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Contenido

Temas basados en reflexiones e innovaciones

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Editorial

A new edition of *Profile* is out, in preparation for the celebration of twenty-five years of sustained publication. Once more, we wish to highlight the role different actors play in our journal, not only by submitting manuscripts or by being part of the evaluation or production processes. All of them contribute in various ways to the dissemination of knowledge produced in different scenarios.

As we know, when authors make their research, reflections, and innovations public, their articles become references for other teachers, researchers, and prospective teachers. For instance, a review of the literature reveals that authors' contributions inspire readers to engage in further studies or explore the same issues with the purpose of validating or replicating them. Likewise, the authors can challenge or motivate readers to examine what happens with certain topics in other or similar contexts. Hence, we acknowledge the role that articles published in *Profile* have in disseminating not only the authors' works but also the journal itself.

Bearing in mind that we edit a journal without the infrastructure commercial or publishing houses have, the diffusion step of each edition constitutes a challenge. Though we value the interest of scientific, professional, and academic communities who accompany us by consulting each edition or participating in the events we organize, we feel that much more needs to be done to make the dissemination of the articles published in our journal stronger.

Once more, we invite authors, reviewers, readers, and members of editorial boards to take advantage of their academic networks by sharing their articles via email and social media. These, together with the use of articles in the courses we teach, in the projects we conduct, or the academic events in which we participate, can help us spread the word about *Profile*. In doing so, you can support us in sharing the results of classroom research projects, reflections, and innovations undertaken by teachers of English as a second or foreign language, as well as by teacher educators and novice teacher-researchers.

In this issue, we are glad to share with you 11 articles, divided into three sections: *Issues from Teacher Researchers*, *Issues from Novice Teacher-Researchers*, and *Issues Based on Reflections and Innovations*. The topics discussed by the authors concern preservice and in-service practitioners and learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). The preoccupations of the researchers revolve

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around the participants' emotions and attitudes in the educational exchange in different arenas such as writing, speaking, practicum, assessment, mobility, and multimodal competencies in international and local contexts.

The *Issues from Teacher Researchers* section comprises six articles. The first article, by Carmen Carvajo Lucena and Juan Ramón Guijarro Ojeda (Universidad de Granada, Spain), unveiled the factors underlying teacher wellbeing and the stