of educational games, or serious games (Dörner et al. 2016), sometimes characterised as the 'gamification' of education (Bechkoff 2019; Arnab et al. 2015) or Game Based Learning (GBL) (Linderoth & Sjöblom 2019). While the research into gaming pedagogy is extensive and growing, this chapter will not be addressing this broader literature in any detail. Instead, it is focused on three important aspects relating to this specific example of educational gaming.

A constructivist approach to gaming pedagogy

A 'behaviourist' approach to educational gaming (building competency through repetition) is extremely common. This approach, relying on repetitive drills, and punishments or rewards to motivate learners (Mystakidis et al. 2022; Holbert & Wilensky 2019; Gentile, Groves & Gentile 2014) can be valuable when teaching/learning relatively simple concepts or procedures (where there is a right way to achieve success in the game, and thus demonstrate task competency or understanding of the target concepts) (Mystakidis et al. 2022; Biesta 2010). There are clear similarities to a competency-based approach to education in general: 'learn how to do this process or demonstrate this skill'.

However, this pedagogical approach may be less effective in teaching more complex theories and concepts; or in cases where a deeper exploration of concepts is required; or where there is not a clear process or system which the learner must learn. It is also less effective when dealing with the nonlinearity and emergence found in complex systems (as described below).

Constructivism in the educational context is an ill-defined and increasingly contested term (Biesta 2010), but from a student perspective (as opposed to a broader social perspective) it can be described as the way in which knowledge is actively constructed by the student. Learning happens by integrating prior knowledge and new information through experimentation and social interaction, rather than by knowledge being absorbed uncritically from a teacher or other authority. There is evidence that well-designed constructivist games can 'provid[e] rich, perceptually grounded experience with the content to be learned' (Black, Huang & Khan 2014: 299; Magee, Richardson & Pepperell 2016).

However, while experimentation implies iterative engagement with a game (playing it more than once), a constructivist model of learning 'is incommensurate with drill and practice' (Holbert & Wilensky 2019: 33). To drill means to repeat until competency is achieved, while experimentation implies changing elements or actions to explore different outcomes.

Games as 'Objects To Think With' (OTTW)

One example of a constructivist educational gaming pedagogy is the concept of games as 'Objects To Think With' (OTTW): as tools to allow players to explore theoretical concepts and experiment with 'personally interesting questions around domain-relevant representations' (Holbert & Wilensky 2019: 32). An OTTW (such as a game) is a 'cognitive tool that thinkers can observe, manipulate, or probe, and in doing so test and explore complex phenomena or ideas with which they are unfamiliar' (Holbert & Wilensky 2019: 36). The assumption here is that such games are to be replayed repeatedly, but not to build competency through practice. Instead, the goal is experimentation.

This concept of games as an OTTW appears to have been explored primarily in the physical and computing sciences, with the development of *Logo* and the *Logo Turtle* being famous examples (Papert 1980) of this emerging constructivist pedagogy within educational gaming. However, there have been examples from within the social sciences, including the use of the simulation software *Fierce Planet* as an OTTW to explore various theories of sustainability in an undergraduate sustainability course (Magee, Richardson & Pepperell 2016; Richardson, Magee & Pepperell 2015). *Fierce Planet* is a simulation program which allows students to adjust various simulation settings (such as energy consumption and population growth) to explore classic sustainability theories such as Malthusian population collapses ('Limits to Growth') or scenarios of endless growth. As a classic DMG, students replay these scenarios numerous times, changing settings to see if they can achieve the various outcomes predicted by the theories. The various scenarios thus become OTTWs for exploring the implications of the various theories.

Decision Making Games (DMGs)

Finally, *PeaceMaker* is a Decision Making Game (DMG) (Gonzalez & Czlonka 2010) in which the impact of player decisions, whether intended or otherwise, can be modelled within the game itself, leading to a range of possible outcomes which diverge further as more iterations are undertaken by the player(s). The lineage of such games can be traced back to the immensely popular *Choose Your Own Adventure* books first popularised in the 1970s and 1980s, in which decisions taken lead the player through a branching 'decision tree' of possible outcomes (Cook 2021; Bechkoff 2019). This model of game is unlike more linear genres such as the platformer (the classic *Mario* or *Sonic* games) or the traditional narrative/quest game (*The Last of Us* or the single-player campaigns in *Battlefield* or *Call of Duty*), in which the goal (the victory) is set and the player must overcome obstacles and enemies in a broadly linear fashion to reach this endpoint. Instead, choice in a DMG player is integral to both the experience and the eventual outcomes of the game, but only up to a point. Player choice does determine how the game will unfold, but these are still choices provided to the player by the game designer(s) in the service of reaching an overall ending which incorporates set victory conditions (again, *Choose Your Own Adventure* books demonstrate this perfectly). Therefore, DMGs are still more linear in nature than 'open world' or 'sandbox' games (*Minecraft* or *Grand Theft Auto*), where there are no stated victory conditions (there is no way 'to win') and players can engage in any actions, and for any motivations, that they choose.

A final important point to note about DMGs is that they are not designed to be played once; instead, it is assumed that the player will replay the game (or reread the *Choose Your Own Adventure* book) while making different choices, based upon previous experience, in the hope of achieving a better outcome. This iterative aspect of DMGs clearly echoes the assumptions that underpin the OTTW pedagogy, and we will return to this iterative nature when discussing Dynamic Decision Making (DDM) in the context of public policy design and implementation below.

Complexity and Systems Thinking

Complexity, or systems thinking, is best thought of as a general approach to thinking about natural, social, or technological systems, rather than a unified and unitary theory:

> *It is important to reiterate that what is usually referred to as complexity science is actually a collection of ideas, principles and influences from a number of other bodies of knowledge, including chaos theory, cybernetics and complex adaptive systems (a term coined by researchers at the Santa Fe Institute) in the natural sciences, postmodernism in the social sciences, and systems thinking, which is found across all sciences.*
> *(Ramalingam et al. 2008: 4-5)*

Complexity is a way of understanding our world and seeking approaches to the 'wicked problems' (Rittel & Webber 1973) we face. Clear examples of such wicked problems include climate change and disaster resilience, or public policy issues such as homelessness, drug addiction or crime; in all these cases any solutions which are based upon the assumption of a simple or straightforward cause and effect relationship are unhelpful. Instead, such problems require the ability to grasp the 'messy' interrelationships between the range of interconnected causes and effects which comprise such complex systems.

However, when discussing such complex adaptive systems (CAS) it is important to be clear about what they actually are. The definition of Corning (1998) is still valuable:

> *… complexity often (not always) implies the following attributes: (1) a complex phenomenon consists of many parts (or items, or units, or individuals); (2) there are many relationships/interactions among the parts; and (3) the parts produce combined effects (synergies) that are not easily predicted and may often be novel, unexpected, even surprising.*
> *(199)*

While the quantitative aspect of this definition (a high level of component/subsystem differentiation and interconnection) is important, it is the qualitative aspect of such systems (their emergent character) that sets the complex apart from the 'merely' complicated. Emergent (i.e. complex) systems are unpredictable: future system states are not predictable from current conditions. Causality in a complex system cannot be reduced to a simple A+B=C relationship.

This emergent character has in turn been 'broken down' into a number of system characteristics through which such emergence occurs or is mediated. These include (but are not limited to) tipping points, feedback loops, path dependency,

nonlinearity (of causality), and the concept of the system 'phase space' (Lehtimäki, Uusikylä & Smedlund 2020; Patton 2011; Ramalingam et al. 2008). While there is not the space in this chapter to explore each of these characteristics in any detail, it is important to note that the most relevant implication of system complexity in the design and implementation of policy is the overall uncertainty that the policy professional faces:

> *With respect to policymaking, uncertainty refers to the gap between available knowledge and the knowledge policymakers would need in order to make the best policy choice … policy failures often follow from a failure to take uncertainties into account in making policy, and suggest that taking into account uncertainty can be essential for successful long-term policymaking. It is clear that uncertainty is at the heart of the very nature of long-term policymaking …*
> *(Walker, Marchau & Swanson 2010: 917)*

The question posed to policy practitioners by an awareness of complex systems is this: how is effective policy planning and implementation possible in the face of the radical uncertainty that complexity implies?

Implications For Public Policy

There is an increasing awareness of complex systems within the professional public policy field (Ramalingam et al. 2008; OECD 2017; IPAA 2023), and within the theoretical literature (Geyer & Rehani 2012; Ball 2012; Geyer & Cairney 2015; Eppel & Rhodes 2018; Calenbuhr 2020; Lehtimäki, Uusikylä & Smedlund 2020) around this space.

As this awareness of complexity has grown, there have been a number of attempts to develop heuristic models to help policy practitioners navigate the uncertainty and nonlinearity which characterises many policy issues and wicked problems. These include the Stacey Matrix (Stacey 1993) and the Cynefin Framework (Snowden & Boone 2007) which can be characterised as analytical tools designed to help policy analysts and practitioners categorise policy problems or situations and thus identify appropriate forms of decision-making and organisational control.

However, it is important to note that such heuristic models are not objective reality (Calenbuhr 2020), nor can they provide clear answers to such uncertainty. The designer of the Stacey Matrix eventually disavowed its use, arguing that it was overly reductive in its conception of organisational knowledge—there is no one solution to wicked problems waiting to be discovered. Instead, all approaches must be contingent and organic, rising from the relations and interactions of numerous stakeholders (Stacey, Griffin & Shaw 2000).

Thus, an important insight from the field of Dynamic Decision Making (DDM), which studies how individuals make decisions in conditions of radical uncertainty, is that decision makers will often base their decisions on what has been learned from experience (Gonzalez & Czlonka 2010; Gonzalez, Saner & Eisenberg 2012). Nonetheless, no previous decision and resultant consequences will ever exactly match a current dilemma. Thus, decisions become a process of trial and error, in which failures become new experiences and further influence the next iteration of the decision-making process.

The similarities with Decision Making Games

The connections between the iterative nature of both this DDM process, and the playing of DMGs, should be noted here. It is a central contention of this chapter that the iterative nature of DMGs leads players to replay the game (retaking decisions at crucial points in game in an attempt to reach a better outcome) in a way which directly correlates to the decision-making process faced by policy makers in situations of complexity and uncertainty.

The Case Study: Teaching Complexity and Systems Thinking to Postgraduate Policy Students

As I delivered the first iteration of a newly designed course on public policy evaluation (described in detail below) it became clear that while students were engaged with the theoretical material around complexity and systems, they were finding it difficult to see what this content meant 'in the real world'. One student's feedback (early in the 12-week course) was particularly thought-provoking: 'Ok, this is all very interesting … but what does it mean for me in my department, trying to make and implement policy? What am I meant to actually do?'

There was no simple or direct answer to that question. It seems my course, up to that point, had been doing a good job of introducing complexity as a concept, and what the implications were for policy making. But the responses it had offered to that complexity were largely seen by students to be 'just use trial and error'. While this is largely correct (!) it was not very satisfying; I realised that some sort of demonstration or 'hands on' example would be very valuable. A game or simulation seemed the obvious answer.

Modelling DDM though an OTTW

The very nature of DDM (trial and error) as a policy approach implies that there is not any one successful approach to any particular task or situation, which can be practised repetitively until success (or competence) is achieved. This means that the behaviourist model of 'learning through repetition' does not apply here—instead the iterative OTTW approach is more useful, given that these systems are unpredictable and emergent.

Describing PeaceMaker

PeaceMaker is a conflict-resolution game, exhibiting many aspects of DDM, and has already been used both as an educational tool and as the subject of academic research (Gonzalez & Czlonka 2010; Gonzalez, Kampf & Martin 2012; Gonzalez, Saner & Eisenberg 2012). This single-player digital game was developed by ImpactGames (Impact Games, 2008) and was originally designed to be played by students in Israeli and Palestinian high schools. The stated purpose was to promote cross-community understanding in the service of an eventual two-state solution to this intractable conflict. The player chooses either the role of the Palestinian President or the Israeli Prime Minister and must attempt to choose policies which advance the eventual goal of a stable political peace.

The game continually poses unpredictable challenges to the player, which occur randomly (every playthrough of the game will be different). These challenges simulate external events such as bombings and other attacks by different factions, international developments, police and military actions, and the resultant changes in public opinion. Often policy choices will backfire, having unintended consequences due to the influence of random events which are outside the player's control.

The overall political situation facing the player is clearly emergent, responding both to player actions and unpredictable events, and players must continually adjust their actions and policy settings to attempt to 'steer' this complex political situation towards the winning condition (a two-party solution). In that sense *PeaceMaker* is also clearly an example of a Decision Making Game (DMG), with all the characteristics described earlier: there is a clear endpoint with defined victory conditions, yet the myriad of player choices available mean that a) there is no one policy trajectory leading to the successful outcome and b) players are invited to replay the game to 'try again' with different choices.

The controversial content of the game

Overall, for the stated pedagogical purpose of this class, the context and content of the game were not considered to be as important as the emergent nature of the gameplay (the nonlinear causality in terms of the policy decisions made by players). In fact, I would have preferred to use a similar style of game (presenting policy decision making and implementation in a policy environment of emergent complexity) with a less controversial setting—but this was not available.

The potential of the game content (the conflict between Palestinians and Israelis) to be politically controversial was of great concern. This conflict is politically charged in Melbourne, given the multicultural nature of the city and the likelihood of students in the class having strong political stances on, or unforeseen personal, family or social connections to, this issue. There was clearly potential for in-class conflict and/or personal distress.

With these concerns in mind, two weeks before the class in question I introduced the proposed upcoming activity to the students. This introduction both explained the pedagogical justifications and acknowledged the controversial nature of the game and its content. I made it clear that any concerns could be raised individually and anonymously after class through a message to myself within the course LMS (*Canvas*), and that if there were any clear objections to this being included in the course it would not occur. Alternatively, any students who did not wish to participate in this class could be excused (and as this was not an assessed task there would be no implications for their final mark). In the end, there were no reservations expressed by any student and I felt free to use the game as planned.

How PeaceMaker was used

As part of an MA in Public Policy, the Public Policy course I taught was designed to allow students to participate in evaluations that explore the short, medium and longer-term outcomes of a given policy initiative. But beyond this, the course was not specifically skills-focused, and instead provided a conceptual framework for making sense of the theory and practice of policy impact evaluation as well as exploring the politics of outcomes/impact measurement. The course, at conception, was designed to include a strong complexity focus, as an awareness of these concepts was seen as important for graduates of this program.

Therefore, this course was based largely upon a Developmental Evaluation (Patton 1994; Fagen 2011) approach, as exemplified by the main textbook used: Developmental Evaluation: Applying Complexity Concepts to Enhance Innovation and Use (Patton 2011). This framework 'is an approach to evaluation especially appropriate for situations of high uncertainty … Developmental evaluation tracks and attempts to make sense of what emerges under conditions of complexity …' (Patton 2011: 7).

This was a face-to-face (F2F) course comprising live two-hour seminars (incorporating approximately 45 minutes of lecture materials delivery, followed by group and whole class activities, and finally assessment work). The LMS used by the institution at this point was *Canvas*, although given the F2F format this was primarily used for delivery of set course readings, the hosting of seminar slides, and class–teacher communication.

The place of the game within the course

I used this online game in class in week six of the 12-week course. The inclusion of *PeaceMaker* was predicated on its educational value as an OTTW for the students. That is, the assumption made was that there was pedagogical value in using this game to encourage students to explore some of the challenges and implications of policy design and implementation within complex adaptive systems (such as dynamic public policy environments).

Outline of the PeaceMaker lesson

Students were briefly introduced to the mechanics of the game before being placed in pairs and assigned either the Palestinian or Israeli side. They were then allowed to start playing and were invited to a) discuss their policy options before they chose a policy action for each turn and b) record on a worksheet both the decisions taken for each turn and the outcome (both the immediate results of the chosen policy choice and their ongoing overall game score). They were also allowed to restart their game after at least six turns or start another game if they concluded their first one. They completed the questionnaire again for a second game. The questions were:

After moves 1 to 3:

- What were your first three moves (i.e. what did you do)?
- What was the point of your first three moves (i.e. what were you attempting to do)?
- Did your actions have the intended outcome? Why/why not? Or is it too early to tell?
- How did you evaluate the success or otherwise of your first three moves?
- Were there any unexpected outcomes (i.e. side effects)? If yes, what were they?
- What will you do differently (if anything) in your next three moves? Why?
- What do you predict will happen over the next three moves (what will be the probable outcome of your actions?)

After moves 4 to 6:

- What did you do in these three moves, and why?
- Was it hard to agree on these three moves? Why/why not?
- Did your overall strategy change in these three moves (did you change tack from your original approach)? Why/why not?
- Did your actions have the intended outcome? Why/why not? Or is it too early to tell?
- Were there any unexpected outcomes (i.e. side effects)? If yes, what were they?
- What is the situation at the end of move six (are you winning?) Why/why not?

At the end of the game:

- How successful were you at the point at which the game ended (or you stopped it)?
- What was the biggest problem or challenge that you faced throughout the game?
- How did you attempt to address this? Were you successful? Why/why not?
- Could you identify any aspects of complexity while playing this game? What were they?
- Does public policy design and implementation work like this in your professional field? Why/why not?
- Imagine you were actually in this role (making policy). What would have happened to you (personally and professionally) if this had been reality?

At the end of the class (about 90 minutes of game time) I led a class discussion where the pairs reported their answers to the worksheet questions. They also answered some final questions about the experience and how effective they thought it had been pedagogically.

Discussion

This was an 'on the go' adaptation of a course already underway; a teaching experiment in the pedagogical value of using an online game to promote deeper engagement with complexity concepts within the public policy field. As part of the classroom activity, I collected the worksheets completed by the various pairs and some general comments can be made.

Informal feedback from students indicated that they found the experience of playing (and replaying) the game, and of reflecting on the experience, valuable. Removed as it was from the pressure of real-world policy decisions, the experience of playing this DMG allowed participants to respond to earlier policy failures and propose and test new approaches in a way which clearly reflected the nature of the DDM policy making process. Some students could see more clearly what an iterative DDM process might look like in practice.

However, it was less clear to what extent *PeaceMaker* represented an effective OTTW for the students, as the content (the Israeli/Palestinian conflict and peace process) was far removed from their professional experience. A DMG dealing with more traditional public policy scenarios (such as homelessness, domestic violence or public transport provision) would have been more valuable. There is clearly an opportunity for such a scenario-based DMG to be developed in which the relevance of the scenario (that is, a common public policy scenario with a range of competing stakeholders) would only increase the likelihood of such a game being a valuable OTTW for students.

Some final specific points:

- Playing the game twice (and in one case three times) was crucial for students. Reflecting the character of DMGs and DDM, students reported that this offered them the chance to experiment with different policy approaches and choices.
- One student reflected on a possible real-world implication of iterative experimentation around policy design and implementation—failure is often neither politically or professionally acceptable. Where does that leave the DDM approach to policy making? This led to a provocative yet useful classroom discussion.

Conclusion

This attempt to use an online DMG as an 'Object To Think With' was undertaken 'on the go', in the face of student feedback regarding a course that was already underway. Informal positive feedback by the student participants was broadly positive regarding the pedagogical value of the activity, and I likewise found this a useful activity, given the quality of the discussion around complexity and public policy that it provoked. This chapter therefore closes with a call for further exploration of the pedagogical value of games as 'Objects To Think With', and for further empirical research into their effectiveness in teaching complexity and systems thinking.

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GAMIFICATION

Revitalising of History through Historical Games in the Digital Era

An opening provocation into teaching history through multimodality

This chapter advances multimodality in expanding historical game education research and application of historical video games for the teaching of history within secondary schools and tertiary institutions. A multimodal focus on historical representations encased in historical gameplay sequences and game developer integrations of digital and non-digital historical research methods and sources informing game design in development of a game's historical world comprise some of the innovative areas within this contribution in exploring the possibilities of history teachers using historical games as critical sources for their students learning of both history and historical gaming.

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Introduction

Public engagement with integrations of printed, visual, and digital media texts represents a major transition toward the assemblage of meanings or ideas, knowledge, and learning via multimodal forms of communication and interaction. Historical video games, as a recent multimodal form of representing the past, constitute a distinct genre of digital games that are 'set in and provide experiences of history and/or engage in discourses and meanings about the past' (Redder 2023: 5) and are gaining acceptance within the wider discipline of history. The establishment of 'Historical Game Studies' as an emergent interdisciplinary field dedicated to how historical games 'represent the past or relate to discourses about it, the potential applications of such games to different domains of activity and knowledge' (Chapman, Foka & Westin 2016: 1) has contributed a wide range of works. These areas of study include women and gender history within historical gaming, the ludic aesthetics of the historical game form (via affordances from a game's procedural rule-based system), and historical accuracy versus authenticity within video game representation. Increasing proliferation and reception of historical games in popular culture, global entertainment markets, and academic studies does not infer a displacement or erasure of older forms of communication (such as the literary or printed mode), but instead recognises that 'communication in all forms (including video games) is rarely limited to a single communicative mode' (Redder 2023: 106-107). Thus, in preparing young future historians for versatile proficiency in a wide array of digital and non-digital sources, experiential immersion and exploration achieved by contemporary historical video games possess significant worth for scholarly learning of the past.

Despite growing interest and contributions to research and discourse on historical games, the lack of a widespread extension of education systems and pedagogical practices that implement historical video games for history teaching curricula across schools and universities remains an ongoing problem. Undoubtedly, multiple individual cases of teachers and historians (e.g. Wainwright 2014; Lawler & Smith 2021; Seed 2017; McCall 2011; Clulow 2021) have shown the long-term benefits of incorporating historical video games effectively into history lessons and teaching curricula. However, within mainstream history education, many historians and history teachers, primarily trained to study and discuss history through the written form, continue to be 'slow to embrace technology as a means of bridging the gap between traditional history methods with the digital humanities' (Lawler & Smith 2021: 2). Consequently, many lack practical experience and conceptual expertise to engage with the multimodal interactions between contemporary historical texts (Donnelly: 2018).[1] Concurrently, investigative research into historical games' capacity to exhibit or produce and teach the kinds of scholarship present in conventional academic history, alongside literary modes of history teaching and scholarship, in a classroom setting has been inhibited by the longstanding consensus within the wider history discipline. Video game historian Esther Wright outlines this belief eloquently 'despite … those keen to take games seriously, many [historians and scholars] have still never relinquished the assumption that written academic history is the standard by which all [histories] should be judged in perpetuity' (Wright 2022: 169). Donnelly's research (2018) also aligns to this statement from her interviews with practising history teachers (both in government and non-government sectors) within Australia. She not only found that most of the interviewees used 'the narrative and/or information provided by the historical representation, rather than analyse the text as a primary or secondary source', but also documented their responses in the form of bewildered surprise to 'applying source analysis techniques to contemporary historical representations. Clearly in their minds historical sources were written texts, not multimodal experiences' (Donnelly 2018: 119).

As an opening provocation in response to these sentiments, this chapter explores new possibilities for historical game use in secondary school and tertiary education, on the premise that historical games 'can engage in and contribute a wide range of academic scholarship on its own merits and standards' (Redder 2023: 79) due to their multimodal compositions of representation. These multimodal compositions include how historical games assemble different typologies of historical knowledge that engage users/learners in new ways and provide students (in the role of players) 'agency and freedom to explore historical spaces, places, inhabitants, artefacts, experience rituals and practices, and hear sounds and languages' (Redder & Schott 2022: 4). This discussion then addresses the possibilities of using historical games as critical sources for teaching history within secondary school and university classrooms through a multimodal lens, illustrated by an overview of some of the multimodal compositions or engagements within certain recent historical game endeavours, as an ideal starting base for student interactivity with multimodal histories. Before we address the value of multimodal approaches to developing history curriculum usages of historical video games, an introduction to historical game education and some of its major developments is covered.

1 Donnelly uses the term 'Contemporary historical representations' in her paper to account for the various types of representations created in recent times, such as historical fiction novels and graphic novels, museums, films, and video games.

Historical Game Education

Within historical game studies, and more broadly within digital game studies, a growing body of work studies the use and limitations of history games in both secondary (e.g. McCall 2011, 2020; Schrier 2014; Kee 2014) and higher education (e.g. Metzger & Paxton 2016; Kee 2014; Wainwright 2014; Houghton 2018; Holter, Schäfer & Schwesinger 2020). Foci for this study include the tension between the creative liberties applied during the game design process and standards for maintaining historical accuracy or sensitivity to evidence when configuring lessons and learning goals via historical games (Kee & Bachynski 2009; Metzger & Paxton 2016). Another prominent area of research addresses what students are expected to learn about history when interacting with and examining historical gaming experiences. A notable example is teachers emphasising historical games' capacity to develop student inquiry skills, bias identification, and perspective-taking, or as a vehicle for memorising historical facts (e.g. events and dates, historical figures, and military clothing and equipment) (Schrier 2014).

Video game historian and schoolteacher Jeremiah McCall's *Gaming the Past: Using Video Games to Teach Secondary History* is distinct not only for its extensive discussion on the types of learning that historical games can facilitate, but also includes sample units, lesson plans, templates and instructional strategies for teachers, alongside suggestions on how to identify and avoid common pitfalls (e.g. game blog journal, diagramming game systems, and writing narratives of simulation play sessions) (McCall 2011: 60–133). McCall (2011) recognises how historical games are capable of facilitating multiple, open, or alternative interpretations of the past. That is, choices presented to players (and re-playability) provide the freedom to navigate different pathways through a game world or make decisions which hold different consequences and outcomes. Games potentially offer multiple perspectives on the same scenario as opposed to a single narrative that can only be followed in a linear mode. As McCall recognises, games are interpretations subject to their own strengths and weaknesses, creating a form of history rather than relaying a fixed historical record (McCall 2011).

The aforementioned works comprise a body of influential research that foreground and develop effective strategies and applications for incorporating video games within feasible history curricula and student learning outcomes. However, this current body of research into historical game teaching and learning usually treats or approaches the use of historical games as tools for acquiring and producing conventional historical scholarship, rather than encouraging extensive analysis of a text's historical representation(s) and insights through an interactive engagement. In accordance with this approach, certain types of historical games (e.g. historical turn-based and/or real-time strategy games) as simulations in a procedural rule-based system are favoured: that is, explanatory simulation models of 'history as a process', which are usually representative of global-based histories of the past (such as global politics, empire-building, and overseas maritime trade). Chiefly 'experimentation with simulating historical concepts and theories such as lessons on historical contingency, causality, teleology, and epistemology practices' (Redder 2023: 41).[2]

This predisposition toward a formalist approach to historical game pedagogy (i.e. gamic simulations of conceptual historical processes and epistemology) overlooks potential opportunities, including the Role-playing video games (RPG) genre and those in fantasy or imaginative contexts, that can assist pedagogical teaching and learning in two ways. One is addressing and using other kinds of historical game texts to teach and develop immersive student learning in knowledge acquisition, research, and critique of specialised historical periods, subjects, and/or imaginative and fantasized history contexts. The other is to concurrently offer students immersion in and accumulation of new or expanded historical knowledge about a period of history that has received limited research coverage (e.g. *Kingdom Come: Deliverance* (2018), and *Total War: Three Kingdoms—Eight Princes* (2019)). In addressing these underdeveloped areas in historical game education, this chapter contends that multimodal practices in the pedagogical teaching of history centre historical games not as merely tools or rule-based systems, but as *fully-fledged and critical works of history*.

Multimodality

Multimodality (Kress & Van Leeuwen 2001, 2006) is the 'composition and simultaneously the application of multiple interconnected literacies and modes of communication and experience to make meaning' (Redder 2023: 103). Different modes of semiotic communication (e.g. written, visual, aural, and verbal forms) as ensembles within a text produce assemblages of both meanings and meaning-making processes or functions in experiencing and understanding a text's representation as a whole. Multimodal discourse then is highly useful to 'analyze how complex meanings are created in the articulation of both modal resources—or modes—and

2 *Historical simulation games are defined as occupying the middle between 'simulation' and 'game' and are viewed by scholars like McCall as ideal for game-based historical learning opportunities, as opposed to other historical games which are historical but not simulation (McCall 2016). As McCall unpacks this term, clearly 'historical simulation games … deal with the ambiguous boundaries between rule-based playable systems that model the past accurately—simulations—and those that do not—games. Historical simulation games, then, occupy that middle ground as games—dynamic, rule-based and quantifiable conflicts—that provide playable models of an historical event, system, or process' (McCall 2016: 523).*

media' (Canale 2019: 42).[3] Utilised in a wide range of fields, multimodal theory and discourse is notably gaining traction in digital game studies (e.g. Tavinor 2008, 2009; Hawreliak 2019; Burn 2017; Burn & Parker 2003; Burn & Schott 2004; Quijano 2019) by developing research that affords a more holistic approach to the 'exploration and analysis of video games as a multimodal form of communicative representation' (Redder & Schott 2022: 5). These frameworks consider video games as a medium not only in all its procedural and representational facets, but also in the intersections of meaning-making that emerge between these facets in both the game itself and its pre-release game production stage.

Despite video games being well suited to multimodal analysis as they 'rely upon the communicative resources of a wide array of modes … [and allow] a useful way … [of understanding] how players actually experience and negotiate meaning within a game' (Hawreliak 2019: 6), multimodal research and conceptual frameworks are limited in historical game studies. Nonetheless, research into the efficacy of multimodality in enriching pedagogical teaching and/or learning curricula through video games (combined with or supported by other digital and non-digital sources and methodologies) has been extensively developed in the last two decades. In works like Timms (2017) and Moore and Shute (2017), references to or applications of video games and/or game software for improving learning outcomes and interactive assessment activity have been developed with varying measures of success. Works like Jewitt (2006) have explored case examples of students designing games through accessible software to proactively encourage problem-solving and decision-making in a visceral format. Concurrently, von Gillern and Stufft (2022) developed lesson activities for adolescent students entailing analysis of gameplay experiences from popular commercial games to enhance student development of both digital literacy and digital remediations of other literacies (written, verbal, visual, etc.) commonly employed within games as multimodal symbols. Additionally, researchers have developed their own multimodal learning guides, programmes, and curricula with case examples for teachers to develop student learning with multimodal texts and strategies. Lee and Khadka (2018), Canale (2019), and Lim's (2021) works are integral examples of this endeavour in compositional classroom learning.

In line with this extensive range of research, multimodal conceptual frameworks and activities can open new pathways into how we conduct research into historical game study, including the nature of representation through historical gaming. In historical game education, a multimodal approach invites a plethora of different pedagogical capabilities (including those opportunities mentioned earlier) grounded on engagement with historical games as multi-communicative histories eliciting scholarship in a gameplay form.[4] These pedagogical capabilities include student learning, knowledge acquisition, and analytical critique of histories or historical periods re-constructed as and via 'research-infused game experience[s]' (Redder & Schott 2022: 3) within a typology of historical games that 'translate research scholarship … found in both academic history and fantastical or folkloric accounts of history' (Redder & Schott 2022: 3). Multimodal learning can also foster students' competency and expertise in researching and interpreting history by teaching them to integrate and cross-examine an array of literary, visual, and digital historical sources and research methods. Finally, it provides students with viable spaces to develop a more in-depth analysis of the particularities of historical research, game design processes, and sources of the evidence used by game developers in constructing their games' respective history.

These three learning outcomes inform two particular engagements within emergent areas of historical game study that have potential value for supporting future secondary school and tertiary history curriculum programmes and classroom teaching. The multimodal historical engagements discussed in this chapter are (1) recording, interpretive analysis, and dissemination of historical scholarship of historical gameplay experiences as multimodal sources of history; and (2) historical research informing game design. The following sections explore these engagements and highlight the focus of scholars using a wider repertoire of both commercial and university-led historical game releases for teaching their respective histories through their multimodal scholarship and research processes.

Possible Avenues for Teaching History through Multimodal Learning

Gameplay history for historical research and analysis

Gameplay constitutes the multimodality of an historical game text. It does so by encompassing the 'entirety of the game experience itself, including in simultaneity the impact of its ludic and procedural elements … as well as the visual, performative, narrative, verbal, aural, and many other communicative modes and styles' (Redder & Schott 2022: 6). Historical gameplay, then, is the medium of historical games consisting of different modes of historical representation, with each one containing its own communicative style, content, and meaning-making processes, and historical literacies or knowledge expressions. Subsequently, experiencing a game's respective history through a particular mode of gameplay representation constitutes a range of multimodal experiential

3 The word 'mode' is a particular material and/or semiotic resource used to organise and signal or communicate meaning(s) (be it simple or complex) within a medium, entailing either a range of generalisations (e.g. imagery, writing, speech, performance) or in signs, units, and acts (e.g. word, gesture, sound, image).

4 By multi-communicative, I mean the different communicative languages or acts in all their multiple modalities of semiotic expression, content, and meaning-making processes.

histories or more formally 'gameplay histories'. Moreover, recording, editing, and documenting video game footage of one's gameplay activity via a game capture device (e.g. Elgato) is the main source of data for obtaining, analysing, and disseminating scholarship from gameplay experiences.

While it is usually an outlet that content creators use to share their favourite pastime to online audiences, recording and using gameplay footage as data evidence, content presentation or storytelling, and/or critical text study is already gaining traction in both research (e.g. Marczak et al. 2012; Wallner & Kriglstein 2015; Redder 2023) and education applications (e.g. Gillern & Stufft 2022; Redder & Schott 2022). In particular, the developing multimodal conceptual framework 'Historical Modality' developed in Redder (2023) provides a potential opening platform for both secondary schools and tertiary institutions to incorporate multimodal gameplay into history teaching. In gameplay study, the historical modality system identifies and articulates an assemblage of different modalities of history represented or experienced through gameplay. To elaborate, it examines different types of multimodal systems or ensembles of historical gameplay representation that engage in and construct or contain different styles of communication and experience, content and its meaning-making process, and literacies of history. Hence, 'historical modality' or 'modality' signal these particular modes of gameplay representation, with three major historical modalities currently identified as 'lore history', 'imaginative history', and 'alternate history' (Redder 2023).

In my doctoral research, I applied historical modality to examine the recorded gameplay sequences of two Medieval historical game case studies and their dissemination of Medieval scholarship via its principal historical modality. Namely, *Kingdom Come: Deliverance* (KCD) by Warhorse Studios (Prague, Czech Republic) engaging in lore history, and *A Plague Tale: Innocence* (APTI) by Asobo Studio (Bordeaux, France) engaging in imaginative history via the historical fantasy style. However, the key engagements and highlights within this research application of the historical modality system contain potential avenues that, if applied in a history classroom or university lecture, can fulfil the learning opportunities outlined earlier in this chapter.

To provide some examples of these highlights from a gameplay research context, the KCD case study set in early fifteenth century Bohemia (modern-day Czech Republic) is used as a referential illustration. KCD adopts lore history as its primary modality, which involves 'discovery, dissemination, and experience of historical knowledge, research, and insights in relation to the game's chosen history' (Redder 2023: 249). Subsequently, KCD's provision of experiential lore histories as multimodal historical sources exhibiting gameplay variations of academic scholarship can configure or support lessons and student activities centred on content presentation, source analysis, and assessments. KCD can support these kinds of lessons because its gameplay representations combine an extensive array of relevant historical sources (e.g. chronicles, fieldwork at surviving Medieval sites, Medieval combat fencing treatises and books) to represent a detailed yet minimally-documented regional history of the Rattay-Sasau (Czech: Rataje nad Sázavou) region impacted by an internal civil war (1402–1403) between two brothers and rulers, King Sigismund of Hungary and King Wenceslas of Bohemia. This re-construction, informing KCD's design of its historical game world, created a provision of new and extended interpretations of existing historical knowledge on this civil war's impact on the Rattay-Sasau region and more broadly the various phenomena and minutiae existing in Medieval Bohemia before and after the civil war. This provision of scholarly gameplay knowledge in the form of lore histories includes: the re-construction of the Siege of Silver Skalitz (1403) and its immediate socio-political aftermath (such as the refugee crisis); religious histories; conflicts against local robber baron knights; and several histories regarding the agencies and struggles of certain local Czech women during this ongoing war. These sorts of gameplay histories, when recorded by teachers, can be used alongside traditional historical sources to contribute and teach, for instance, on the content of the historical period and topics represented in the game, as well as provide a space to discuss and critique these multimodal gameplay sources. Concurrently, they can be framed as a form of student learning or assessment in building students' skills in conducting research and source analysis, by documenting their own or using the teacher's gameplay recordings when investigating and gathering evidence on a certain topic, theme, or subject.

Another key highlight for potential pedagogical material is that KCD's configuration of its gameplay representations in the lore history modality provided opportunities to interact with and critique the integration of primary and/or secondary historical sources. These various sources were acquired from Warhorse Studios' research and embedded into the game world (e.g. written literature and documents, combat manuscripts, historical sites, artworks). This particular engagement would extend history students' practice in source analysis by affording them different experiences. Specifically, students would interact with these sources not as replications of their original non-digital form but as renewed multimodal constructions. Additionally, during analysis of historical insights and knowledge within games like KCD, student-assessed research projects may entail encounters that encourage the search for and examination of additional primary and secondary historical sources to corroborate or expand findings from the historicity of the gameplay experience, and in other instances re-examining source evidence originally overlooked.

Designing lesson and assessment activities entailing recorded gameplay histories would be structured by three other key elements. Firstly, both history teachers and students would operate as a player-analyst in the role of player-historian. A

player-analyst is not only a participant in a video game from a ludic lens, but also has a specific focus to analyse and interpret their various gameplay experiences, stylistic conventions, and semantics of the game's content in the analytical lens of their respective field (e.g. film, anthropology, history, and cultural studies) (Redder 2023). In a history context, a player-historian is fundamentally a type of player-analyst for holistically examining historical games and their particular gameplay's historical modalities through ludic (procedural), history (representational), and orientational lenses (Redder 2023).[5]

Secondly and concurrently, maintaining the principles of multimodal video game learning requires students to study and master the procedural (ludic) and representational components of a video game and its gameplay medium, as historical games are 'representational texts and simultaneously a digital form of structured play' (Redder 2023: 7). Thirdly, applying the historical modality framework for history game teaching and students developing multimodal research and source analysis skills is enhanced by training history students to combine and cross-examine utilisations of history between non-digital sources and research methods with digital gameplay counterparts. This process was another viable multimodal approach utilised within my doctoral research and its empirical-based historical methodology to supplement and expand the historical insights gathered from recorded gameplay footage of KCD and APTI. These non-digital historical sources that corroborated my recorded game footage and its findings were: primary and secondary written sources pertaining to these games' histories and their subject matter; fieldwork at historical sites used by the game developers; and interviews with some of the game developers working for Warhorse Studios and Asobo Studio (Redder 2023).

Historical research as and for game design—Mythik Tane (TBC) and Ako: A Tale of Loyalty (2020)

The second avenue for student engagement with multimodal studies of history and historical gaming is situated within a game development context. Namely, this involves furthering students' study of a game's respective history via their game studio's selection and employment of historical sources from methods in both historical research and game design. Additionally, it includes establishing and distributing student-led historical game projects on streaming services for history teachers from secondary schools and universities to access for use. Both these approaches offer another way to enrich and assess a student's proficiency in research skills, critical analysis of source material, and semiotic or communicative applications through both digital and non-digital primary and secondary historical sources. These activities around research-infused historical games and game development practices closely resemble the possibilities of the 'Gamic Mode of History' outlined by historian Dawn Spring (2014). In this frame, historical games following a gamic mode of history present 'original historical scholarship and … original research' (Spring 2014: 207), not by replicating scholarly monographs but through combining and complementing the strengths and skills of the history discipline with game system conventions. Consequently, 'the primary sources of the given research topic combined with the thesis and historical argument set the parameters for developing the rules' (Spring 2014: 217) while assessing how the 'relevant primary source material … [can] be most enjoyable [for players]' (Spring 2014: 215).

The earlier mentioned KCD and its localized Medieval Czech history can be considered as fulfilling a distinct gamic mode of history via 'gathering and cross-examining a wider repertoire of primary and secondary historical sources from a range of contexts' (Redder 2023: 210). Examples of evidence-intensive research and game design methods by its developer, Warhorse Studios, include: an extensive repository of primary and secondary historical literature (including some primary documents pertaining to some of the actual events of the Bohemian Civil War); nineteenth century military maps to configure their 3D game world and in-game map; fieldwork of historical sites within the Rattay-Sasau region (e.g. Sázava monastery, Castle Pirkstein); as well as aerial and on-site photography of its countryside landscapes (Redder 2023). Moreover, employment of a full-time historian (Joanna Nowak) and collaboration with various institutions and historical experts, such as museum staff (e.g. Czech Museum of Silver in Kutná Hora and Hussite Museum at Tábor); local historical guides and historians; and Medieval HEMA (Historical European Martial Arts) practitioners were also utilised (Redder 2023). Throughout the entirety of this game development process, Warhorse Studios closely operated within the boundaries of empiricism, late Medieval Czech narrative agency, the exercise of historical scepticism with respect to narrative accounts within their various Medieval sources, and appropriate game design liberties (Redder 2023).

While KCD is the most prominent example to date of this activity as a potential case study for instructing students on multimodal research in historical game design, the forthcoming release of the virtual reality game *Mythik Tāne* (TBC) by Vincent Egan (Lead developer and CEO of Maui Studios) in Aotearoa New Zealand offers another interesting gamic mode of history. In the synopsis of *Mythik Tāne*, the story is set during the chaos of creation in a proto-world created by the demiurge Io. A cataclysmic war breaks out between the Gods, and the player as the chosen deity, or Atua, Tāne is shown the path toward the heavens of knowledge in the hope that he can bring about peace and order. His journey is plagued with demonic entities sent by his jealous sibling Whiro, the Atua of malice, suffering, and disease. Maui Studios' upcoming historical game is highly innovative for a kaupapa

5 *See Redder (2023) for an in-depth coverage of this variation of the term 'player-historian', originally developed by video game historian Adam Chapman in his seminal text* Digital Games as History: How Videogames Represent the Past and Offer Access to Historical Practice *(2016).*

Māori research approach (specifically mātauranga Māori or Māori knowledge) and employs a core primary historical source from oral history in configuring their game world, namely Egan's own pūrakāu (ancient story) passed down from his koro (family elders) through multiple generations brought to life via digital game technology.[6] This historical game containing a story and an immersive game world from a Te Ao Māori worldview aims to inspire young Māori for self-determination, reclaiming Māoridom through storytelling, visual art, and cultural history, and promotes indigeneity such as incorporating Te Reo Māori as the game's primary language.

Concurrently, endeavours to assess students' ability in conducting historical research and/or dissemination of scholarship by a more proactive involvement with primary and secondary historical sources (particularly written material) have also been present in student-collaborative historical game design projects. Lawler and Smith's (2021) classroom experimentation (in a style similar to the *Choose your Adventure* book series), *Sankofa* (2017) developed at the University of California Irvine, and game studio Triseum's creation and release of the edutainment historical game series *ARTé* for game-based historical learning are some of these endeavours.[7] Another prominent example is the programme 'Epoch: History Games Initiative' at the University of Texas in Austin (UT), founded and managed by historian and Associate Professor Adam Clulow.

This programme is currently tasked with designing historical games catering to potential secondary schools and their history classrooms or teaching programmes (both in the USA and abroad) by instructing and utilising history students as game developers, combining their skills in historical research and game design. Their first game release, *Ako: A Tale of Loyalty* (2020), is a digital graphic-novel-style adaptation of an Early Modern Japanese history called the '47-Ronin', otherwise known as the 'Akō Incident' (1702–1703). This game was developed by a group of history major students (Ashley Gelato, Michael Rader, Izellah Wang and Alex Aragon) under the direction and guidance of Clulow himself with an educational framework in mind, alongside a series of historical goals and restrictions under which the students had to work.[8] The main challenge for the student games team was to locate and incorporate contemporary in-depth scholarship to address four overlapping tasks, specifically 'creating a believable central character, developing a branching storyline with consequential choices, writing compelling dialogue and producing realistic and historically grounded artwork' (Clulow 2020: para. 7). Clulow stated (2021) that the student games team used a number of research methodologies for their game process, such as writing over 30,000 words of dialogue derived from and alongside extensive research in topics like agriculture, diet, currency, dress style, architecture, and funeral ceremonies. As a key outcome, aside from creating a fully functional game, Clulow found that the students learnt 'more about samurai life and early modern Japan than any group of students I had worked with across a single semester. They read a dizzying array of books and articles while working and reworking the overall design, dialogue and artwork' (Clulow 2021: para. 18). This major finding strongly encapsulates the main learning outcome and incentive described by Lawler and Smith, regarding how conducting historical research through a game design assessment allows students that 'research, write and create games … an opportunity to engage in the work of the historian, test their historical interpretations … [and reinforce] the importance of asking good historical research questions (Lawler & Smith 2021: 2).'[9]

Conclusion

These multimodal research areas within historical game studies (historical gameplay representations as multimodal texts and interaction with historical research informing game design) encourage new extensions to existing curricula for teaching history by synthesising conventional or non-digital (e.g. written) and digital methods of historical knowledge and content presentation, source/text analysis, and critical interpretation skills. Additionally, these emergent areas of study afford historians, history teachers, and lecturers new opportunities for experimentation with and refinement of their styles or methods of multimodal literacy, resource selection, and assessment structure. Understandably, until further developments or applications of these multimodal engagements as practical syllabus courses brings them out of their current state of 'theoretical potential of [historical] games as learning tools' (McCall 2011: 4), arguing for historical games to be understood as critical scholarly histories within secondary schools and universities will remain an ongoing challenge. Nevertheless, the growing number of historians, game designers, and teachers implementing closer integrations of conventional and digital forms of

6 Mythik Tāne *won the gold award at the New Zealand Best Design Awards in 2022 where it was showcased, and commercial distribution is planned.*

7 Sankofa *was developed in a collaboration between history professor Patricia Seed, computer science professor Magda El Zarki, and computer game designer and staff member Jessica Kernan.*

8 *This project was also undertaken in supportive collaboration with UT graduate and experienced games designer Ian Diaz.*

9 *The success of their game's release was followed by further releases in subsequent years under new student-led teams, namely* The Pazzi Conspiracy *(2021) and* Play Ghosts over the Water: Changing the Tides of Japan's Future *(2023). The latter game is the first in an extended collaboration between the Department of History and the Department of Asian Studies at UT within the funded project JapanLab from 2022–2025 (run by the directors Kirsten Cather, Adam Clulow and Mark Ravina).*

history increasingly problematise current education policies, presuppositions, and history teaching practices that continue to impart to history students an engagement with studying the past primarily in the monomodal printed form.

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GAMIFICATION

Tertiary Learning Usage of Tabletop Roleplaying Games

Affordances and challenges

In service of broadening the arsenal of pedagogical tools available in postsecondary classrooms, this study reviews the state of theory and practice in usage of tabletop roleplaying games (TTRPGs) in higher education. It is firmly situated in the context of constructivist approaches seeking to enhance student learning. Using TTRPG-based approaches, however, presents significant challenges, not least of which are student unfamiliarity, cognitive load, and resistance, as well as additional instructor workload. This study seeks to aid instructors in determining how best to approach the use of TTRPG-based teaching while focusing on using the strengths of TTRPGs to help facilitate learning.

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Introduction

This chapter is focused on exploring the theorization and current usage of tabletop roleplaying games (TTRPGs) in university classroom spaces. It thus combines a literature review with consideration of what seem to be productive directions for the immediate future in both research and classroom practice. The initial focus is on situating TTRPGs in tertiary education in the context of games-based education in general and on discussing constructivist educational theories underlying such approaches. Following this, the chapter considers particular affordances and challenges involved in TTRPG usage and reviews a variety of implementations that have shown themselves to be useful in college and university classrooms. Finally, it examines promising avenues for current and future tertiary educational tabletop RPG practice and research.

Playful approaches in higher education include games but also involve many other elements such as alterations of mental or physical space (Nerantzi 2019; Haughton & Sarwar 2019), units training playfulness and creative approaches (Loudon 2019), and use of physical materials in creative explorations (Williamson 2019). Games are only a subset of playful approaches, and scholarship on play highlights that there are always potential conflicts between *ludus* (more rules-based play) and *paidia* (more improvisational, free play) (cf. Callois 1961). Essentially, these are poles between which those who play move from more untrammelled paidia towards more formalized, rules-based ludus. Professionally designed games will tend to have an emphasis on ludus, but exposure to different game types is helpful in realizing that many games are much closer to pure paidia. In a classroom context, instructors are always faced with tensions between these poles, but, outside of extremely free classrooms, instructors are going to have to apply principles of ludus to a greater extent. Nevertheless, university educators should consider that the introduction of more elements of paidia is a very useful corrective to the dangers of over-solemnizing our work. Indeed, instructors looking to roleplaying-based educational methods are seeking something that retains enough ludus to control the educational direction, while also permitting paidia to break out in the classroom, facilitating moments of generative learning. As noted by James (2019) and others, resistance to and unfamiliarity with the use of such approaches remains an obstacle to any playful higher educational pedagogies that all instructors need to confront when implementing any sort of educational play.

The State of Educational Play

Although digital gaming has received a greater research focus than non-digital RPGs, non-digital gaming has recently been studied in educational contexts. Non-RPG tabletop games have been used in a variety of contexts, ranging from veterinary medicine, astronomy, nursing, and chemistry to finance and literature (Bayeck 2020). In addition, well-known professional games have been used to teach computational thinking (*Pandemic*) and to deepen thinking on uses of play in education (*Gloom*) (Bayeck 2020; Lean, Illingworth & Wake 2018). As seen in Pillay and James (2012), such games have also been used to help develop cross-cultural competencies following the mapping, bridging, and integrating model, through the formation of cross-cultural teams involved in a bridge-building game. Meanwhile, Perry and Robichaud (2020) taught ethics using a desert island roleplaying simulation. Moving more directly towards full roleplaying games, live action roleplay (LARP) has been the focus of recent work by Simkins (2015), Stenros and Montola (2010), and Harviainen et al. (2018). Nordic LARPs in particular have received educational grants and have been used in specifically educational contexts such as the Danish Østerskov Efterskole (Stenros & Montola 2010).

Tabletop games of all sorts have been used to practise skills in classroom and generalized instructional situations. Skills including critical thinking abilities, communication, and collaboration have been practised in classroom situations, such as those described by Hayse (2018), and in library training, such as in Giles et al. (2019). Students in Hayse's research reported generally feeling that the game-based activities increased engagement and specific skills. Hayse (2019) notes the complex interplay between tension and flow in classroom games. By contrast, Giles et al. (2019) discussed use of a card game modelled on *Apples to Apples* and *Cards Against Humanity* to orient transfer students. Notably, many students already recognized the activity as a variant on an existing game, lowering stress. Although students learned content about using the library, they were still able to focus on the play while interacting with other transfer students.

Tabletop games have also been used for content instruction. Hayhow et al. (2019) described the creation of a board game to teach the property life cycle. The resulting game, *Construct-It*, was essentially a trivia game. Even where a board game is not heavily modified, such as with Mewborne and Mitchell's (2019) use of the Eurogame *Carcassonne* to teach geographic concepts, the implementation can be. In their case, players might be required to implement certain geographic concepts during their gameplay, and to document and reflect on content and vocabulary. Ntokos (2020) combined multiple forms of gameplay, including roleplaying games, board games, and videogames, in an instructional module for students studying coding. Students went through a brief roleplaying session in a haunted house drawn from the board game *Betrayal on the House on the Hill*. After completing play, students would have to code everything they experienced, thus translating their own TTRPG experience into effective video game code.

Other notable uses of gaming content instruction were the project of Tilton (2019) and the Reacting to the Past curriculum (Watson & Hagood 2018). Tilton (2019) studied the use of two social deception games, *Are You a Werewolf?* and *The Resistance*, in several sections of a composition and communication course. Tilton posited that such games can work in the classroom as long as there are clear assessments, multiple forms of relationship between students, instructors, and objectives, and evidence of either improvement of skills or relation of abstract ideas to concrete action and reflection. Finally, Reacting to the Past (Watson & Hagood 2018) involves live action roleplay with a competitive focus in order to help students understand historical events.

Because the usage of TTRPGs in the tertiary classroom often requires significant restructuring, it is important to consider both the ways in which these games relate to traditional educational theories' key ideas and the specific affordances and constraints that affect them. Greenhaigh (2016), whose research focuses on ethics education in French language studies, suggests that there are two broad affordances specific to TTRPGs: openness and flexibility. Hammer et al. (2018) outline general relationships between major educational theories and roleplaying games generally, discussing behaviourist, cognitivist, constructivist, and sociocultural/social constructivist theories, and mapping particular approaches to games with the theories. They suggest five broad affordances of RPGs that connect directly to such learning theories: (1) portraying a character; (2) manipulating a fictional world; (3) experiencing an altered sense of reality; (4) supporting collaboration through shared imaginative spaces; and (5) learning through making RPGs. Their review also mentions transferability issues, gamification, and the common practice of debriefing so extensively used in LARP.

As noted, significant work has been done on games and education within the digital sphere, such as the work of Polin (2018). Using the example of the game *DragonBox*, Polin pointed out that the same game chassis can be used differently depending on the form of mediation involved. She examined the different ways in which three particular virtual worlds dealing with environmental or scientific concerns affected the educational experience of students, ranging from a greater to a lesser 'game' component within the virtual environment.[1] Two particular elements stand out from this study. First, there is a suggestion that, in order to be truly constructivist in use, games in the classroom have to permit adaptation. Second, the study notes that many of the virtual games had run out of funding: thus, such funding problems might be lessened by substituting TTRPGs for digital RPGs.

Baviskar, Hartle, and Whitney (2009) posit that classroom practices claiming to be constructivist may not actually successfully involve truly constructivist practice. They identified four fundamental elements, in addition to being learner-oriented, that constitute constructivism: eliciting prior knowledge; creating cognitive dissonance; application of the knowledge with feedback; and reflection on learning. As Polin (2018) mentions, game-based educational activities present good opportunities to create all four elements. Indeed, the shift from other forms of classroom learning to a game-based activity is itself a method of facilitating cognitive dissonance, forcing students to confront, at the very least, the problem of using what they know in an unfamiliar context. Likewise, the feedback cycle and after-game debriefing are useful for allowing feedback and reflection on learning.

Tabletop Roleplaying and Tertiary Education

While TTRPGs have not been as prevalent in research, the literature does present a variety of approaches to using TTRPGs educationally. For example, Hammer and Heller (2012) used the game *Ars Magica* by allowing historical research to trump game rules, allowing students to 'rules lawyer' themselves to more engaged learning. Geller-Goad (2015) similarly taught Latin grammar and prose style through a semester-long *Dungeons & Dragons*-style game in which students took on roles of Greco-Roman mythical characters to combat a scheme of the Sphinx by demonstrating subject as well as historical knowledge. At pre-collegiate levels, other recent examples of TTRPG usage include using a modified *Pathfinder* RPG system to help middle school students immerse themselves in the short story 'The Most Dangerous Game' (Cook, Gremo & Morgan 2017) and using TTRPGs to teach storytelling styles (Zalka 2016).

Other suggested implementations of TTRPGs are described by Bell (2017) and Gressick and Langston (2017). Bell (2017) discusses an introductory philosophy course in which each participant had a personalized learning management system page with a traditional RPG character sheet describing interests, abilities, and resources. The course material was taught by mapping content to geographical areas representing philosophical paradigms; students obtained 'gold' for discussing material. Participants were also divided into teams (along the lines of a traditional RPG adventuring group) for assessments. Engagement absolutely increased, but further iterations of the course had to deal with improving tracking of gold awards and making use of gold more relevant to students. Gressick and Langton (2017) similarly gamified an introductory

1 *Sometimes this is related to where a game is seen to fit on a spectrum from 'sandbox' to 'railroaded' games. At one end of this spectrum are sandbox games where the environment gives players a great deal of freedom in mediating their interactions and gameplay processes, while in the other direction railroaded games severely restrict player choices and ability to affect the environment. By their nature, digital games will always contain some level of railroading due to limitations of the code. By contrast, non-digital games permit the human players and gamemasters to allow actions outside the existing rules.*

psychology course, mapping content visually and allowing students, organized into guilds linked by common interests, to travel through the game world. Notably, this course used guild-based competition as well as quantitative and qualitative data collection to assess effectiveness. Rewards granting new course options were given to students who accomplished set tasks.

Writing and tutoring instructors have also employed TTRPG gamification methods. Henthorn (2022) described a light use of RPG gamification in a writing tutor training course. In this situation, students did not take on specific personas, but they did adopt generic RPG class roles in deciding how to approach the quest-based course. Each student had to choose two of the three possible roles and select role-based activities to complete the training. This course deliberately avoided the kinds of gamified rewards employed in other examples, partly to focus more on process and partly because the instructor, an experienced gamer, was justifiably wary about the additional work involved. By contrast, Shay and Shay (2022) sought to use TTRPGs to recontextualize the role of the writing tutor by analogy with the layering involved in being a player in a TTRPG. This revisioning allowed insights into both the different personas involved and the rules that must be internalized to be successful. Finally, Bundy (2017) made a relatively small implementation of roleplaying elements in a creative writing course to reset the relationship between instructor and students. In this case, the challenge involved getting past the entrenched resistance students had to comprehensive revision by roleplaying as Lars von Trier (the instructor) and Jørgen Leth (students), replicating an experiment the two directors had conducted, in which Leth was set increasingly arbitrary rules for remaking prior art. In this case, the roleplay allowed the shifting of the dynamic from revising to remaking, helping students recontextualize revision.

Conclusion and Recommendations

As can be seen, classroom constraints require that TTRPG implementations play to the strengths that can be most easily used given both learning objectives and practical realities. For example, *Dungeons & Dragons* and similar games tend to have extremely detailed conflict resolution systems, which require quite a bit of instructional overhead and time. In non-instructional gaming, this is not necessarily a major problem, as groups may have a great deal of time and interest in using all the elements. However, classroom instruction alternatives are likely necessary, for at least two reasons. First, classroom activities require that game elements be shortened in duration so that they do not overshadow learning objectives or require effort disproportionate to their utility. Second, greater time and complexity increase the likelihood that individual instructors will be unable or unwilling to attempt such methods. Although many tabletop roleplaying sessions last three or four hours, instructors have to trim the experience to focus on the affordances most useful to instructional and learning objectives.

In *Small Teaching*, Lang (2016) suggests that teaching modifications that are less invasive and time-consuming may allow easier implementation. Lang suggests considering short modifications at the very beginning and end of class, but modifications need not be quite so minimal to lower the barrier to use. As mentioned by Sardone and Devlin-Scherer (2016), who studied boardgame development as a teacher educational activity, instructors may be resistant to new methods for many reasons, including the inability to see them as fitting standard classroom practices. Furthermore, while Sardone and Devlin-Scherer (2016) noted that successful game-based activities were often well-received by students, game development is itself an area of complex and overlapping practices requiring considerable iteration. Hopefully, most instructors are sympathetic to such issues. Geller-Goad (2015) obviously put a great deal of work into his course, but not every instructor will have the time or inclination. Thus, finding ways to adapt TTRPG learning methods in smaller ways seems a useful research goal.

One important component of TTRPGs that is often remarked on is how much the game as played at each individual table can vary from its use at other tables. In other words, each group creates a micro-culture of gameplay and recreates the game in ways that function well for the participants. Absent the addition of technical support, tabletop games are quite simply more easily altered to produce desired experiences. This is not to say that all groups or participants will seek to do this, but even relatively 'by the book' groups will usually have their own customs at the table, and their own foci as they determine what is of primary import to them. One common custom seen in most roleplaying games is the idea of 'Rule Zero', which suggests that the gamemaster should change, add to, or delete anything if it will produce a better experience for those involved. In a classroom setting, it seems worth leaning into this element and making use of the flexibility advantage these types of games offer over other sorts of tabletop games.

As seen in much of the research already discussed, there is always a tension between the ludus and paidia elements in any game situation, and this has important implications for classroom use. Some games as implemented in the classroom have very little paidia to them, whereas at the other end of the spectrum implementations utterly lacking ludus start to head in the direction of pure simulation. Given the way in which roleplaying games intersect the two axes, the aleatory (random) element of TTRPGs should also not be ignored as a pedagogical tool; to understand this, it is useful to consider the example of tabletop wargames, which have been used for instruction at least since the 19th century. For example, Raynaud and Northcote (2015) discuss the use of wargames in teaching the history of the First and Second World Wars; they show that allowing students to play out selected

scenarios may, in the right circumstances, create greater understanding of historical realities than watching media or partaking in other tutorial activities. Their students gained much greater appreciation for logistical issues faced by actual commanders, but wargames also permit events to veer off from their historical course with the right die rolls. This seems worth considering as an affordance because students often have a great deal of trouble discarding preexisting models; indeed, helping them see alternatives is a key challenge faced particularly in lower-level undergraduate courses. Giving students opportunities to do more than simply experience the expected situation, but instead to create an alternative course requiring the adoption of different strategies and responses, seems like an intriguing educational opportunity, one that can be served by the (at least semi-) random aspect of TTRPGs.

Considering the constraints imposed by classroom situations, three broad categories of implementation of tabletop gaming in classrooms suggest themselves: (1) using tabletop gameplay to construct an activity that forms part or all of a single class session, with possible reflection and follow-up in later sessions; (2) creating one or more course units, each consisting of several weeks of instruction centred around the use of TTRPG elements; or (3) fully gamifying the entire course using tabletop roleplaying. Each of these variants carries significant advantages and disadvantages that can affect the efficacy and hardship of implementing such ideas in the course.

At the most micro-level, an instructor might choose to devote a single class session to a TTRPG-based mode of learning. As mentioned, it is very likely that reflection and debriefing would need to be left for later, using some combination of online and future class sessions. Nevertheless, approaches like this have been achieved using activities like the desert island game seen in Perry and Robichaud (2020), classroom debates, or trials with students (and at times the instructor) in character. However, further development of this approach could involve further pursuit of the ludus by adding the kinds of random and rules-based elements that take the experience away from pure roleplay. Such uses would certainly need to be narrowly focused in terms of learning objectives and content to be handled, but sessions dealing with a key decision point, a series of closely related decision points, or an essential conceptual/paradigm breakpoint could benefit from a tabletop gamification approach. Single sessions that fully embrace TTRPG gamification seem like an intriguingly underexplored avenue for development. This sort of highly targeted usage would definitely need to use very focused and lighter rules and simple randomization methods.

Implementations might instead choose to focus on a single unit of a course, as seen in Bundy (2017). This approach has some of the advantages of full-course implementations, insofar as it gives students more of a chance to benefit from role identification and development, but the lower footprint within the course syllabus may reduce the stress of carrying it out.

Given that no particular approach is a pedagogical silver bullet, and that variations of familiar patterns can help keep the course fresh during the semester, this type of implementation has a lot to recommend it. However, the workload overhead may not actually be as low as one might expect, because many elements that might be designed for a full-course implementation and then reused all term, will still have to be designed, even though they will only be used for part of the term. In some ways, the return on the workload may actually be worse than for a fully gamified course.

Finally, instructors may choose to fully gamify their course using TTRPG elements and principles. Obviously, this is the most workload-intensive method, which is one of the reasons (along with general unfamiliarity with TTRPGs) many instructors understandably are reluctant to implement TTRPGs in their courses. The previously discussed Geller-Goad (2015), Henthorn (2022), Bell (2017), and Hammer et al. (2018) are all examples of this fully gamified course. Probably the biggest danger is a failure of buy-in on the part of the students, which can be obviated if the course is actually advertised as gamified so that students not desiring this style can take a different section or course. Once students have assented to the style, however, the workload pressures of a full-semester implementation can be met by using the flexibility and openness affordances fundamental to TTRPGs.

It seems fairly obvious that each of the above implementations will permit very different uses of game-related materials and require quite different rules setups. In addition, the specific types of learning sought will profoundly affect the preparation required. For example, classroom instruction focusing mainly on allowing students to take on new perspectives or gain empathy may permit a fairly loose structure, whereas a unit requiring the demonstration and application of particular content mastery will require a very different — and likely longer — implementation.

As mentioned, two particular challenges recur frequently in TTRPG gamification in college classrooms. For already highly stressed instructors whose schedules are not brimming with free time, the amount of time required for even smaller implementations is a major obstacle. At the same time, student buy-in and the related issue of the unfamiliarity with TTRPGs must be managed. An area for further research is in adapting simpler modern TTRPG systems to create gamification structures that are easier for instructors to implement and for students to learn and use in the classroom. Good examples of such systems might be *Fate*-based games from Evil Hat Productions and *Powered by the Apocalypse* games derived from the work of game designers Vincent and Meguey Baker.[2]

2 *Notably,* Fate *and* Powered by the Apocalypse*-derived games are already numerous and the original creators are very supportive of new designers reusing the open content contained in their system frameworks.*

Both of these options involve much simpler gameplay than the better-known Dungeons & Dragons, and both lean into the inherent flexibility and openness of TTRPGs in ways that take advantage of their non-digital nature. Ultimately, instructors seeking to use TTRPG ideas to alter either classroom practice or theory should seek out manageable ways of fulfilling their goals while hopefully enacting the type of serious playfulness that ought to break out in every classroom at times.

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GAMIFICATION

Using a Word Game to Revitalise Language and Promote Equity and Inclusion in a Quantitative Subject

Each year increasing numbers of Māori and Pacifica students graduate from universities but the numbers qualifying in accounting remain dismal. Many reasons for this phenomenon have been explored, one of which is a lack of cultural representation. This paper provides a reflective commentary on how gaming can be used in a quantitative subject to promote an Indigenous language to foster equity and inclusion in the classroom. Looking through the lens of a Constructivist Developmental Pedagogy, the paper applies cultural intelligence to urge proponents of diversity to go beyond merely recognizing awareness of cultural differences to embed cultural appreciation in learning.

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Introduction

Tertiary education is an increasingly challenging space to traverse. Challenges include fast-changing demographics, the increasing need to confront systemic stereotypes and to create openness to different styles and types of communication. Understanding and addressing diversity, inclusion, and equity (DEI) is one of the key challenges the chief executive officers of companies will continue to face over the next 10 years (Protiviti 2021). As one executive stated, 'Expectations around DEI are occurring faster than the pace at which our organizations are managing' (Protiviti 2021, Table 1). Today's society requires educators to assist students in becoming culturally intelligent. Triandis (2006: 22) defines this as:

> *Learning to put oneself often in the shoes of other cultures [to] develop a healthy criticism of the norms of one's own culture as well as an openminded willingness to see the other culture the way [Indigenous people] see their own culture.*

This requires education to play a part in enhancing intercultural competencies, a phrase defined by Byram (1997: 71) as the ability 'to interact with people from another culture' in a language other than one's native tongue. This chapter provides a reflective commentary on how to address intercultural competencies by using a game in a quantitative subject, auditing, to promote an Indigenous language and foster equity and inclusion in the classroom.

In most countries where colonialism has played a role, the language of the colonisers has become the language of business, while Indigenous languages, such as te Reo Māori in New Zealand (NZ), are under threat of extinction (Barrett-Walker et al. 2020). With changing demographics, there are now more non-native speakers than native speakers of English in the world. To meet the needs of a global society, Hillard (2014: 247) said it 'is critical that students be given opportunities to develop cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence'. One example where promoting intercultural competence has had the desired effect is in the resurgence of the Welsh language (Barret-Walker et al. 2020). As Griffiths (2021: 53) notes, while Welsh was in severe decline before the start of the millennium, today Welsh speakers total more than 800,000 and 'the Welsh government … is committed to a million speakers by 2050'. Language is not just a communication tool but is part of culture (Britannica 2020). Hohepa et al. (1992: 334) argue that 'for language acquisition, one needs to develop and maintain a strong sense of both the social and cultural context'. If teachers and students embrace intercultural communicative competence in education, revitalisation of Te Reo Māori in NZ can potentially mirror the Welsh experience of language revival.

Colonialism has also affected the socio-economic circumstances of Indigenous people, leaving them worse off than their non-Indigenous counterparts. Biddle (2009) found that, rather than the previously accepted idea that poverty is limited to Indigenous people living in remote areas, communities in urban areas are equally affected by this inequity. Cao and Maloney (2018) regard accounting as a tool that can be used to improve the welfare of Indigenous people, as it helps to develop the economy and improve self -reliance. Despite its potential to create economic well-being, Theodore et al. (2020) mention that, while increasing numbers of Māori and Pasifika students are graduating from universities, the numbers qualifying in accounting and auditing remain low. Staniland, Harris, and Pringle (2021) found that Māori and Pasifika students feel they do not belong in accounting, owing to the lack of cultural representation in the accounting field.

Given the role that accounting can play in uplifting people from poor socio-economic conditions, lack of Indigenous cultural representation risks exacerbating existing inequalities. In this chapter, I therefore ask: what can educators in accounting do to make pedagogical and professional spaces more welcoming to Indigenous communities?

I explore the use of the word game *Wordle* (Makuch 2022) in the classroom as a way to contribute to the development of cultural intelligence, by creating experiences for learners that increase student engagement with te Reo Māori in the auditing class. This paper is unique as it combines an awareness of both the shortage of students qualifying in the accounting field and the threat to NZ's Indigenous language, to promote diversity, equity, and inclusion in the classroom. This paper practically applies the benefits of cultural intelligence to promote an Indigenous language to foster equity and inclusion in the classroom.

Low Representation and Participation of Indigenous People in the Accounting Profession

Worldwide under-representation of Indigenous accountants remains a phenomenon, as evidenced in Table 1 using data from the USA.

Accounting research initially focused on the lack of recognition of the experience and skills of women which caused the under-representation of women in the accounting professions (Hammond 1997; Welsh 1992). Khlif and Achek (2017) believe the last decade showed an improvement in the number of female accountants in the workforce. Table 1 illustrates that women's struggle for a rightful place in the profession of accounting is not over; it also indicates that underrepresentation of Indigenous people is another frontier the accounting profession must conquer. African Americans represent a dismal 8.5% of the auditing workforce in the USA and data for Native Americans—including Alaskan Natives—was not even available in the IMA study. While Francis et al. (2015: 628) claim 'There has been a significant increase in the number of women belonging to top executive teams',

Table 1 suggests that these increases have not materialised in executive positions where knowledge of accounting matters, with female Chief Financial Officers (CFOs) making up only 13.9% of USA board positions in Fortune 500 companies. While I do not have exact data for the number of Native American auditors and CFOs, I can extrapolate from the percentage of African American and Hispanic people in these roles—8.9% and 1.6%, and 8.5% and 1.4%, respectively—that the positions of Indigenous Native Americans and Alaskan Native people are equally dismal.

Underrepresentation of Indigenous people in top accounting jobs is not unique to the USA. Smith (2020) revealed that 'there are only 17 Black partners in the top eight accounting firms' in the UK. For many decades, researchers across the globe have studied the phenomenon of underrepresentation of various minority or Indigenous groups in both the accounting profession and accounting education. In South Africa, Botes (2018) looked at the challenges Indigenous students faced in entering accounting courses at the end of apartheid, Boshoff and Caarstens (2003) investigated apartheid's influence on the demographics of the South African chartered accountancy profession, and Sadler and Wessels (2019) and Wiese (2006) all investigated the rate of progress of Indigenous people in the accounting profession. In Australia, Vitartas et al. (2015) and Rkein (2014) studied how to foster Indigenous students' interest in business education. In New Zealand, Whiting and Wright (2001) focused on gender inequity, and Jacobs (2000) looked at the representation of an important cultural document (Te Tiriti o Waitangi) in accounting education.

Rkein and Velayutham (2018) and Wiese (2006: 152) mentioned that many Indigenous Africans are raised with 'a language other than English, the lingua franca of commerce', which often makes social interaction in the education and business world a challenge. Botes (2018) indicates that, while a number of commerce terms such as cheques and bank reconciliations may be commonly used in traditional Western households, this is not always the case in households where English is not the primary language of communication.

Researchers have determined that lack of role models (Enofe 2010), lower self-efficacy (Ali & Narayan 2019), and lack of cultural representation (Staniland, Harris & Pringle 2021) are reasons why Māori and Pasifika students feel they do not belong in accounting circles. Fukofuka and Ali (2022: 665) indicate that underrepresentation in the accounting profession will remain because, even when these students enter the field of study, 'they experience feelings of being out of place'.

Gamification in Education

Guillén-Nieto and Aleson-Carbonell (2012) indicate that there are numerous benefits to the use of games in an educational environment. As Squire and Jenkins (2003) note, gaming transforms attitudes towards learning. They argue that play is a critical element in creating and learning about human culture, and the benefits of gamification—using games in a formal educational environment—are numerous. 'Games teach through encouraging competition, experimentation, exploration, innovation, and transgressions' (Squire & Jenkins 2003: 5). Boyle (2011) argues that games 'play a vital role in building students' self-confidence'. Patricio, Moreira and Zurlo (2022) highlight how gamification builds on the psychology of human engagement and capitalises on the exciting, motivating, and engaging strategies and design ideas from games. Researchers Zirawaga, Olusanya, and Maduku (2017) identified that many of the games used for educational purposes focus on improving critical thinking, help students to remember and gain visual and computer skills, and teach sportsmanship, interaction, and collaboration with peers.

Table 1. Diversifying U.S. Accounting Talent: A Critical Imperative to Achieve Transformational Outcomes (Institute of Management Accountants (IMA)). Source: Jiles, Littan and Jules (2021: 7).

	2019 US population	2019 US auditors and accounting Workforce	2019 Sitting CFOs of Fortune 500 Companies	2018 Partners in Accounting Functions in US CPA firms
Female	50.8%	61.7%	13.9%	23.0%
Hispanic or Latino	18.5%	8.9%	1.6%	2.0%
Black or African American	13.4%	8.5%	1.4%	1.0%
Native American and Alaskan Native	1.3%	No data available	No data available	0.2%

Van Ments (1999) believes that using games in education can simplify complex topics. Michael (2016) indicates that even if games may just seem like fun, they assist in submerging the individual in the targeted activity. Randal et al. (1992: 269) back up these findings when studying games for educational purposes, stating that they found that 'games teach language most effectively when targeting specific objectives'. Building cultural intelligence is a complex problem that can be a challenge to teach. Backed by this plethora of evidence, I am exploring the use of games to achieve this challenge in a way that is fun and engaging for students. As Huizinga (1955), a scholar of Indo-European languages, famously said: 'Let my playing be my learning and my learning be my playing'.

Theoretical Framework

In this paper, I explore the use of games as a way educators can help Māori students feel less out of place or more welcomed in the classroom and, at the same time, educate the whole class on cultural intelligence. To achieve this, I use a framework of Constructivist Developmental Pedagogy (CDP) (Magolda 1999) to provide an epistemological framework to understand how humans make sense of knowledge.

CDP is a framework that combines 'cognitive science, sociology and anthropology' to recognise learning as a constructive process (Black & Ammon 1992: 324). CDP sees knowledge 'as created rather than received, mediated by discourse rather than transferred by teacher talk, explored and transformed rather than remembered as a uniform set of positivistic ideas' (Holt-Reynolds 2000: 21). The Magolda (1999) framework emphasises three key principles:

- Students are validated as knowers who bring their relevant experiences into the space of learning.
- Learning is situated in the learners' own experiences.
- Learning is a mutual construction of meaning between educator and learner.

Acknowledging students as knowers means that educators can begin to connect with the learners' prior knowledge, even when the knowledge is not necessarily located in the field the educator specializes (teaches) in. For example, an educator teaching accounting to students who have never learnt accounting may relate it to other times when learners had to learn a new concept. For example, when they had to learn maths for the first time, the example of building a tower with blocks in kindergarten may have been used to illustrate how just like blocks, one maths principle is based on previous principles to build a solid foundation. This simplification helps to decrease distance between the educator and the learner. Secondly, by engaging with learners' own experiences, the educator makes use of learners' current understandings to build upon their learning. An accounting educator may be able to relate the topic of budgeting to learners' own experiences of budgeting for personal expenses, likely a common experience for university students often living with a tight budget. This principle creates conscious awareness: 'a twofold state of being in which the mind is both awake and aware of its surroundings. By raising consciousness and being more aware of what is going on around us and within us we have a better chance of reacting less out of emotion rather than fact' (Kimberley 2019).

While students' initial reaction to the concept of budgeting may be emotive—'what's that?' or 'it sounds difficult'—relating it to their everyday life makes them consciously aware that they are familiar with the concept. Without conscious awareness, it is easy to react in terms of emotion. The final principle of mutual construction means that learning becomes a voyage of self-discovery between both educator and learner through the process of shared application of experience and evidence. This means both parties become active learners in this process. It also means that the educator can experience vulnerability. While vulnerability can be a scary concept for some, Magolda (1999) indicates that it is essential for learning. For educators this is a game changer, as they are traditionally used to being the authority figure based on their knowledge of the field. The boundaries of vulnerability—how much both students and educator are willing to be exposed—are determined by the educator and the students themselves. This implies that everyone should only share as much as they feel comfortable with.

Method

I have always been a strong advocate of the benefits of learning through play. I aimed to build cultural awareness among all students by using a teaching strategy that filters knowledge of the topic through the students' existing cultural frames of reference, a technique also known as Culturally Responsive Teaching (Gay 2018). Based on my research into the value of games in an educational setting, I saw the game *Wordle*, created by Wardle (Makuch 2022), as a tool to introduce te Reo Māori in an auditing class.

Wordle is an online word game where players have six chances to find a five-letter word. When they enter their attempt into the *Scrabble*-like interface, each tile turns a different colour: green if the letter is in the correct place; yellow if the letter is somewhere in the word but not in the correct place; and grey if the letter is not in the word at all. Several sites make it possible for an educator to adapt *Wordle* by entering their choice of words and varying the length of the words. For the activity discussed in this chapter, I chose Strive Math (2023). Examples of how this is done are provided in the following section.

Discussion

Towards the end of every lecture a question can be asked requiring a one-word answer about the lecture, but the students must supply the answer in te Reo Māori. For example, to explain the concept of auditor independence, I could provide an example of an employee performing an audit where the auditor has shares in the company. Students could be asked to identify which ethical principle in auditing is compromised but required to supply the answer in te Reo Māori. Students would not be allowed to search for the word online. While a *Wordle* could potentially be hand-drawn on a board, I prefer to use Strive Math (2023) so that each student can have access on their own electronic device to the game. For example, the word for independence in te Reo Māori is tūhāhā. As someone in the process of learning te Reo Māori, I would check the correctness, meaning, and pronunciation of the word with one of my colleagues who is a fluent speaker of te Reo Māori. I specifically would not enter the word with the appropriate macrons used in te Reo Māori in place, as later in the process this would provide a point for discussion of how the word is pronounced.

To begin, the educator enters the word in *Wordle* and generates a URL link. Students could then start to play as a team or copy the link and start their own attempts at solving the word. This brings a healthy measure of competition into the activity. After the first attempt to discover the word, green-yellow-grey tiles appear. From this, students may identify that some letters are incorrect, some are correct letters but not in the right spot, and some correct and in the right place. Students have six attempts and each time an attempt would highlight letters in green if they are correct and in the correct place, or in yellow if the letter was correct but not in the correct place.

Once the word is correctly entered all the letters are green. This can then provide the educator with an opportunity to ask if any of the te Reo Māori speakers in the class will pronounce and spell the word correctly in te Reo: in this case, tūhāhā. It will be up to both students and educator to what extent they want to be involved in this explanation. If students are willing, one could also ask the fluent speakers of te Reo Māori to help others in the class with the pronunciation.

This activity can be followed by a discussion of the deeper cultural meaning of the word, where all students in the class can then ask questions in a safe environment. In this instance, the connotations of the concept are vastly different between English and te Reo. English speakers would discuss 'independence', which western European cultures associate with self-determination, autonomy, and the freedoms of reaching adulthood and moving out of the childhood home into the wider world. However, 'tūhāhā' is more directly translated in te Reo as 'standing alone.' With the greater focus on collectivist community and strong family ties in te ao Māori than in Western European worldviews, the connotations of the word 'tūhāhā' become more negative than its English translation, implying isolation, separation, and loneliness.

Benefits of Playing *Wordle*

Gamification and cultural intelligence can form a symbiotic relationship when a game is used to transform diverse parties' attitudes towards cultural understandings. Recognising that learning is a constructive two-way stream rather than a one-directional activity performed by the teacher, a game like *Wordle* offers the benefits of validating students as knowers, learning is situated in students' experiences, and cultural understanding is co-constructed by all parties taking part in the process.

Students validated as knowers

According to Magolda (1999), students must be validated as knowers who bring their relevant experiences into the space of learning. By inviting Indigenous learners to share their language, they are established in the classroom as possessing valuable knowledge (experts) which others in the class may not have. This creates a more even playing field. Students who do not have knowledge of the Indigenous language start realising that, although they may have the advantage of knowing business terminology (Wiese 2006), there are also business terms in the auditing class which may have a completely different meaning in te ao Māori. I believe this is important as many accounting students could end up working, for example, in Trusts in NZ where a Māori kaupapa (approach) is the dominant approach to business.

Learning is situated in the learners' own experiences

Using words in te Reo Māori means that learners can relate the concepts to understandings that they have from their socio-cultural backgrounds. For example, the concept of tūhāhā may be much more meaningful to a student whose native language is te Reo Māori than the concept of independence; their deeper knowledge and understanding of te Reo Māori allows them a better grasp of just how uninfluenced or objective the auditor must be in 'standing alone' in their role.

Learning is a mutual construction of meaning between educator and learner

Magolda (1999) explains that learning can only take place when both the educator and the learner are able to open themselves up to be vulnerable. Learning a new language makes the educator, and those who do not have te Reo Māori as a first language, more aware how difficult it can be to grasp new concepts, especially for those studying in a second language. As an educator, learning a new language and attempting to teach the names of familiar concepts in a language in which I'm not fluent makes me more cognizant of just how challenging it must be for all students studying accounting and auditing for the first time, because learning

the unique jargon of a new specialization can feel much like learning a new language. I know that embarking on this process gives me a far greater understanding of, and empathy for, the challenges some of my students face. It will help both the learners and the educator to feel how it is to walk in another's shoes. The cultural discussions that can follow based on the answers to the class's *Wordle* game can also help to clear up perceptions which people are often too shy or too afraid to ask, if it is done in an environment of mutual respect.

Conclusion

This paper reflects practically upon the benefits of gamification in education applied in conjunction with a constructivist developmental pedagogy to build cultural intelligence in both students and educators. Using such an approach turns *Wordle* from a fun leisure activity into a tool to communicate and transfer language and culture in an engaging way. This focus on diversity, equity, and inclusion strengthens values of empathy, communication, and self-confidence in the classroom, confronts systemic stereotypes by drawing on the prior knowledge of students as experts in their own culture, and builds bridges of language and community to enable professions previously considered tools of colonialism to respond to the fast-changing demographics of the modern world.

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CONFRONTING CLIMATE CHANGE

Culture, Denial, Recycling, Tree-Hugging

Many registers learning the seriousness of climate change

This chapter explores finding and developing different registers to convey environmental and climate messages to people with different levels of understanding and interest, both inside and outside educational settings. Finding entry points for communicating in multiple ways is more effective than only one or two strategies. Teaching and communication smarts mean gathering ideas from everyone—above us, below us, around us. The teacher is also the learner. This allows, even requires, revitalising and updating our own appreciation and connections to the environment. How do we get across the seriousness of climate change yet also spur people to action not fatalism?

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Culture, Denial, Recycling, Tree-Hugging: Many registers learning the seriousness of climate change

Introduction

Teaching or communicating the seriousness of climate change involves energising learning about the environment at many different registers. In this exploration of ways to overcome barriers to environmental education, four starting points inform the conversation: culture, denial, recycling, and tree-hugging. Other educators and communicators will find their voices in different ways, at registers meaningful to themselves and to those they are speaking with. From these starting point examples, this chapter explores an active style of personal learning about climate information and communication practices, bridging listeners to the urgency for climate action (Creutzig & Kapmeier 2020). The reality is that this is an absolutely important topic of concern for humans (Duram 2021). General inattention to the seriousness of climate change, or feelings of hopelessness about how serious climate change is, are both significant pivot points for educating about climate change and the coming consequences of our collective failure to act.

This chapter explores the idea of constantly finding and developing different registers to get key environmental and climate messages across to people with different levels of understanding and interest, inside and outside educational settings. When I refer to the many registers, the nuances, of how we endeavour to communicate this seriousness to students, colleagues, families, and in public venues, I am acknowledging the complexity of getting the climate story across. Each person who tries to do so, in different contexts, for different audiences or readerships, develops their own ways of meeting this communication need. This is a pedagogy of active learning for those of us imparting the climate message. Given the rapidly changing knowledge about climate change and its human impacts, educators and communicators are themselves necessarily involved in a learning process. This involves the *substance* of the speed, urgency, and consequences of environmental change, but also how to *bridge* that understanding to those around us, in classrooms and the wider community. Finding entry points for communicating in different ways, at different registers, will be more effective than only one or two strategies.

Like any instruction, do we speak to the top, the middle, or the lowest common denominator of any group or class? If it is the seriousness we want to communicate, how does our manner get past the formality of learning to enliven the challenge, especially to a younger generation who will inherit what is left of the earth?

For too long the societal context of denialism and lack of focus on environmental issues has left a trail of misinformation about climate change and inadequate awareness that humans are part of nature, depending on water, air, land, and other species on earth, from our personal biome to soil's living biota, for our very being.On a finite planet, the 100 billion tonnes, and rising, of material humans use each year is a problem in multiple ways (Carrington 2020). First, the amount of fossil fuels (coal, oil, and gas) used by humans as an energy source has created an accelerating loop of heating the blanket through the wrapping effect of greenhouse gases (GHG) and water vapour in the atmosphere. Second, the sheer quantum of material extracted from the earth is at odds with the enormous figures we hear from time to time about the plenitude of megalitres and megatonnes of various resources like cement, water, coal, and iron ore. Actually, on a small planet less than 13,000 kilometres in diameter (Gerretsen 2023), the 'great acceleration' of material use over the last 100 years has seen humans—no other species are causing this—push past the sustainable limits of consuming the earth. Third, the rapacious lust for fossil fuel energy, and the gargantuan and growing human appetite for resources, degrades the environment in ways that will be harmful to humanity's future. Fourth, even as the consumption of earth's raw material accelerates, 'the proportion being recycled is falling' to less than 10% (Carrington 2020); aluminium drinking cans are now the largest single use of this element globally.

Modern societies are highly urbanised and education needs many strategies to communicate the importance of environmental issues at every level to open eyes to the importance and enjoyment of what nature provides. Developing teaching and communicating smarts means picking up ideas from everyone—above us, below us, around us. The teacher is also the learner. This allows, even requires, revitalising and updating our appreciation and connections to the environment. How do we get across the seriousness of climate change yet also spur people to action not fatalism?

What Culture, Denial, Recycling and Tree-hugging Open up

These four frames of climate change discussion are always implicit, if not said out loud, in any consideration of climate change.

Culture

As a sociologist I take **culture** to be the sum of all that we do in society, not what different-looking people in 'other' societies do, and not just 'high-end' culture—our education system, our consumer practices, kinds of work, and who is important and why. Yes, we can learn environmentally from Māori and other Indigenous peoples' culture of attachment to place and respect for nature; western secular society has largely lost its ancient roots of being stewards of the land (Stewart 2020). But a powerful cultural lens can teach us to look at what modern culture has become; how premodern values and desires have scaled with technology, often in ways countering human wellbeing.

Unnecessary consumption, wasting water, forgetting that we are biophysical creatures living in urban and digital bubbles

do not change the biophysical facts of our existence. Waking up to the recognition that our individual biomes contain more non-human cells that human ones is an early faint realisation that we forget our grounding in the environment at our peril (Collen 2016). Regenerative agriculture is also re-awakening farmers to the fact that the soil biota holds the secret to fertility, food production, and repairing water catchments (Burns 2021b). More living biomass exists in the first 30cm of the planet's soil than all the bigger creatures combined (Montgomery & Biklé 2016).

Denial

Learning about climate **denial** opens a window on the persistent array of political and corporate egregious self-interested behaviour: restricting uptake of the science, falsely interpreting the evidence of human impacts at scale on our planet. Rather that address social problems, the false belief that more growth will solve them is widespread and needs unlearning (Greiner & McGee 2019). In recent years the politicisation of climate change by business interests and billionaires has spread from domestic United States politics, undermining the global effort to give climate change the serious attention it needs (Leonard 2019). The younger generation coming through schools and universities today have learned a much greater awareness of our need to act to mitigate the worst consequences (Hayes & O'Neill 2021).

We will not change the opinions of the final 20% of climate deniers, but their voices are fading. The present is 'the quiet before' (Beckerman 2023) but we are still held in thrall by the dominant global corporates (Greenberg, Knight & Westersund 2021). We need to learn and teach beyond the usual denialist categories, adding other registers: banal denial may be non-ideological and non-political but disinclination to act is not the opposite of denial, just a bland version of it.

Recycling

Recycling often gets people doing something and starting to think and learn more. Those in an audience who have started to move towards doing the right thing in distinguishing household rubbish often find, when instructors say this is not simply a matter of wrong and right, that it echoes the sense of ambivalence they have already felt. First, we are all learning, seeing things we had never thought about, or recognised previously as waste or gratuitous consumption. Second, in washing plastic, the use of pumped urban water has to be weighed again the reuse of the plastic. Some find it surprising to learn that the nuclear option, favoured by some, is as Co2-producing over its lifetime as fossil fuel options. Food waste affects people at a different register: first the national figures in tonnes, or the millions of wasted loaves in a first world country; then the supply chain moving food around the world in shipping containers; and then overconsumption and fast-food industries. Thinking about waste and recycling at a different register, what should Great Britain do about its 2.5 billion one-use disposable coffee cups (Doward 2020)?

It is not just a matter of personal or family recycling. What about in-the-aggregate? A small country like New Zealand has five million people: what if everyone saved one kilo of Co2 per month? Could that be extended for a year? Do the maths; find a 'doable target'; create enthusiasm, get the mindset going that we are going to do this. We have to, we are committed to doing so. Maybe just a city or a region could start the ball rolling. What rules would be set to measure achieving this goal? A different way of thinking about recycling is the new practice of crushing and re-using concrete; or set student projects for dealing with the billions of worn vehicle tyres globally (Formela 2021).

Tree-hugging

Tree-hugging alerts us to the power of climate and environmental discourses (Risbey 2008). First, environmental activists act at considerable personal cost and vilification, but in the end the 'pen is mightier than the sword'. The common good of responding to climate heating trumps the greed of corporate self-interest (Ostrom 1990). Many websites do fantastic communication work to break the miasma of climate misinformation. The power of words and expectations motivates social change, inspires practices like pro-environment marketing, challenges greenwashing, and resists politicising climate innovation solutions (Montgomery, Lyon & Barg 2023).

'Tree-hugger' has been for a long time a term of opprobrium, dismissing conservation activists for their work. Some audiences I speak to are surprised to hear negative 'tree-hugger', 'greenie' terms and discourse reframed positively: tree-huggers have been and are the vanguards of our waking-up to the seriousness of climate change. We all need to find another step-change in our ordinary lives to do something for the environment. I know one of those tree huggers who now heads a government environment agency. Less travel is controversial, but it is one of the ways in which we can rapidly reduce our carbon footprint. Play with this question for audiences: how much Co2 is produced burning a litre of petrol? Answer, about 2.3kg. A better register that I have found to communicate the significance of this to students and public audiences is: for every 100 litres of fuel you use in your car—a Nissan Tiida does that in two fuel tank fills—you put nearly a quarter of a tonne of Co2 into the atmosphere. That one act, not the rest of your life's activities!

How is Climate Change Serious?

We have known about global warming a for a very long time. Eunice Foote's paper published in 1856 showed the impact of Co2 on heat absorption from the sun (Dee 2023). Since then, 'humans have generated 2,500 billion tonnes of Co2 into the atmosphere, much of it from burning fossil fuels' (Woodside 2022). Since the mid-20th century—our own or our immediate family's lifetime—the global scale of human consumption,

growth in population, and technological ability to mine, burn, fell, drain, fish, extract, and consume has come to be called the 'great acceleration'.

On any graph of human activity that you can think of—production, consumption, distribution, energy generation, or use of materials—the curved lines of the great acceleration go steeply upwards (Steffen et al. 2015). One key part of that acceleration is that some 40 billion tonnes of Co2 are being put into the atmosphere by humans (additional to what nature does) every year, well beyond what the planet can reabsorb even across multiple human lifespans. Nature will get there eventually, but in its own time, measured in millennia. The new equilibrium will be one that fits nature's adjustment to the altered hydrological, atmospheric, land-plant and ocean-circulation cycles. It will no longer match human familiarity with today's planetary environment (Friedman 2010).

Between the cultural drivers of modernisation, in the rush to utilise land, plants, and minerals (Weaver 2006), western culture 'chose' to disregard traditional knowledge about the environmental effects of human activity at scale (Carrington 2020; Chakravarty et al. 2012). Speaking sympathetically, humans, with the advent of modern technologies, have succumbed to the siren song of almost-free fossil fuel energy (Pirani 2018). Humankind has wedged itself. A more critical interpretation is that centuries of colonial extraction globally has transmogrified into a market fundamentalist ideology that today deifies the lust for profit and growth over anything else. A degrowth logic (Hickel 2020; Maier 2023) or proposals for a circular economy (Lacy, Long & Spindler 2020), or a green capitalism (Fox 2022), are blasphemy in the currently dominant economic-political worldview.

Our human species, even if it woke up enough to start taking massive and immediate action, has got itself into a situation that is irreversible, in human time scales— we will not be able to continue to live in today's intermediate mode between hot and cold, wet and dry. Along with ice-ages and other natural planetary cycles, the unbelievable possibility that we humans could change the earth has come to pass. We invented a new word for this, the anthropocene, as part of coming to realise that 'just-little-old-us' humans could have this much effect (Carey 2016). Even so, this understanding has had little effect on our continuing ill-defined belief that earth is somehow infinite in resourcing our species' desires. We humans are relative newcomers on planet earth. Today the momentum of human-induced climate change is compounded by the extent of this damage in multiple sectors, going beyond the planet's capacity to absorb the effects of what corporations *are doing*, and government are *not doing* to protect and build our common good (Ostrom 1990).

Joining Facts and People's Feelings

Reflecting on the statement in the previous paragraph, the phrase 'irreversible in human time scales' does indeed seem negative. No wonder people say to themselves, and sometimes to me, 'Well, that's it'. 'There's no use trying, then', or 'That's terrible, I feel powerless', 'That makes me feel hopeless, really'. The conversation is back to accusations of being negative, or at least comments like this make ordinary people feel like they want to give up. It is a such a fine line to ride in communicating, between comments that seem negative and avoiding dishonest, bland or up-beat explanations, under-playing that there are multiple indicators of how serious climate change is. How, instead, do you create positiveness, a sense of possible action, telling individuals they can do something? Further, how do you avoid the glib, the nice, the non-alarmist tropes in how you speak that amount to a kind of bland denialism? De facto denialism not from the audience, but from you the presenter or teacher! Now that is a reversal isn't it? Obviously, this is not climate denialism, which is something that we communicators are committed to overcoming. It is the subtler danger at a different register: climate-seriousness denialism.

So, it is something else that makes learning about the facts, the serious climate change facts and their implications, feel very negative to people. Actually, not just to ordinary people in the community, but even to educated people, who read a bit, who have had some further education or other exposure acquainting them with the realities of climate change. We could come back to that—it is the implications of my instructional narrative that are shocking because I have learned to tell it simply. Not too many caveats, not details of every type of GHG, not the indefiniteness of more frequent cyclones, and bigger and fiercer forest fires and heat waves. I continue working to refine all the facts and trends and opinions down to something as simple and direct as possible.

The persistence of climate-negligent actions by corporations continues to increase species loss, soil degradation, and sea-level rise the as earth gets hotter. This behaviour is rapidly worsening the emerging consequences, not ameliorating them. It is vastly more dangerous than public discourse acknowledges. Widening acceptance of this new realisation of our environmentally ominous future is like prizing open a clam or opening a locked strongbox. Something must be said about why are we not talking much more about this impending societal shift for humans. Collectively we edge sidewise into language like 'climate smart', 'zero carbon', 'emissions trading' and similar ideas, but when this is not acted on, such talk becomes greenwashing and disingenuous (de Freitas et al. 2020). These are very human responses that must be combatted to even clear a space to talk accurately and with the integrity needed to address humanity's future.

Overcoming Negative Feelings

How does this understandable human response work and neutralise effective engagement with the seriousness of climate change? Like this. Anywhere the urgency or seriousness of what climate change means comes up in conversation, in speaking or writing, in classrooms, public meetings, or at social events, with any age group, or any level of education, or lack of education, a common reaction—perhaps the most common reaction—is the following. Some are disinclined to pay attention to climate change; others find it hard to accept the science or facts; and even among others who think climate heating is important and should be tackled, the response is almost always some version of this kind of statements:

> *'Gosh, that's very dark.'*
>
> *'It's so negative to talk about that stuff.'*
>
> *'That's a very negative outlook.'*
>
> *'Looks like we're doomed then.'*
>
> *'Why are you being so negative?'*
>
> *'Being negative won't help us solve this.'*
>
> *'You spoke well, but that presentation is just so negative.'*

Then there is the more explicit assertion: 'What you are talking about is so negative that people won't listen to what you say'.

Faced with this common response, the communicator is blocked, damned, one way or another. Like Victor Hugo's Jean Valjean in *Les Misérables,* 'If I speak I am condemned. If I stay silent, I am damned' (Lyrics.com nd.). The message does not get out. Either way, what you are saying is unacceptable and cannot be 'heard'; or it is necessary to back up from this mode of engagement and think of other ways of saying it. So even before thinking about conveying new environmental and climate understandings that society is being 'forced' by nature's response to learn, there is a basic issue of communicating the depth and seriousness of the situation in front of us.

I have learned to apply the pedagogical sandwich to how I introduce the utter seriousness of global climate change: (1) something good being done environmentally, (2) something dark about the present and future situation, and then (3) returning to something positive being done or needing action (Cai et al. 2022).

Lines of indirection to bypass the human preference for good news have to get past the sort of thinking in *Peanuts* cartoon character Lucy, who protests at Charlie Brown's lugubrious discussion of life being about 'ups' and 'downs' (Schultz 1962). Lucy speaks through several cartoon frames, amplifying her belief, 'Why can't my life be all "ups"? If I want all "ups", why can't I have them'. She ends with, 'I don't want any "downs"! I just want "ups" and "ups" and "ups"!' In national communities such as the United States with a strong cultural preference for positive and up-beat narratives, the resistance to sombre news is very strong, even before the politicisation of environmental and climate issues. In western cultures, if not a 'wealth theology' the secular ideology of endless economic growth on a finite planet gives not just individuals resistance to hearing bad news, but a cultural growth perspective that has lost most of its sense of human limits. A post-human philosophy will express this failure of human-centric 21st century thought that denied the bio-physical grounds of human life on a finite planet less than 13,000 kilometres across (Klein 2014).

More directly, I have learned to draw out and explicitly challenge the assertion that I am being negative, or that the account I am giving to an audience is negative. Not at all, I reply, I am a positive sort of person. I like new ideas, innovations, and great solutions. By personal temperament I have a positive outlook on life. In countering the put-back that I am being negative in teaching or other communications, that positivity rings true as a rejoinder. But that can only be a start of serious engagement and wrestling with such a pervasive and hegemonic understanding that needs empathy, agreement-where-possible, and back-and-forth, conceding one concern while suggesting a deeper interpretation of it. Then repeating this process, as circumstances allow, with the next concern or a different interpretation of the same concern.

When the strong assertion is made that young people in Greta Thunberg's generation talk environment but still drive their parents' cars, this means pedagogically developing a whole meta-process in the teaching and learning process. It means going below the first level of statement-and-reaction. The cultural ground framing peoples' local, consumerist, but-I'm-only … thinking has to be outflanked, out-thought, invited into a new space. I offer some suggestions from consistently experimenting with these efforts. This is not from having mastered these strategies, but from being 'in the trenches', trying to contribute to people moving in the right direction and starting to address the importance for themselves as individuals, families, communities, and indeed humans *in toto* in the coming decades.

As I struggle with the response that I am being negative, I notice this is almost never a challenge to the facts or the basic narrative I have been presenting, as I set out one or another aspect of the seriousness of climate change. So far, I have not gone down this path in constructing a further reply, but as I write this chapter I am thinking further about what opportunities could be opened up here. Maybe at the end of a session or tutorial, I could come back around to make this observation to participants, and then ask them what it might mean? I am not sure how doing so would work in public

meetings, because often audience expressions of the material being very negative are asides to the speaker after the event. But there are question times at the end of presentations when someone poses a question or a comment is framed in this way. It is worth my learning more about how to handle this.

Let me reiterate, for many people this worry about the dark climate future they are being presented with, implied or explicitly, is what I call a perfectly understandable human response. Perhaps it comes from fearing the unknown, working from a background of public disavowal, maybe a background of politicised denial, social media disinformation, or many other possible reasons. For the most part this is not an issue of hostility or overt political taking sides. These are ordinary people, responding in genuine and ordinary ways to the darkness of an ominous scenario being sketched. This concern raises a plethora of impossible-to-answer issues for people. You mean we humans are causing this? To ourselves? To all of us? The personal safety need is to shut down thinking about such diffuse and too-big-too-handle matters. Frequent storms and flooding, and fires, Greenland melting, food and water conflicts, moving cities away from the coast. But I have been learning to go further than this point in what I choose to do when confronted in these kinds of interactions.

Actively Engaging

First, I now include some comments about the seriousness of the topic *during* the talk, anticipating end-of-talk responses. Then, in replying to the responses about how negative the scenario is, I can now refer back to the framing already provided: I am not just laying these bleak consequences of humans causing climate heating and its inevitable effects thoughtlessly—I too see the grim aspects of what we are talking about. Second, at the beginning or early in the discussion I will now often explicitly name the issue of what can seem negative. I tell them that people often have an understandable definite reaction to this material, suggesting that I am negative in my outlook and what I present to them. Naming my communication problem to my audiences as I start to interact with them, I now often treat this as part of my preamble. I'm giving you a warning; I'm on the same side as you. In other presentations or sessions when I talk people will sometimes say I'm being very negative. You might feel the same way, so let's talk about that.

I give them my problem: some folks' reaction to what I have previously presented. I give them my response: not so, I say. I confide to them that I have to conceptually make a distinction for them, so they can think about the seriousness of climate change in the way I do. See if you can look at it from my point of view—and the planet's point of view. There are two things going on here in what is said and how people respond: a negative possibility on the climate change front that is very serious, and me being telling you about this dark scenario. Just because I am bringing news or information that could have very negative consequences, does not mean I am being negative. Yes, I am telling you the seriousness of climate change and sea-level rising, but I reject you calling me a naysayer. I'm trying to get at the truth, the truth that governments, oil companies, and Facebook rabbit holes are pretending is not the case.

Does that make me negative? Very much my answer is a big fat 'No'. In fact, I am being positive with you in more than one way. First, I'm aiming to give you as much truth as we know about. Not science over-carefulness, not fossil fuel companies who would say what they say because they are making money, damning us to climate hell, and I'm not a denialist who feels that everything they get told is lies. Second, I am joining the dots for you in ways that most people do not. Quite simply, when Greenland melts the calculations are that there is enough ice to add seven metres to the sea-level. I am clear, it is not *if*, but *when*. That's not extreme; wait till Antarctica melts further on. What will seven metres do to London, New York, Florida and coastal cities everywhere? How far, how soon; when will we have to re-locate? What about the costs? And the flooding in the meantime? What about our grandchildren?

Third, I tell audiences it is action, the sooner the better, that gives us any chance of continuing. I am not talking about this very important and desperately serious topic to make you or me feel 'down'. Feeling down is perfectly reasonable, but there is no point in us being ostrich-like and putting our heads in the sand. That way is certain ruin. We must act. I am being positive both because I believe we need to be, and also because as a communicator I believe we need to very strongly message that action, innovation, change is where our best pathway lies. In fact, this is a whole new entry point to the discussion of the seriousness of climate change and its coming impacts on humans. As well as words like anthropocene, a new lexicon is springing up to capture the seriousness of climate change, about the feelings rather than the facts themselves.

I wrote a poem called 'Climate sadness', after coming back from a visit to Cambodia for a conference, realising a large part of that country will go under the sea as climate change progresses (Burns 2021a). So unnecessary, so unfair, such an 'own goal', to use the parlance of football. These feelings were much more visceral than the important academic conversations about climate and development of the conference I'd attended. Epistemologically speaking, social knowledge, and the 'social proof' by which most of us, most of the time, decide on what is true, what is the case, what we should do, applies to climate change no less than other smaller decisions and how we learn to 'know' (Cialdini 2008). That proof often comes from our feelings, or reading the feelings and attitudes of those around us, or those we respect. Look out for other words in this growing lexicon beyond climate sadness (Mufarech 2022): climate anxiety, climate emotions, eco-anxiety, climate sorrow, some of these terms we recognise

from other spheres of life, others become attached to new concepts about our climate situation. Pihkala (2022: 4-5) starts the work of reviewing this rapidly burgeoning field.

Conclusion

One of the privileges of being a teacher and communicator is learning new things while preparing material. This has a special importance in environmental teaching and learning. Adjusting our views allows us to engage with existing ideas and acquire new understandings, terms, and phrases, while developing skills to communicate at different registers. The seriousness of communicating climate change, so people understand clearly and are willing to act, involves every pedagogical skill in the book. It is a pedagogical axiom that teaching makes us learners, regardless of what students or audiences learn. Drawing others along this new path of understanding humanity's place on the planet is central to our future together.

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CONFRONTING CLIMATE CHANGE

Mainstreaming Climate Change in Legal Education

Climate change is a cross-sectoral, global phenomenon. For educators, it is a topic that crosses a range of academic disciplines, and spans highly technical, complex scientific considerations as well as wider ethical and equitable concerns. In 2022, the University of Waikato introduced the Bachelor of Climate Change degree (BCC). This specialist programme gives students cross disciplinary expertise, including in legal aspects of climate change. Consequently, the law curriculum was refreshed to support BCC students as well as students enrolling in established law programmes. This chapter will discuss this curriculum refresh and share some of the learnings from Te Piringa's experiences.

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Introduction

Climate change describes a long-term warming of the planet, above pre-industrial levels, as a consequence of anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, emanating from a variety of sources (IPCC 2018: 4). Failing to restrict global warming to below 1.5 degrees above pre-industrial levels will have significant consequences and will be experienced globally, crossing international jurisdictional boundaries (IPCC 2018: 4-5). Nationally and internationally, there is increasing political awareness of the risks of climate change and a desire for action (IPSOS 2022). While climate change is measured in scientific terms, and while hopes are often pinned on technological innovation, the role of law in helping—or hindering—humans to find solutions is of increasing interest (Thew et al. 2021). In New Zealand, a range of legal means to respond to climate change have been identified; an overview of these has been given by Winkelmann, Glazebrook, and France in their paper 'Climate Change and the Law' (2019). Their honours noted that litigation is increasingly being used as a pathway to climate action, touching legal areas that include international law, customary international law, human rights law, and private law, including tort law (2019: 80, 101). This is significant because an increase in climate change litigation may mean legal practitioners, rather than policy-makers, are leading legal responses to climate change. Whilst policy development through case law has its drawbacks, not all of these legal developments are the result of litigation: the Chancery Lane Project (Chancery Lane nd.) is a professional initiative which supports lawyers to integrate climate change considerations into contracts. 'Climate conscious lawyering' is an area of increasing professional focus, with Continuing Professional Development courses exploring the impacts of climate change on legal practice (Every-Palmer 2023). Consequently, there is an apparent need for legal education in New Zealand to take account of climate change more holistically, and for climate change content to not just be covered in specialist climate law papers and environmental and resource management law courses, but to instead become an embedded consideration within New Zealand legal education more generally.

In response, New Zealand law schools are considering how climate change is best addressed through the law curriculum. This article will discuss recent developments at Te Piringa–Faculty of Law at the University of Waikato, where, in 2022-2023, the law curriculum was reviewed with the intention of embedding climate change across all law papers. The article begins with an overview of climate change education, and, in particular, climate change legal education, before discussing climate change curriculum renewal at Te Piringa.

Climate Change Education

Although many Universities are already taking steps to embed climate change in their curricula, Climate Change Education (CCE) involves a holistic mainstreaming of CCE (Thew et al. 2021). 'Climate Change Education' is a broad term that has been defined in multiple ways, but the concept is 'ultimately concerned with ensuring that learners across all disciplines are aware of, and able to respond to, the risk, uncertainty and rapid environmental and social changes that a changing climate brings' (Thew et al. 2021: 2).[1] Additionally, CCE involves 'the nurturing of leaders and changemakers' (Thew et al. 2021: 2),[2] so prioritises the teaching of analytical and practical skills as well as substantive climate knowledge. CCE includes consideration of how climate change is already affecting—and will increasingly impact—industries and communities, both locally and internationally (Thew et al. 2021). To respond to these impacts, mainstreaming CCE involves a collective effort across all academic disciplines to ensure that 'actions to address the complex and dynamic challenges we face are informed by the rich, diverse expertise on offer across the higher education sector in its entirety' (Thew et al. 2021).

There appears to be a consensus in the literature in this area that a climate change education should develop learners' understanding about the causes of climate change, its consequences globally and locally across a range of timescales, the different stakeholders involved, the interlinkages with other sustainability challenges, the variety of solutions available, and the implications of choosing between these solutions for social and environmental justice.[3] Whilst a deep scientific understanding of the climate system may not be necessary or appropriate for all students, climate change programmes should provide a basic understanding of why the climate is changing, of the severity of the risk it poses, and of the need for an urgent worldwide coordinated response (Thew et al. 2021: 3-4).

In addition to developing subject-matter expertise, it is necessary to 'develop affective and behavioural skills that enable engagement with climate change and its impacts' (Thew et al. 2021: 3). A consequential consideration is around 'graduate attributes' and how academic programmes can develop these. In particular, CCE needs to address ethical issues such as global equity and resource distribution and 'should not be shy about teaching "emotional" responses such

1 *CCE sits within a broader context of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) which has the goal of equipping learners with transferable skills to respond to a wide variety of complex, dynamic challenges, including the Climate Crisis (Causley, Crawford & Milliner 2021; Mochizuki & Bryan 2015: 4-26).*

2 *Citing Strachan (2021).*

3 *These points are explicitly discussed in Thew et al. (2021).*

as compassion.' (Thew et al. 2021: 3) CCE should arguably incorporate 'approaches that cultivate integrated knowledge and global citizenship, while preparing students for curious, well-informed, big-hearted lives' (Thew et al. 2021: 4).[4] Similarly to the approach seen in Education for Sustainable Development (ESD), CCE should build key competencies such as: systems thinking, anticipatory thinking, normative competency, strategic thinking, collaborative competency, critical thinking, self-awareness, and integrated problem-solving competency (Ojala 2016: 7). However, in addition, CCE requires stronger technical competencies, given the technical and scientific nature of climate change (Causley, Crawford & Milliner 2021).

Climate Change and Legal Education

In 'An Urgent Call for Climate Mainstreaming: World Lawyers' Pledge on Climate Action' (Stucki, Futhazar & Sparks 2021), all lawyers are called 'to consider, integrate, and apply issues of climate change and climate justice within and throughout their respective areas of activity and expertise' , with the Pledge noting explicitly that it is *not* primarily addressed to 'environmental and climate lawyers', but rather, it invites 'lawyers of all kinds' — including practitioners, judges, scholars, civil servants, law students, lawmakers, and all others working in and with the law — to 'contribute to the monumental task of transitioning to climate-protective development.' Notably, 'Law Professors, Legal Educators, and Students' are the first category of lawyers addressed in the Pledge.[5] Mainstreaming climate change may also align with calls for a less specialised legal education, which Lord Justice Rabinder Singh has discussed in his book *The Unity of Law*. Singh LJ cautions against overspecialisation and reminds educators of the need for thinkers who can see 'the big picture'. Although climate change is a specialism within law, it is also the wider context in which law is developing — and offers a point of unity between different legal areas, if included consistently through a law programme (Singh 2022). Margaret A Young has noted that law 'is defined by, and operates within, a social and political context. It is one of the most rudimentary goals of legal education to show that this is so.' (2021: 352) This is especially so for Te Piringa, a law school which has 'law in context' as one of its three foundational principles.[6] Climate change is a cross-sectoral problem, touching on a variety of legal areas (Mehling et al. 2020). Interweaving climate change aspects through all legal teaching ensures that the curriculum will be relevant for addressing climate change issues, and aligns with research supporting a holistic and contextual study of law. This ensures that the core legal knowledge graduates acquire through law programmes will reflect the contemporary (and competing) legal, policy, and wider social arguments through which law is developed (Thew et al. 2021).

Of course, climate change also has a scientific context. Although legal educators are not usually best placed to offer an in-depth education in the scientific aspects, climate change is understood with reference to the science that measures it, so having a basic knowledge of the scientific aspects of the problem of climate change will assist students to better understand the role of law in helping — or hindering — us to find solutions (Thew et al. 2021). Beyond introducing the science, law programmes should also seek to develop learner understandings of how social norms and practices are driving climate change, as well as the opportunities and impacts of legal solutions supporting mitigation and adaptation, while also questioning the assumptions underpinning disciplinary practice (Thew et al. 2021). This would also align with curriculum decolonisation initiatives, while providing an opportunity to prioritise climate change learnings from the expertise of Indigenous communities and non-Western knowledge systems (Thew et al. 2021).

In addition to teaching knowledge of substantive and process aspects, there is, as noted above, a need to develop behavioural approaches that support engagement with climate change and empower learners to take action and work with others to solve problems (Thew et al. 2021: 3-4). In doing so, it is necessary to also acknowledge the strong emotional responses climate change engenders. As already discussed, climate anxiety is increasingly prevalent, especially amongst younger students, and this feeds into the mental health crisis more generally (Taylor 2021). An education that provides practical pathways for students and equips them with direct routes to engagement in climate action may be more beneficial than one that that, for example, focuses only on developing the skills needed to deliver on climate targets (Thew et al. 2021: 4).

4 *Citing UNESCO (2017).*

5 *The specific pledge made by legal educators reads: 'As legal educators, we can infuse climate change issues into the various topics we teach. We commit ourselves to make visible the relevant connections between climate change and the legal fields, norms, and doctrines that are the subjects of our courses and lectures. We will discuss substantive linkages, procedural barriers and opportunities, and systemic conflicts and synergies of climate concerns within all areas of law. Through our work as legal educators, we influence and impact the next generations of lawyers. It is therefore our particular responsibility to educate law students in a manner that prepares and enables them, in this new era of climate emergency, to effectively use the tools that the law provides. Reciprocally, as law students, we are in a position to stimulate and demand engagement with climate change issues throughout and beyond our legal education. On an institutional level, all of us will work to ensure that law school curricula are updated to include comprehensive coverage of environmental issues, in order to train and sensitise students for a future in legal practice or scholarship that is better equipped to face and tackle the climate crisis.' (Stucki, Futhazar & Sparks 2021).*

6 *For more, see University of Waikato nd.a.*

Students frequently express interest in, and concern about, climate change issues (BBC 2021). They may bring a lot of their own ideas to their climate change learning, so embedding climate change across all papers offers an entry point for engagement with students, which may be particularly helpful for those papers whose content covers less immediately accessible aspects of law. It does, however, mean that a superficial or superfluous approach will be seen for what it is by students, so it is important that the approach taken to mainstreaming climate change is authentic and appropriate (Thew et al. 2021).

Bachelor of Climate Change

'Developing a comprehensive, fair and effective solution to the problem of human-induced climate change is one of the most formidable challenges currently facing the international community.' (Boston 2011: 88) Richard Lazarus's famous categorisation of climate change as a 'wicked problem' because of its multi-dimensional and cross-sectoral nature emphasises the need for climate change responses, including educational, that are truly interdisciplinary, in contrast to educational approaches that silo climate change within disciplinary boundaries.[7]

In 2022, the University of Waikato introduced the Bachelor of Climate Change degree (BCC). This is a three-year degree, and is the first of its kind in the world.[8] It takes an interdisciplinary focus and combines scientific, economic and political understandings of climate change, with a particular focus on the impacts on Māori, Pacific, and Indigenous communities.[9] From 2023, BCC students were able to take law papers and to graduate with a law major.[10] Significantly, the law paper options are not limited to specialist climate law papers; instead, students are able to select papers from across Te Piringa's entire programme, although students are offered guidance on what paper combinations might be most beneficial for them, in light of their study and career goals.

The need to ensure that law papers would be able to contribute to the BCC programme offered an opportunity to refresh the Waikato law curriculum. Like many other law schools around the world, Te Piringa has been considering what an effective legal climate change education requires. This involves a broader question of how to teach subject matter that can be both a topic in its own right, but also a theme or aspect in every other taught course. It is apparent that climate change is a topic that needs specific courses devoted to it—and not just legal courses—yet the vast nature of the problem means that specialist climate change law papers cannot, of themselves, do justice to the topic: there's just too much content to cover (Mehling et al. 2020). So, specialist climate change law papers must be supported by a climate change focus across the law curriculum. This means there is an opportunity for survey courses offering breadth (such as a dedicated 'climate change law' course) and more specialised courses offering depth (such as specialist papers on climate finance), as well as the need to introduce a focus on climate change considerations in those papers which have not traditionally been seen as 'climate change law-related' topics (such as introducing climate change considerations into a course on Intellectual Property law) (Thew et al. 2021). This approach allows for the learning in one paper to reinforce learnings in other papers, and it allows the spotlighting of particular climate change concerns for different areas of law. The approach also offers a point of thematic or contextual unity across all paper offerings.

Te Piringa's Law Programmes

At undergraduate level, Te Piringa offers the Bachelor of Laws Degree (LLB) and Bachelor of Arts with a Major in Law (BA Law). LLB students take a core curriculum of law papers in their first three years of study and then have the opportunity to study elective papers. Te Piringa has a recognised research strength in environmental and resources management law, and this is reflected in the faculty's research-led teaching offerings.[11] However, as noted above, there is increasing recognition that climate change has broader significance and is not limited to environmental law (and traditionally related areas) but should instead be part of the social context in which law is studied more generally (Mehling et al. 2020).

The impetus for updating and refreshing Te Piringa's papers was, of course, the need for paper offerings to be able to contribute to the Bachelor of Climate Change degree from 2023. The BCC Law Major is based entirely on the (updated) Bachelor of Arts with a Major in Law programme.[12] Students enrolled in a Law Major in either the BA or BCC degrees will study:

7 A 'wicked problem' is one that 'defies resolution because of the enormous interdependencies, uncertainty, circularities and conflict stakeholders implicated by any effort to develop a solution'. Lazarus refers to climate change as a super wicked problem (2009: 1159).

8 For more information, see University of Waikato nd.b.

9 For more information, see University of Waikato nd.b.

10 The possibility of a potential future conjoint degree approach is also being currently explored.

11 For more on Te Piringa's research strengths, see University of Waikato nd.c.

12 For more on the BA in Law Programme, see University of Waikato nd.d.

Year 1: 30 points comprising:

- LEGAL103 Legal Method A (15 points)
- LEGAL104 Legal Method B (15 points)

These papers provide foundational disciplinary knowledge.

Year 2: 45 points selected from any 200 level LEGAL papers (the relevance of each of these areas to climate change is particularly noted):

- LEGAL201 Public Law—this paper provides an understanding of checks and balances in the constitutional state and the capacity of public law remedies (e.g. judicial review) to change the law (30 points)
- LEGAL203 Jurisprudence—this paper provides a philosophical grounding in Tikanga Māori and comparative legal thought to underpin Earth Jurisprudence (15 points)
- LEGAL204 Contracts—this paper provides an understanding of how contractual arrangements (e.g. procurement policies) can effect change (30 points)
- LEGAL207 Torts—this paper provides an understanding of how the law can develop novel duties of care to hold carbon emitters to account for their contributory share of cumulative emissions (30 points)

Year 3: 60 points selected from any 300 or 400 level LEGAL papers, including:

- LEGAL301 Crimes—this paper provides an understanding of how the criminal law can encourage regulatory compliance through strict liability (30 points)
- LEGAL304 Corporate Entities—this paper provides an understanding of how directors' duties can be reinterpreted to avoid environmental harm (15 points)
- LEGAL306 Dispute Resolution—this paper provides an understanding of the roles that arbitration, mediation, and negotiation play in establishing legal frameworks (e.g. Paris Agreement) and in providing compliance and dispute resolution mechanisms (15 points)
- LEGAL307 Land Law—this paper provides an understanding of the role played by legal techniques (e.g. covenants) in climate adaptation and leases in achieving energy efficient buildings (30 points)
- LEGAL407 Climate Change Law (15 points)
- LEGAL413 Ngā Tikanga Māori/Māori Customary Law (15 points)
- LEGAL414 Indigenous Peoples' Rights (15 points)
- LEGAL417 Immigration and Refugee Law (15 points)
- LEGAL428 Foreign Investment Law (15 points)
- LEGAL434 Environmental Law (15 points)
- LEGAL437 Public International Law (15 points)
- LEGAL440 Pacific Peoples and the Law (15 points)
- LEGAL442 Human Rights Law (15 points)
- LEGAL457 Insurance Law (15 points)
- LEGAL459 Law of the Sea (15 points)
- LEGAL466 International Environmental Law (15 points)

In general, it has been most straightforward to introduce climate change examples into existing papers with minimal changes to course content, rather than to require significant changes to the curriculum. While at least one dedicated climate change-focused lecture in each paper can most overtly demonstrate the place of climate change within the topic areas, this could also result in a 'bolt on'-type treatment of climate change (rather than a true embedding of the topic throughout the degree programmes). It will also require colleagues to produce new lectures for established papers, which does impact their workload and their course design. An anticipated (but ultimately, in Te Piringa's case, unfounded) risk was that some colleagues might be of the view that they could not create additional climate-change-focused lectures while continuing to cover all of the core content they were already teaching. An identified pathway to mitigate this was to ensure teaching teams include colleagues with a specific interest in climate change law, as they might be more willing to take responsibility for this aspect of the course.[13] The issue could also be mitigated where a course has to be updated for other reasons, for example where the points weighting for a course is changed and lectures must accordingly be revised.[14] Of course, the overwhelming nature of climate change means that it *is* the context in which the law must be taught, so, in order to teach law in context, it is necessary to teach climate change *as that context*.

For these reasons, it is suggested that, in general, a more immediately achievable approach to embed climate change in established courses such as core law papers may be via examples. This approach keeps paper content focused on existing core content, while refreshing the curriculum by introducing examples with a climate change focus to teach that core content. This might be via examples of the law that have a climate change context, or via problem scenarios used in tutorials that have a climate change context. Additionally, if some collectively agreed examples are deployed across the programme generally, these examples could be revisited consistently across core papers: such as, for example, a climate protestor example being encountered in a first-year paper like LEGAL103 Legal Method and then re-encountered (albeit with a different focus) in subsequent papers in second, third and fourth years.

One of the advantages of focusing on examples as a pathway for curriculum refresh is that examples contextualise learning.

13 *Researchers active in the climate change space are set out at University of Waikato nd.c.*

14 *As occurred for LEGAL203 Jurisprudence in 2022.*

This aligns with the suggestion that it may be helpful to begin to think about climate change as a (dominant) context in which the law must be understood, rather than as a discrete topic or a 'theme' for a course to consider alongside other aspects of the topic.

Level 100 papers

Given that LEGAL103 and LEGAL104 are the two foundational legal studies papers that BA in Law students and BCC students majoring in Law will take, it appeared logical to focus on these papers for the curriculum review. These papers are, fundamentally, disciplinary foundations papers that teach skills more than specific content. Therefore, for these types of papers, adapting the content to allow a climate change focus should be more straightforward than for some other papers. That said, the need for a 'climate change and legal method' focus is perhaps less apparent than for a paper like LEGAL207 Torts, where there's a clearer justification for a dedicated focus on climate change in light of how the law can develop novel duties of care to hold carbon emitters to account for their contributions to cumulative emissions. Thus, it seemed that LEGAL103 and LEGAL104 would offer an opportunity to introduce climate change examples which could then be returned to in subsequent papers (such as criminal law and contract law papers), which would allow climate change to operate as a source of thematic unity throughout the degree programmes.

Level 200 papers

Whereas Te Piringa's Level 100 papers are focused on introducing the New Zealand legal system and foundational disciplinary skills, Level 200 papers offer students the chance to look more in-depth and substantively at specific legal areas. For these papers, there was an opportunity to update the curriculum to give greater prominence to climate change content in these legal areas, especially given the significant recent climate change developments in the areas these second-year papers touch on. Climate change cases in New Zealand have tended to be based on administrative/constitutional law considerations and have taken the pathway of holding governments to account for climate change commitments (particularly following the Paris Agreement commitments), although tort law examples have also recently begun to emerge (Winkelmann, Glazebrook & France 2019). At the same time, practitioners have been developing contract law clauses to bring climate change considerations into contract law, and including these in the contract law paper supports both a climate change contextual focus for Te Piringa's law degrees and ensures the professional relevance of the degree programmes.

Helpfully, these papers are all Level 200 papers and the other second-year paper, Jurisprudence, offers an opportunity to enhance second-year law learning by introducing legal philosophy considerations that underpin public and private law learnings. In 2022, the Jurisprudence paper became a trimester (rather than a full-year) paper. A new teaching team also took responsibility for the teaching of this paper in 2022 and the paper was given more of an Environmental/Earth Jurisprudence focus, to align with their research interests. Consequently, there was less of an immediate need to give the paper a specifically climate change-focused refresh at this time, although the paper was reviewed to ensure it could coordinate with the climate change-driven changes across the rest of the law curriculum, especially since the curriculum refresh offered an opportunity to align examples and cases across the four Level 200 paper offerings, to scaffold students who would meet the same content from a different but complementary perspective across the different papers.

Level 300 papers

As with the 200 level papers, Level 300 papers offer students in-depth substantive learning in core legal areas, with criminal law, corporate law, dispute resolution, and property law being covered. These Level 300 papers are already quite content-heavy and three of these five papers are now trimester papers (rather than full-year papers), which limited the scope for introducing new content to a certain extent. We again suggested that employing climate change law examples may be more helpful and immediately attainable for paper convenors looking to update their papers for 2023-2024, rather than introducing dedicated climate change law lectures (although this is encouraged where colleagues are willing and able to do so). Where the same examples from Level 100 and Level 200 papers can be adapted for reuse in third-year papers, this may also be helpful to students. However, this may not work for every paper, and the focus must be on what is appropriate for the students' learning.

Level 400 papers

As noted above, Te Piringa offers a range of Level 400 elective offerings, many of which already touch on climate change. This meant that there was an existing suite of elective offerings that already deliver a climate change legal education at Level 400. This is not to suggest that these papers should not be reviewed (they are, of course, subject to an annual paper review, which is a consultation with paper convenors which seeks feedback and encourages reflection on what has worked well and what could be changed for future years). It is also not to suggest that other Level 400 papers could not be updated to cover climate change content. Rather, it was recognised that LLB, BA, and BCC students already had a pathway through the existing elective offerings to cover climate change content. This meant that our immediate focus could be directed to curriculum review for the Level 100–300 papers.

The one exception to this is LEGAL436 Legal Ethics. Climate change raises a number of ethical issues, which invite continuous consideration across the legal curriculum. However, the professional focus of LEGAL436 Legal Ethics offers students an opportunity to consider the professional obligations that

the climate crisis may impose. It is increasingly recognised that the legal profession has a responsibility to understand the climate implications of its work and to consider how it ought to be a part of the effort to mitigate the climate crisis.[15] The Hon Justice Brian Preston SC notes in 'Climate Conscious Lawyering' (2021: 53) that:

> *Lawyers need to advise clients of the potential risks, liability and reputational damage arising from activity that negatively contributes to the climate crisis. Lawyers also need to advise clients of the wisdom of disclosing (and the risks, liability and reputational damage of not disclosing) the climate-related risks to the corporation's entire business operation (including supply chains) when reporting to regulators, investors, financers and shareholders.*

LEGAL436 is the one elective offering that almost all law students will take. Because of this, it was viewed in the same way as the core LLB papers: that is, as another paper through which we could ensure climate change would be embedded throughout the curriculum. By providing for climate change to be addressed through our core papers, where they will reach all students, our intention is to ensure that our students have a climate-conscious legal education.

Concluding Remarks

The introduction of the BCC degree offered a timely opportunity for Te Piringa to review its curriculum and to take a leadership role in the mainstreaming of climate change into law programmes. This mainstreaming approach aligns with the evolution of climate change from legal speciality to legal context and aligns with Te Piringa's 'Law in Context' legal education focus, but it also meant that there was a need to update the curriculum to ensure that law paper offerings genuinely provide a climate change context for legal education. By focusing the curriculum refresh on examples, continuity with existing course materials could be ensured, while greater alignment between papers in our programmes could be fostered through the use of common, climate-change-focused examples.

15 *For example: What does the duty to uphold the rule of law mean in the context of the climate crisis? Should lawyers be able to refuse instructions on climate-related ethical grounds? Do lawyers have a duty to advise their clients in a 'climate conscious' way?*

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REVITALISING ENGLISH MEDIUM INSTRUCTION

Hyper-Blended Learning in China During Covid-19

During the Covid-19 pandemic, educators worldwide faced unprecedented difficulties, with unique struggles emerging for those teaching in China or to mainland Chinese learners. This chapter highlights how the teaching and evolution of one course over the three years of the pandemic led to the natural emergence of a 'hyper-blended learning' environment; where teachers and students had to transition between online and in-person modalities, diverse platforms, and various situations. This chapter further explores the lasting impact of the pandemic on teaching practices in China, featuring a blend of technology, challenges, and enhanced flexibility.

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Introduction

The Covid-19 pandemic brought with it unprecedented challenges to education systems worldwide, forcing systems, educators, and learners to rapidly adapt to new learning environments. The widespread closure of educational institutions and the shift to 'emergency remote teaching' (Hodges et al. 2020) during that time underscored the importance of flexible teaching approaches to ensure continuity for teachers and learners. In China, these challenges were particularly significant due to the wide-ranging, changeable, and often strict anti-virus measures. These measures called for the implementation of a variety of approaches to learning and the dynamic reactive creation of resilient courses. This chapter is based on the emergent concept of hyper-hybrid learning spaces (Nørgård & Hilli 2020), an approach that combines and blends many aspects of course design, teaching, and learning. This chapter explores how this approach emerged and its implications for teaching and learning in China.

The primary objective of this chapter is to relay my own personal experience of teaching in China during the pandemic. Through this perspective, I will offer a view on how we implemented new learning approaches during the pandemic and how students adapted to these changing classroom dynamics, the role of technology in facilitating these changes, and the impact of these changes. By drawing directly from my own experience, I hope to provide insights into the challenges and opportunities faced during that time and offer experience-based recommendations for enhancing teaching and learning in the post-pandemic era. This chapter also seeks to contribute to the broader academic discourse on the future of education in the post-pandemic era.

To achieve these aims, this chapter will be structured as follows. Firstly I will present a brief overview of the context of the course. Then I will briefly detail the changes that occurred through each iteration of the course from 2019-2022. Following this, I will examine the emergent themes identified in the changes and finally I will draw some implications from our experience for course designers, teachers, and students.

Background to the Course

The onset of the Covid-19 pandemic in China in early 2020 saw a massive uptake in alternative learning models in classrooms across the country. Over the next three years, education institutions at all levels would be tasked with adapting to pandemic control policies, while also ensuring that students maintained their course of study.

To properly illustrate the ever-changing situation of teaching and learning during the pandemic in China, I will focus on the experience of teaching one English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) course. This course is taught in the autumn semester of each year; I will briefly describe how we taught the course in 2019, 2020, 2021, and 2022.

The course is taught at the University of Waikato Joint Institute at Zhejiang University City College, with the objective of cultivating second-year students' language proficiency and academic skills. The course builds upon the foundational language and academic skills acquired in the first-year English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and general English courses, and is intended to prepare students for their future studies in their respective majors. There is, on average, a total enrolment of 240 students who are divided into three streams: finance (120 students), design interface (60 students), and media (60 students). The students on the programme have been of varying levels of English proficiency, ranging from A2 to C1. The course is ordinarily taught by two instructors, with four 60 person lectures per week and eight 30 person tutorials per week. The semesters run for a total of 18 weeks, where the first 16 weeks are teaching weeks and the final two weeks are exam weeks.

2019

In 2019, the second-year English language program at the Joint Institute was a generalized course that primarily assessed students individually. The course was centred around one long written assignment that was marked first as a draft and then as a final assignment. In addition, there were three 'reading critiques' where the students had to submit a critical analysis of a reading from a set reading list. The students finished by taking a final in person written exam which reviewed key skills learned throughout the term. The course was delivered in person onsite in Hangzhou for the duration.

2020

A decision was taken to comprehensively redesign the program in 2020 to incorporate more group-based assessment. As the dawning reality of the pandemic set in, this decision also attempted to integrate the best practice of blended teaching and learning by incorporating online components and integrating various technological aids. The main assessment changes are summarised in Table 1.

In September 2020 the course was initially started in online format, but instructors arrived in China after the first week of class. The rest of the semester passed without too many issues as the Covid-19 pandemic was largely controlled in China. During this semester, we replaced the original individual assignment with a group assignment and a poster presentation. We also augmented the assessments by adding a portfolio of 'academic discourse' (AD) tasks which directly related to skills needed in their chosen discipline.

2019 ALL	2020 BBF	2020 BDI / BDM
Individual problem solution essay based on 'listening in lectures'	Group report (Draft, final)	Group problem solution essay, with reflection (Draft, final)
Traditional presentation.	Poster presentation	'Traditional' in class presentation
Reading critiques	5 academic discourse tasks	5 academic discourse tasks
	Case study analysis Reflective paragraphs Article analysis Email writing Peer review task	Note taking Reflective journal Email writing Critical thinking task Article synthesis task
Final exam	Unchanged	Unchanged

Table 1. Main assessment changes, ENSLA100 2019 to 2020: Bachelor of Business (Finance) (BBF); Bachelor of Design (Interface) (BDI); Bachelor of Design (Media) (BDM), University of Waikato Joint Institute, Zhejiang University City College.

2021

The 2021 iteration of the course started in face-to-face format. The big change we made from 2020 was the introduction of McGraw Hills *Connect* adaptive learning software. This was introduced to give us options for asynchronous teaching. By this time, pandemic controls had been stepped up in China and all assessments needed to be available to be delivered both in-class and at home. Average attendance was high throughout the semester, but each week a small number of students would be quarantined due to either a school or city Covid-19 protocol. This meant that, without fail, each week students would need to be accommodated. Often the students would be quarantined at short notice and so would struggle to complete work on time. This created a situation where we needed to offer both online and offline options for all assessments and both asynchronous and synchronous options. In the final two weeks of the semester, one of the teachers was quarantined. This meant that the course was delivered fully online for the final two weeks.

Some examples of adjustments that we made during the semester were: we allowed video submission for the presentations; feedback sessions could be conducted via video call; we accepted 'online' peer review sessions using *WeChat* and we also encouraged students to include screenshots of *WeChat* conversations as part of their work. In addition, we offered a one-week extension to all assignments, where possible, and recorded some classes to share with students.

2022

The 2022 autumn semester began with one teacher onsite and one teacher delivering remotely from outside China. This resulted in the course being delivered in a hybrid format, where lectures were delivered synchronously online (these were also recorded) and tutorials were handled in person by the onsite instructor. The *Connect* learning platform was removed from the course due to content issues, but the rest of the assessments remained largely consistent. In autumn 2022 the Covid situation was quite severe in China and over the semester many students were quarantined or isolated due to sporadic Covid outbreaks and being close contacts. All assignments had to be offered in-person and offline both synchronously and asynchronously. Towards the end of the semester Covid-19 measures were relaxed in China, which resulted in large numbers of students contracting the virus simultaneously; due to this, the final three weeks of class were delivered fully online including the presentations and final AD tasks. The final exam was converted to a take home exam which students were given a week to complete, and they had to submit a video as part of the assessment. Although we also offered students the option of returning in February 2023 to sit an in person written exam, no student took this choice.

Discussion

Although the demands of teaching EAP in higher education necessitate ongoing reflection on course design (Freddi 2015), it is true that many modifications to our course were driven by the rapidly evolving Covid-19 response at all levels in China. The term 'emergency remote teaching', introduced earlier, is defined by Hodges et al. as 'a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis circumstances' (2020). For us, however, this 'temporary' shift evolved into a gradual transformation over three years, during which time we steadily incorporated diverse approaches to assessment and learning.

This transformation resulted in significant alterations to the course structure and assessment methodologies between 2019 and 2022. Firstly, we placed greater emphasis on group work, both in class and for assessment purposes. Secondly, students were assessed through various methods including online and offline formats, and synchronous and asynchronous strategies. Thirdly, while the 2019 course structure was relatively inflexible with fixed schedules for each class and assessment, subsequent iterations of the course introduced greater flexibility. We began to allow students to submit their work in diverse ways, at times more convenient to them. In addition, the traditionally rigid roles of the student and teacher evolved. We increasingly encouraged students to take a more active

role in their learning and gave them the freedom to devise unique approaches to their tasks. The resulting shifts in course design, assessment strategies, and role dynamics represent our adaptive response to the challenging circumstances imposed by the pandemic.

Hyper-Hybrid Learning Spaces

What emerged during our four-year experience is a sort of 'hybrid pedagogy' (Stommel 2012). The 'hybrid' here signifies more than the mere blending of spaces—it also encompasses the emergent intersections within our teaching. Our classroom and its various digital extensions became a 'hyper-hybrid learning space' (Nørgård & Hilli 2020), where multiple elements of pedagogy and course design simultaneously integrated to forge a novel mode of teaching and learning. This process occurred gradually over the course of four years. Our tasks required students to assume both passive and active roles in their learning, blending formal and informal learning methods. We mixed digital and physical tools within the same activity or class and overlapped synchronous and asynchronous teaching and learning. This approach enabled a course pace that was simultaneously swift and gradual, and an overall approach that was, at times, radically student-led.

Numerous studies have attested to the potential of this form of learning to enhance education in a variety of ways (Bayne et al. 2020; O'Byrne & Pytash 2015). Yet these methods go against traditional 'transmissive pedagogy' (Liu, Lin & Zhang 2017) where professors have been expected to be all-knowing fonts of knowledge leading and controlling the classroom, with students viewed as passive knowledge recipients (Tam et al. 2009).

Our experience from 2019 to 2022 indicated that there is room for alternative pedagogies in China. When given the chance, our students embraced a more active role in their learning, reaching out to their instructors over various platforms and arranging one to one or one to group meetings to discuss work. At the same time, students also became more engaged with each other by setting up *WeChat* groups, hosting meetings, and sharing iterations of work for peer review. This backs up research which has shown positive learner attitudes towards technology-enhanced learning, particularly regarding collaborative learning through Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) during the pandemic (Dewi & Muhid 2021).

The potentials of learning in hybrid or hyper-hybrid learning spaces come from modifying and manipulating dimensions such as time, space, place, pace, and educational structures to empower teachers and learners to collaborate across contexts beyond the campus (O'Byrne & Pytash 2015).

Embracing Technology in the Classroom

The evolution of our pedagogy was facilitated and shaped by the tools that we came to rely upon during the pandemic. Due to institutional, cultural, and practical constrains, our choice of tools was not always 'pedagogically driven'. However, we used a variety of tools to ensure our students had access and were likely to engage with the course.

Table 2 provides a summary of all tools used, the years we used them, and their function within the course.

Tool	Function	Years used
WeChat	Creating class groups, one to one conversations with students, sharing resources, planning sessions, communicating with colleagues.	2019-2022
Zoom	Synchronous teaching	2020-2022
Panopto	Recording classes, transcription	2020-2022
Tencent Meeting	Synchronous teaching	2021-2022
Dingtalk	Synchronous teaching, communicating with class groups, taking attendance, class administration.	2021-2022
Blackboard	Managing class files, sharing resources, grading assignments, sharing links.	2019-2022
Turnitin	Checking assignments for plagiarism, grading assignments.	2019-2022
Connect	Adaptive learning, instant feedback to learners.	2021
Kahoot	In class quizzes for students.	2020-2022

Table 2. Tools used to deliver ENSLA 100: English for the Professions courses at University of Waikato Joint Institute, Zhejiang University City College, 2019 to 2022.

Based on the above, we can see that over the four years of the course technology played an increasingly important role in our teaching. Language learners value social interaction (Luan et al. 2020) and we were able to offer this with tools such as: *Zoom*, *WeChat*, *DingTalk*, *Tencent Meeting*, and *Panopto*.

Evolution of Assessment

Assessment plays a crucial role in EAP writing instruction, shaping and guiding the learning process (Gibbs 2006; Higgins & Thompson 2010). It is also an integrated facet of language curriculum design (Nation & Macalister 2010). As the paper we teach serves as a gatekeeper paper for later courses, the design and implementation of our assessments carry significant weight for us and other stakeholders within the Institute. Although some changes we implemented were reactive in nature, they largely echoed broader trends in assessment design in other educational contexts during the pandemic. For instance, we gradually moved towards qualitative and continuous assessment methods as opposed to the exam-centric approach that was common pre-2020 (Montenegro Rueda et al. 2021). This led to us promoting more consistent and continuous learning (González et al. 2020).

Providing students with feedback is one of the major objectives of writing assessment. In 2019, the most demanding aspect of course delivery was managing how to give this feedback. The course design necessitated significant amounts of written individualized feedback, imposing considerable strain on instructors. However, by 2022 we managed to maintain crucial formative assessments but pivoted to a group-focused approach, significantly alleviating the burden on teachers. At the same time, we introduced additional modes of feedback on student work, including peer review, group meetings, and reflective exercises. These changes not only mitigated the instructors' workload but also facilitated multi-dimensional feedback, fostering an environment conducive to comprehensive learning and self-assessment.

Amid all these changes, student performance remained largely consistent, with only minor fluctuations from year to year.

Implications

EAP is not simply a matter of teaching academic literacies. It is about a combined academic and cultural education in a 'context sensitive' approach (Hyland 2006: 16). This context-sensitive model has been thrown into sharp relief by the Covid-19 crisis as the context evolved and shifted from week to week. According to O'Byrne and Pytash, the potential of hybrid or hyper-hybrid learning spaces lies in their capacity to adapt and transform dimensions like time, space, place, pace, and educational structures, empowering teachers and learners to collaborate across contexts beyond the campus confines (O'Byrne & Pytash 2015). This experience illustrates that by embracing new pedagogical models, we can create engaging and effective learning environments, even in the face of challenging circumstances. This has implications for course designers at the higher education level.

From a course design perspective, our shift towards a more flexible, hyper-hybrid learning space underlines the importance of adaptability in course design. The successful integration of synchronous and asynchronous elements, digital and physical tools, and active and passive learning roles calls for designers to consider multiple dimensions in the learning process. The experience also emphasises flexible assessment design. We moved towards qualitative, continuous assessment methods and gradually included various forms of feedback, like peer review and group feedback. Effective course design goes beyond just content delivery and needs to incorporate varied and flexible modes of assessment (Black & Wiliam 2009) and feedback that align with the learning objectives and the learning environment. Our experience is also relevant for teachers. Rather than acting as the sources of knowledge, we needed to adapt our role to be facilitators and guide students towards active participation and the ability to navigate both digital and physical learning spaces. We also needed to adapt to providing various forms of feedback, taking on the role of a facilitator or coach in addition to the traditional role of an instructor. Given that one of the aims of EAP is to socialise learners into particular academic discourse communities (Alexander, Argent & Spencer 2008), as a result of taking on these new roles we placed responsibility back into the hands of our students and our approach gradually socialised our learners into participating and engaging with their own learning. This means that teachers in the higher education context, especially in deeply hierarchical societies like China, should explore alternative roles and modalities for their teaching.

For students then, this experience and the lessons one can draw from it illustrate the potential of active participation in their learning. Course design that allows for flexibility and choice encourages students to take ownership of their learning process, seek help when needed, and engage in collaborative learning. The shift towards more flexible learning environments requires students to develop self-regulation skills, time management, and adaptability. The various forms of assessment and feedback also provide students with multiple avenues to understand and improve their learning. This can lead to deeper engagement with the course material and improve their learning outcomes.

Conclusion

Looking ahead, the challenge is to carry forward the lessons learned and translate them into long-term productive change. According to Rapanta et al. (2020), the pandemic holds the potential to bring about improved teaching and learning practices in the post-digital era—if course designers could only implement them. Design frameworks for hybrid learning are not readily available (Fawns et al. 2022). So, it would be a start for designers to begin developing frameworks for integrating hybrid approaches to a variety of contexts.

Ultimately, the implementation of a hybrid pedagogy in EAP could enable educators to go beyond merely preparing learners for English studies. Instead, they will cultivate new types of literacy—'equipping students with the communicative skills to participate in specific (and changing) academic and cultural contexts' (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons 2002).

Furthermore, more research is needed to assess the efficacy of these changes, and to explore the long-term implications of hyper-hybrid learning spaces in different disciplines and contexts. Research suggests that Chinese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners appreciated online learning during Covid-19 and that they were well adapted to group work and using various learning technologies (Han, Geng & Wang 2021). Our findings support this. However, we need more empirical data to back this up. Research should also focus on the intersection of pedagogy, technology, and course design to optimise student learning outcomes.

In conclusion, the Covid-19 pandemic has underscored the necessity for readiness in the face of unforeseen challenges and the flexibility to adapt our pedagogical approaches to best serve our students' needs. Our experiences in China have yielded insightful, albeit context-specific, lessons. The interpretations presented in this chapter are limited by the fact that they focus on a single setting and the absence of student surveys to gather first-hand feedback on the course. These limitations suggest caution when trying to generalize our findings. Nonetheless, the insights gleaned provide valuable perspectives and will hopefully encourage further inquiry into alternative approaches to EAP instruction in the post-pandemic era.

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REVITALISING ENGLISH MEDIUM INSTRUCTION

Using Panopto to Encourage Deeper Learning and Reflection in a Writing Course

Due to teaching limitations during the Covid-19 pandemic, the University of Waikato undergraduate course ENSLA103 shifted to online delivery, using the Learning Management System Moodle for materials and the online video platform Panopto for lectures. In response to declining viewer statistics for videos recorded in Panopto, course instructors endeavoured to enhance interactivity in lectures through embedded comments and integrated quizzes. This chapter explores the strategies employed to boost student engagement and shares observed outcomes, aiming to rejuvenate interest and deepen understanding through interactive video elements.

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Overview

During the Covid-19 pandemic, the undergraduate course *English as an Additional Language: Effective Academic Writing* (ENSLA103), which focuses on effective academic writing for English as an Additional Language students, transitioned to fully online delivery. The course utilized the Moodle Learning Management System to provide lecture materials, notes, quizzes, and tutorial links. *Panopto*, a video software service, played a crucial role in delivering lecture topics, providing detailed explanations, and expanding upon course materials. However, over a two-year period, viewer statistics for Panopto videos decreased, leading to a decline in tutorial preparation, interaction, and completion of assessments and quizzes based around students being able to identify key information. Both Emhardt et al. (2022) and Pia et al. (2019) argue the importance of actively designing course videos for student engagement. Recognizing the need for increased engagement in ENSLA103, the course instructors decided to restructure and embed interactivity into the lecture videos using Panopto. Initially, they introduced comments within the videos, and later incorporated quizzes to encourage student participation and reflection during tutorials. This chapter discusses the course's situation, the strategies implemented to enhance student engagement, and the outcomes observed. By embedding interactive elements into the video lectures, the instructors aimed to revitalize student interest, facilitate a deeper understanding of the topics, and create an interactive learning environment.

Introduction

The Covid-19 pandemic necessitated a shift to online learning, impacting various educational disciplines, including English as an Additional Language (EAL) courses. This article focuses on ENSLA103, a first-year course designed to support EAL students in developing effective academic writing skills. With the course being delivered online via Panopto video software, the challenge of engaging students in the virtual environment and promoting deeper learning and reflection arose. Over a two-year period, from 2020 to 2022, viewer statistics for Panopto videos decreased. This led to a decline in student tutorial preparation, course interaction, as well as completion of assessments and quizzes. This article explores the efforts made to enhance student engagement by embedding interactive questions and quizzes into video lectures and examines the outcomes of these strategies.

Background

English as an Additional Language: Effective Academic Writing (ENSLA103) is a first-year course for English as an Additional Language (EAL) Speakers. It forms one of a suite of five ENSLA courses that support any degree. ENSLA103 is the only first-year course; there are two Level 2 courses (covering effective Listening and Speaking skills), as well as two Level 3 courses designed to prepare students for graduate study, including a course on Research Writing, and another on project work focused on the topic of Global Englishes. ENSLA103 is designed to help EAL students better understand the culture of western academic writing; it covers aspects such as genre-specific writing and associated variations in construction, language, and grammar, referencing techniques, summarizing, paraphrasing, and dealing with numbers and visuals within writing. All ENSLA courses are open to any EAL student (international and domestic), and ENSLA103 is one of those designated as a Disciplinary Foundations course: a course designed to give students a firm grounding in their chosen discipline early in their undergraduate degree. The EAL students taking the courses include students from the People's Republic of China (PRC), India, the Middle East, the Pacific Islands, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, and other Southeast Asian countries. In the past, the numbers in ENSLA103 have been as high as 300 and as low as ten students (from Sudan, the PRC, and the Pacific). The latter is the iteration discussed here. For the past two years, ENSLA103 has been run in an online format as a response to the Covid pandemic. Lectures were therefore delivered through the video software service Panopto, backed up with lecture notes and built-in tasks so that students could contextualise topics; students could also extend topics through other online activities embedded within the Moodle LMS. The students' understanding and knowledge of these topics was further checked and drawn out at online tutorials held via Zoom. This chapter analyses our efforts to make teaching academic writing online more interactive and engaging for students, and stimulate deeper learning and reflection by embedding interactive questions and quizzes into our Panopto video lectures.

Literature review

E-learning, also known as electronic learning, is the utilization of information and computer technologies to design and deliver educational experiences. It involves the use of electronic media, such as the internet, CDs, mobile phones, or television, to facilitate distance learning and teaching (Coman et al. 2020). The perceived usefulness and ease of use with e-learning play significant roles in students' attitudes and educators' adaption to blended learning, which was especially important with adapting to the Covid-19 pandemic (Coman et al. 2020; Cutri, Mena & Whiting 2020; Simonova, Faltynkova & Kostolanyova 2023; Janbani & Osmani 2023).

E-learning offers flexibility by eliminating spatial and temporal constraints, enabling access to a wide range of information, and promoting collaborative learning. However, issues like internet access costs, technical problems, and inadequate infrastructure can hinder effective engagement, particularly in underdeveloped regions (Coman et al. 2020; Simonova,

Faltynkova & Kostolanyova 2023). As many of the students were based internationally, this was a particular factor in ENSLA103.

The rapid shift to online education meant educators had to quickly adapt to online teaching and more heavily utilize e-learning tools like Learning Management System (LMS) and web conferencing software (Ng, Ching, & Law 2023; Simonova, Faltynkova & Kostolanyova 2023). LMS software offers several advantages, such as user-friendliness, effective time management, easy course and faculty management, report generation, and timely reminders for users (Alhaider & Nisa 2023; Coman et al. 2020). Students and teachers spent increased hours in front of screens for managing learning processes on LMS platforms and attending virtual classes, leading to reports of stress, anxiety, and sleep disturbances. Despite challenges, the adoption of LMS and e-learning platforms has proved beneficial in facilitating education delivery (Romero-Rodríguez et al. 2023; Weng, Ng & Chiu 2023; Simonova, Faltynkova & Kostolanyova. 2023).

ENSLA103 used Zoom video-conferencing for tutorials, but had the lecture content delivered via recorded videos, providing a blend for students studying online. Videos are considered powerful tools for educational purposes, and video-based learning (VBL) has been found to enhance learning outcomes, improve engagement, and facilitate teachers' professional development (Scagnoli, Choo & Tian 2019; Weng, Ng & Chiu 2023). Coman et al. (2020) identified seven crucial aspects in developing educational and instructional videos including managing and developing internet infrastructure to avoid interruptions, using friendly tools to aid student understanding, providing reliable and diverse electronic resources, building online communities to reduce isolation, employing effective techniques like debates and experiential learning, offering services to keep students and teachers updated on policies, and promoting collaboration between institutions. Video-conferencing in particular played a vital role for students, substituting face-to-face interactions and allowing teachers to assign team projects and use collaborative teaching tools (Coman et al. 2020; Janbari & Osmani 2023).

A significant challenge noted in the literature, however, is learners' ability to identify key information during recorded video content. To improve information selection, cues for attention guidance, like the use of pointing gestures, can be added to learning materials (Emhardt et al. 2022; Pia et al. 2019). However, expert verbalization may not always be sufficient to guide learners' attention, especially if domain experts use abstract terms or lack specificity (Emhardt et al. 2022; Pia et al. 2019).

VBL adds teaching presence, social presence, and cognitive presence to online courses, connecting learners with instructors and facilitating reflection and feedback (Scagnoli, Choo & Tian 2019). The effectiveness of VBL in achieving learning outcomes may vary based on students' prior knowledge and how effectively it is integrated with other course materials, as well as video content and length (Scagnoli, Choo & Tian 2019; Weng, Ng & Chiu 2023).

The move to internet-based learning environments has also been accompanied by a growing interest in understanding student engagement and its impact on learning outcomes. Engagement is a multidimensional construct, and cognitive engagement represents a student's level of investment in learning, including cognitive strategies for comprehension and understanding (Trenholm et al. 2019). Cognitive engagement is influenced by various factors, including motivation, self-regulation, and the quality of engagement with course content (Trenholm et al. 2019; Simonova, Faltynkova & Kostolanyova 2023).

International students studying in English were particularly impacted by the transition to online learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. The lack of real-life interaction, and language barriers such as foreign language anxiety (FLA), have caused challenges. FLA has been found to hinder emotional and cognitive engagement, leading to challenges in the learning process (Simonova, Faltynkova & Kostolanyova 2023; O'Reilly & García-Castro 2022; Tian & Lu 2022).

Various factors can influence student engagement in online learning. Interaction and social presence through synchronous teaching are crucial for developing a sense of belonging and fostering meaningful interactions (O'Reilly & García-Castro 2022). Additionally, language support and interactive use of videos can enhance student engagement (O'Reilly & García-Castro 2022; Scagnoli, Choo & Tian 2019).

Methodological application

The delivery of lecture topics was through Panopto, backed up with lecture notes and built-in tasks so that students were able to contextualise topics. The topic content was then extended through Moodle quizzes, Quizlets, and H5P activities. Lastly, the students' understanding and knowledge of topics was checked and further extended in the online Zoom tutorials.

The lectures presented online using Panopto were an integral part of this course. They not only delivered topics, but as with most lectures there was extra content embedded in them from the lecturer's perspective, such as advice on how students should approach topics and how the topics relate to the writing assessments that are built into the course. Students can sometimes find engagement with videos difficult, including knowing what information to focus on and what the lecturer might be referring to on screen. 'To overcome this challenge, teachers might try to verbally guide learners' attention to the relevant video elements. However, there may be several reasons why expert verbalisations remain insufficient to guide

learners' attention' (Emhardt et al. 2022: 847). One method of guiding learners' attention was to keep key points visible for a sufficient length of time, which meant illustrating points with examples that are not displayed. Pia et al. note 'As information is presented on the slides and then disappears, it is crucial for students to effectively visually search for what is relevant to the topic' (2019: 345). This is why we made sure to keep visual information static for several minutes while delivering content and providing verbal examples applying different writing techniques like paraphrasing. Another method used to guide the students' focus through the Panopto videos was to use the cursor to draw attention to key points in the material displayed in the lectures. 'The instructor might use pointing gestures to guide students' visual attention to the learning content that they are referring to' (Pia et al. 2019: 345). While there has been some debate over how effective using cursors to direct viewers can be in learner outcomes (Emhardt et al. 2022), in the absence of physically gesturing to content in the video, the use of the cursor was considered an acceptable substitute.

Furthermore, it was important for us that the videos did not appear too forced or artificial, and instead replicated the experience of a lecture. As noted in Scagnoli, Choo and Tian (2019: 401), 'Interaction with videos adds teaching presence and social presence to the courses … which increases engagement through the connection they feel with the instructor shown as a real person in class'. Therefore, within these videos, we tried to be as natural as possible in our delivery, including jokes, asides and other nuances found in face-to-face lectures, so the recorded lectures were important on many different levels. We also tried to keep the length of the videos under 10 minutes to reduce the cognitive load and allow learners to process the topic information more easily.

However, we were aware that the lectures and materials were not as stimulating at they could be. An assessment of Panopto viewer statistics for the first few weeks of the course supported this line of reasoning, as we could see that they were dropping. According to Scagnoli, Choo, and Tian (2019: 405) this could potentially be due to common student perceptions of video learning materials: 'Undergraduate students perceived VL as complementary, but not absolutely necessary for learning'. We were also cognisant of potential obstacles when teaching over the internet. As Lin, Wu, and Lee note, 'Although online learning environments have advantages for learning, they need extra support to help students concentrate on learning' (2022: 156). Online learning poses challenges for students who may not have any previous experience of a level of independent learning with expectations of unsupervised work like take home essays and self-directed study towards lecture content (Ng, Ching & Law 2023; Alhaider & Nisa 2023; Bao 2020; Trenholm et al. 2019). Furthermore, there are the challenges specific to online learning from other countries. Our overseas-based students faced many of the challenges that the Covid-19 pandemic presented for students in online learning, particularly regarding technical difficulties, internet connectivity issues, and inadequate digital infrastructure. Accessing information online requires reliable internet connections and appropriate computing devices. Some areas or households can have unfavourable study conditions: in particular a lack of internet infrastructure can hinder students' full engagement in online learning (Alhaider & Nisa 2023; Bao 2020). Maintaining effective communication between instructors and students can be challenging, through the combination of unreliable internet connections and different time zones, in addition to students opting to turn off their cameras to overcome internet connectivity issues. These difficulties can compromise students' learning outcomes (Simonova, Faltynkova & Kostolanyova 2023; Morrison, Naro-Maciel & Bonney 2021; Tian and Lu 2022; Wilczewski, Gorbaniuk & Giuri 2021; Weng, Ng & Chiu 2023; Alhaider & Nisa 2023). Additionally, there could have been a lack of rapport between the lecturers and students, not only because of distance between teachers and learners, but also because the students themselves were not in a shared location either, as they were spread across multiple countries. Simonova, Faltynkova and Kostolanyova (2023), for example, noticed that first-year students (such as the ones that studied ENSLA103) are also likely to be the most frustrated by online learning. Together these factors could lead to lessening enjoyment of the course and the topics covered. Therefore, we tried as much as possible to include many ways of engaging with topics and materials.

As noted above, we had become increasingly aware over the previous two years that perhaps the lectures and materials were not as stimulating at they could be. A re-check of the statistics backed up this belief, as although some videos had been looked at more than once, they were not looked at in their entirety. Furthermore, some students were simply looking at the beginning of the video and not revisiting it, or some were dipping in and out. The data indicated that there was a significant lack of engagement with the Panopto lectures. This was noted in the literature: video learning can be negatively impacted by studying from home. We began to think about what was happening in tutorials (where there was active engagement) and noted that students were not prepared for tutorial tasks and conversations. This necessitated re-teaching and reviewing content already delivered. We also noted something similar with engagement with online quizzes: the students were either trying to complete them multiple times or simply not able to complete them correctly. The effect carried over to the short writing tasks we were setting, in which we could see unevenness in the students' understanding of the main points in their regular short assignment tasks.

To improve student engagement, we strategised how the lectures could be made more appealing. The idea was to construct lectures that better reflected the experience of a face-to-face situation, where lecturers can raise questions or include quizzes to keep students engaged rather than simply delivering content. The LMS, Moodle, was not a limitation

in this regard, as it is well-known for its flexibility and ability to encourage users to collaborate (Coman et al. 2020). We considered the use of YouTube videos with online reflections, as we had found that YouTube was able to offer many ways to engage with the audience. Unfortunately, the internet security protections in the PRC, dubbed the Great Fire Wall of China (Griffiths 2019) precluded this strategy. Therefore, we chose Panopto, the video capture system used at the University of Waikato for recording lectures. We chose this system because we were familiar with it, it is supported in Moodle, it is standard for the university enabling plenty of technical support, and it is usable within the PRC.

Within Panopto, we trialled two options: embedding questions and embedding quizzes. The initial embedded comment/question was tied to text appearing in the Panopto video. Verbal repetition of the question was chosen to make engagement easier and more relatable. However, there was some possibility for user error with this method. In the first video created for students, an embedded question was verbally indicated but did not appear in the comments section of Panopto where required. So, while it was possible to give directions verbally, on the second attempt we moved to a clearly timestamped comment/question to which students could respond. The lectures chosen for these tasks covered how to write introductions. The questions in the comment section directly reflected the questions that are typically asked to students in this course's in-person lectures from previous years, such as 'Look carefully at the instruction words of the Essay title. 1. How many are there?' Some of these questions were open-ended and intended to garner a response, for example '2. What are [the instructions of the Essay title] asking you to do?' In addition, an image was displayed on the course Moodle page which directed students to the section of the Panopto recording where they were to make a comment on the lecture.

The act of making comments to the videos provided some engagement, but we felt it lacked authentic interaction, especially given the location of the comment section in the Panopto video window (in the bottom left corner of the screen rather than the front). However, partway through the trimester we introduced a new strategy: quizzes embedded into videos with content that facilitated asking basic comprehension questions, such as with quotations and when to paraphrase. The quizzes embedded in Panopto videos were more interactive as they involved the video pausing until the questions were answered, while the questions appeared in the video itself, rather than in an adjacent box. Even so, this method could not simply be applied to any of the Panopto video lectures. Instead, the quiz we used had to transition well to the course material to fit the type of questions being asked, which led to us choosing the Indirect Quotations and Paraphrasing lecture. The quiz entailed multiple choice questions such as 'If summarising someone's words, which perspective do you think people use?' and 'Would your paraphrasing or summary be written in a formal tone or informal tone?' These types of questions were used because the lecture focused on specific actions, rather than being simply descriptive. Compared to asking for comments, where students were asked 'why' something was done, the quizzes required a more closed question design, which better suited a simple comprehension/preparation question.

Having either a comment discussion or a quiz depending on the topic of the week would be ideal, although this would require some advance planning that was not possible in this specific situation, since the trimester was already well underway. However, as discussed below, the implementation of these methods did not have the expected effect and was therefore halted as it became impractical to keep investing the set-up time into adding the questions and quizzes.

Outcomes

The overall effect of these interventions was mixed. As teachers, this method of drawing greater levels of student engagement was novel, trialling what was for us a new means of supporting interaction from the students in an online environment. The trial also proved that the method of clarification questions/quizzes could be done in Panopto. We were able to see from a technological perspective that Panopto was flexible enough to handle what we wanted. Based on the findings from the literature that interactive use of videos can enhance student engagement (O'Reilly & García-Castro 2022; Scagnoli, Choo & Tian 2019), we truly believed that using Panopto in this way could promote deeper learning and reflection.

However, from the students we saw no change. Even though the viewer statistics on Panopto were more positive around the lectures where questions were embedded, none of the students attempted the embedded quiz through the streaming link, even though, according to the logs, the video itself was downloaded. There could be multiple reasons for downloading rather than streaming engagement, one of which could be limited access to the internet, particularly for students based overseas, which was noted as a frequent issue in the literature (Simonova, Faltynkova & Kostolanyova 2023; Tian & Lu 2022; Weng, Ng & Chiu 2023; Alhaider & Nisa 2023). Regardless of the cause behind the student activity, examining the Panopto statistics indicates that these efforts to improve student engagement were unsuccessful.

However, at the end of the course, students were asked to provide some evaluations on how they believe the course was run. Within these general evaluation questions, we also included questions about the embedded tasks within Panopto. These questions were Likert-style statements that invited students to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements: 'I found lecture

videos in Panopto easy to access' and 'The engagement tasks in Panopto were easy to understand'. The response distribution for 'I found lecture videos in Panopto easy to access' was Strongly Agree: 85.71% and Disagree: 14.29%. Meanwhile the response rate for 'The engagement tasks in Panopto were easy to understand' were Strongly Agree: 57.14%, Agree: 28.57%, and Disagree: 14.29%. This indicates that, overall, the students had a positive perception of the Panopto videos, and the comments/quizzes embedded within them, despite there being no evidence of the tasks being completed. With the unclear outcomes of these attempts in mind, it is possible that the methods for student engagement through Panopto videos were limited by the comparatively small number of students enrolled in the course and that, in a larger course, there would be a stronger up-take.

Conclusion

In future, the main point of learning for us as educators will be remembering to introduce and integrate these kinds of practices earlier. ENSLA103 was one-third of the way through the teaching period when these methods were being implemented as a response to lack of engagement, rather than as an attempt to engage students from the beginning. For first-year students, particularly first-year international students, a significant transition is required to become accustomed to classes. The students need to be familiarised with these methods of using and interacting with Panopto at an earlier point in the course. We should potentially have been more mindful of findings in the literature that much of the effectiveness of VBL can depend on students' prior knowledge and that length of videos can be an important factor (Scagnoli, Choo & Tian 2019; Weng, Ng & Chiu 2023). The welcome video at the start of the course might be the best method for doing this; in this way students can be coached on how to interact with the videos early in the course. Meanwhile, shortening the videos and potentially splitting them into multiple smaller videos could address both student attention and internet connectivity. By applying these changes better engagement outcomes can hopefully be achieved.

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REVITALISING ENGLISH MEDIUM INSTRUCTION

Peace Project

The new needs of an Oral English classroom

Peace Project was a crafted answer to the new needs of an Oral English classroom. It combines a number of teaching methods and goals, such as sustainability and problem-based learning. Learners, at first, found Peace Project overwhelming but, by the semester's end, found the course stimulating, engaging, and the right amount of challenging. It allows learners to take control of their own learning by choosing topics, jobs within their groups, how they will prepare for each class, and what they help produce in class each week. Peace Project could be graded up or down depending on learner and classroom needs.

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Introduction

Traditional teacher-centred learning is the norm in China. However, for an Oral English course that is not constructive for the language learners. Peace Project, a new semester-long Oral English course, was created to address this. Peace Project pulls from multiple points of inspiration for an active learning, flipped classroom where learners choose a country and topics, and learn, think about, and negotiate regarding the United Nation's (UN's) 17 Sustainability Goals (UN nd.b). All research and planning are conducted outside the classroom so that class time is all oral language production. Peace Project's aims are to allow learners to research the problems facing the world now and in the future, learn and use the lexis and grammar to discuss them, work together and plan with a team, negotiate and collaborate with other peers, logically think, and write up a treaty, in English, to (begin to) correct the problem within each chosen sustainability goal.

Inspiration

Inspiration for the Peace Project derives from a number of sources. Two TED(x) Talks, by John Hunter (2011) and Joe Ruhl (TEDx Talks 2015), are combined with my experience in the Model UN program (UN nd.a) in high school for three of the four legs of the foundation of Peace Project. The UN's list of 17 Sustainability Development Goals (UN nd.b) is the fourth leg of the foundation of Peace Project. John Hunter's World Peace Game (Hunter 2011) has been an inspirational video of mine for many years.

The World Peace Game Foundation explains the game as:

> *[t]he World Peace Game is a hands-on political simulation that gives players the opportunity to explore the connectedness of the global community through the lens of the economic, social, and environmental crises and the imminent threat of war. The goal of the game is to extricate each country from dangerous circumstances and achieve global prosperity with the least amount of military intervention. As "nation teams," students will gain greater understanding of the critical impact of information and how it is used. (WPGF nd)*

The World Peace Game, then, is clearly more focused on politics as it calls itself a political simulation, while Peace Project is more focused on sustainability. Overall, I was highly impressed with the idea of classroom teams solving these tough and 'adult' problems. The World Peace Game reminded me of the UN's Model UN program (UN nd.a) This influenced the design of the course, so that each week the groups were tasked with negotiating an actionable, international treaty with the aim of resolving a problem. While the complete scenario might not be authentic to the futures of these learners, the research, teamwork, planning, and collaboration through negotiation to create a treaty/contract are all real world, authentic skills they will need for their careers as English teachers, English interpreters, English translators, and using English in business settings, as well as in private life. Joe Ruhl's TED Talk (TEDx Talks 2015), in which he advocates giving learners choice in the classroom to encourage and empower them, is the third point of foundation. I was excited by the idea of taking myself out of the driver's seat and allowing the learners to determine what they would learn (within the framework of the 17 Sustainability Goals). This was an empowering aspect of the class for the first-semester first year learners and assisted them in realizing that they would be running their own classrooms and undertaking the decision making, so it had an immediate effect, as well as potential future effects.

New Approaches and Concepts

Two new concepts were introduced in this course. The flipped classroom was the first. Chinese universities mostly use traditional teaching methods where teachers instruct learners via the 'banking system', as Freire would call it (Freire 1968). This is where the teachers are the container of knowledge, pouring the knowledge or liquid in the container into the empty container which is the learner. Chinese learners are used to sitting down, listening intently to, and copying everything written on the blackboard or Microsoft PowerPoint presentation slide. These learners are not used to having to process and immediately use information or, possibly, to ever use the information besides repeating it for testing purposes. The flipped classroom is quite different as it uses many student-centred learning theories, such as active learning, peer-assisted learning, and collaborative learning (Akçayır & Akçayır 2018). Peace Project utilizes all these learning approaches. Learners must find the information they need and decide how and when to use it. They are working together in groups/country cabinets to support and teach each other in peer-assisted learning. Collaborative learning is when the group/country's cabinet members interact and negotiate with other groups/country's cabinet members. In total, it is all active learning as the teacher is not imparting knowledge until, possibly, the language review towards the end of class.

In the flipped classroom, 'in-class time can be used for conducting higher-order learning and teaching activities that cannot be "automated"' (Jong 2017: 306). In this way, the groups/countries would conduct their research and planning outside the classroom as homework. 'Since classroom time is not used to transmit knowledge to students by means of lectures, the teacher is able to engage with students by means of other learning activities such as discussion, solving problems proposed by the students, hands-on activities, and guidance' (Akçayır & Akçayır 2018: 1). In class, the groups/countries would be negotiating with the aim of creating an actionable, international treaty they would deliver by the end of the 90-minute class on the goal of the week. Should learners not conduct research or assist in the planning with their group/

country outside classes, if they free-ride on other learners' efforts, it would be obvious during classes as they would not have information to use in negotiations with other groups/countries. As this is an Oral English course, learners need to be speaking for practice, for the purpose of the class, and for eventual assessment.

The second concept introduced into the classroom was sustainability. 'Sustainability is a paradigm for thinking about a future in which environmental, social, and economic considerations are balanced in the pursuit of development and an improved quality of life' (UNESCO 2012: 5). Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) is a greater and greater focus as climate change affects the lives of so many in a plethora of ways. Teaching learners the interconnectedness of problems and of how people from different places are dealing with the same problem but in different ways is important. Showing learners how a decision in one place affects not only that local area but can, does, and will have far reaching consequences is important. It is even more important to teach these concepts to the leaders of the next generation. ESD is not uncontroversial. Ellis and Weekes (2008) briefly explain that there are some who think there needs to be an educational revolution in how we all think about and conduct education, while others believe a revolution is not needed to integrate ESD into curricula now. I do not wish to wade into this debate but merely share how this covers the tip of the iceberg (though this does so without a revolution). While Peace Project does not fully cover all aspects of sustainability literacy, it is a first step in a few ways. First, it introduces these concepts and lexis to learners. Second, it utilizes student-centred learning with ESD. Third, Peace Project allows learners (mostly) familiar with their peers and classrooms to challenge themselves and grow by taking on the roles of a country's cabinet which is seeking to get assistance from and give assistance to other countries to solve these global problems we are all dealing with.

The UN's 17 Sustainability Goals are used as the topic for each week (UN nd.b). The learners in this Oral English course were Chinese pre-service English teachers. Guadelli (2014) asks : 'how can educators expect future generations to address such concerns without providing basic knowledge about the problems and also the skills and tools for addressing them' (39)? China has one of the, if not the, largest populations. What future Chinese generations are taught will have a great impact on the future of China and the world. I believe it is important to answer this question and implement that answer immediately for best results. Ryan et al. (2010) explain that 'it has been observed, for example in detailed studies of the Australian context, that within the education sector, learning processes for sustainability are frequently neglected' (111). Peace Project is taking the first steps to combat this for the current learners and the future learners of these pre-service English teachers. By focusing on these topics, learners found the vocabulary needed for each sustainability goal when needed and used those terms throughout class in an authentic way. Additionally, learners were educated about these issues that they are inheriting and will be dealing with, in some way, in their own future classrooms. Empathy is also learned, as their research shows them how these topics are affecting others around the world and how we can assist each other while working together.

Activity Design

Learners are quickly introduced to the concepts discussed above. After being put into groups, the groups are assigned countries. In each class, these countries are a mix of developed and developing countries that covers each of the continents. To avoid information collusion or plagiarism from one class to another, any single country is only assigned to a group in one class. Within their group/country, each learner chooses which part of the cabinet (ruling advisory board of that country) they will be. The terms 'minister' and 'secretary' are used interchangeably but learners are expected to find out which term their country uses. These countries and jobs are theirs for the duration of the semester. Lanyard name tags are given out to wear for each class. These include basic information on each participant's country and job. Learners add their picture and name to the name tag, which is held within a plastic sleeve. At the end of the project introduction class, learners vote on which UN Sustainability Goal to discuss first.

The problems chosen were the 17 Sustainability Goals (UN nd.b) that are impacting all countries around the world. Choice occurs in which goals are discussed and when. At the end of each class, learners democratically vote for the next sustainability goal that will be discussed the following week. There are never 17 weeks in a semester, so some sustainability goals are never dealt with. Each class chooses the next sustainability goal for the following week for their own class. This means that within a week, where four different Peace Project Oral English classes are running, up to four different goals might have discussions happening.

At this point the classroom is flipped. Outside class, the groups meet to conduct research on their country and the goal chosen. They find out what their country is lacking. They find out how their country is affected by this problem, such as access to clean water. They learn what the problem entails, what solutions are already available, and what might be the choices they could champion. They begin to plan what they believe will benefit their country the most. Later in the semester, once the groups know more about their own country, the groups start to include research about the other countries being represented in the class. They learn that this will speed up the negotiations and allow them to make better deals for their country.

Running the Activity

Peace Project was run twice for autumn semesters to eight classes of first year pre-service English teachers. While their English levels would be higher than other average native Chinese learners, most topics and associated vocabulary would not have been acquired pre-university. Most learners would not have a lot of experience in oral production of language with other learners and/or in front of a foreign (native English speaking) teacher.

The class offers an active learning environment. The teacher is merely a facilitator and moderator. After a short greeting at the beginning of class, I would only say 'go' before the learners would leap to their feet and rush to each other to begin negotiations. Facilitation is needed because learners would become so engrossed in their negotiations that they would forget to return to their group/country cabinet to discuss matters with each other. Therefore, learners are given 20 minutes for negotiation before a required period of five minutes for groups/country cabinets to meet and discuss what is happening. This is repeated twice more before the groups/countries need to explain their actionable, international treaty to the teacher. The teacher acts as a scribe of their treaty, as the basis for a quick discussion about the ideas presented by the learners. Moderation occurs while the learners are talking in their own groups/country cabinets or while negotiating with other group/country cabinet members. Good language use is noted but learners are not identified. Language needing assistance or improvement is also noted, again without identifying the relevant learners. Before voting for the following week's different goal, these language examples are considered by the class. They are shared with learners, who decide whether the language in question is good or needs improvement. If learners decide the language needs improving, they must explain the problem they see and how to correct it. As pre-service English teachers, this allows them to begin to think about how to correct their own language and that of their future learners.

Lastly, learners exercise their power of choice (TEDx Talks 2015). Each of the 17 goals are offered for the first vote and are then deleted from the list as they are chosen. Each vote is conducted by a simple show of hands for speed. When a tie occurs for the winning spot, learners vote for a second time with only the tied options allowed. The teacher could, in theory, act as a tie-breaker. However, that situation never occurred within those classes.

Results

As the learners were first semester first year students seeking degrees using English for the majority of their careers, but did not have a lot of speaking experience, the first few weeks were usually full of timid learners conducting tentative interactions. After the fourth week, however, confidence and understanding grew. As with all course goals, learner knowledge and skills grew through use by the end of the course. Learners have told me that they had not known anything about these global problems or that they were problems outside China. They have said that they learned so many new ideas and words in a process they enjoyed, instead of being forced to memorize a list of words for testing. Lastly, learners agreed that their confidence in speaking and pronunciation had grown.

Certain goals were chosen by all groups. Certain goals were chosen before others. Goals that were always chosen and tended to be chosen early in the semester are: no poverty, zero hunger, good health and well-being, quality education, gender equality, clean water and sanitation, affordable and clean energy, and reduced inequality (UN nd.b). Topics that were chosen later are climate change, life below water, and life on land (UN nd.b). Occasionally, decent work and economic growth, sustainable cities and communities, and industry, innovation and infrastructure (UN nd.b) were chosen. Two goals were only ever chosen once each: responsible consumption and production; and peace, justice and strong institutions (UN nd.). Partnerships for the goals was never chosen (UN nd.b). During voting, there were times when negotiations occurred, with promises of one goal to be negotiated in a fortnight instead of the following week so the other option could win. On one occasion the class realized that a particular learner had continued to vote for one topic that no one else was voting for and decided to choose that goal. The learner wanted to discuss the ninth goal: industry, innovation and infrastructure. Every week there had only been his vote for that goal. The semester was ending and the others, in a show of empathy and solidarity, joined him in voting for the ninth goal.

The ability to choose has an interesting effect on learners. As the semester progresses, learners' attitudes toward the voting changes. Some learners grasp the ability to choose the direction of their own education. The opportunity excites them. They vote eagerly, throwing their hand in the air (or sometimes both hands) to vote for their favourite goals. Some of these learners have their interest and eagerness peter out when certain topics have concluded. Other learners need to be coaxed into voting. They seem afraid to show their interest in particular goals but grow in confidence, seeing that the teacher follows the decision voted on. As with any class, there are learners who are not interested in voting and try to not vote. By the end of the semester, though, there are few, if any, of those learners.

Future Modifications and Development

Modifications have been made and could continue to be made. A modification made between the first two years this course was run was to add lanyard name tags for learners. The name tags create a more authentic feel for learners. It is helpful for everyone to identify each other, including learners from one's own group/country cabinet. As first year learners, they were not familiar with each other so having identification alleviated some social discomfort. It was good for other groups and myself to know what that learner's job/role in their country's cabinet was, as well as their name and country. That would give some insight into what that learner might be thinking or what a person in that role from that country might be considering.

A second modification that I believe would be helpful for first year learners is to include a basic country fact sheet in the materials learners receive. Previously, only websites and suggestions on where to gain information were given to learners. This should continue, because learners will default to conducting research in Chinese (their native language) and use a local, native language internet search engine (specifically Baidu). I cannot assist in information verification, as it is in Chinese, so I tell learners to search in English using www.bing.com. China blocks the use of Google so Microsoft's Bing is the best available option. The basic fact sheet could include a picture or map of the country, its name, language(s) spoken, continent it is on, type of economy and any goods produced, type of government, and more. The fact sheet should include website links for that country's government and possibly other website links to information about that country. The links to the 17 Sustainability Goals and Bing would be prominently included.

Country presentations could be a third modification. Instead of introducing the class in the second week and then beginning the negotiations in the third week, country presentations could be added in between. The learners get their groups and the instructions on what they need to do and how the semester will go. For this third week, however, the groups/country cabinets would create a PowerPoint presentation with maps, pictures, and lots of other information about their country. This allows the learners time to learn about their own country while teaching their peers about it. This is another version of a flipped classroom where learners take on the role of the teacher in instructing their peers.

Future learning for the facilitator/moderator is wanted, as well. Attending the training from The World Peace Game Foundation to possibly incorporate more of those ideas into Peace Project is a current dream of mine. However, since Peace Project began during the Covid pandemic, the inability to travel did not allow for training. Upon checking with the World Peace Game Foundation's website, the Foundation was not running any of their training workshops, even online, which meant there was no way for said training. With the world re-opening, there is hope that the Foundation will resume training.

Conclusion

In conclusion, Peace Project was created from an amalgamation of personal inspirations that bring active learning and education on sustainability to a flipped classroom. The four points of inspiration act as a foundation for this course. Learners in the course choose what sustainability goals they will learn about and negotiate on. The end goal for each class is to create an actionable, international treaty. I would like to continue conducting this course and expand it to other learners considering the benefits that learners gained. Such learners do not have to be pre-service English teachers but could be learners in any field. This could be conducted in any language, as well. In the future, modifications, such as including basic country fact sheets and country presentations at the beginning, could be added.

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Te Puna Aurei LearnFest 2022 was delivered by The University of Waikato in partnership with Cardiff University on 23 and 24 November 2022.

The front cover image features *Aurei*, sculpted by New Zealand artist and Waikato alumnus Rangi Kipa. *Aurei* represents a famous proverbial saying from King Pōtatau, the first Māori king:

"There is but one eye of the needle through which the white, black and red threads must pass".

The sculpture suggests the spirit of unity and the common pursuit of knowledge and understanding, symbolically tying people, relationships, kaupapa and ideologies together.

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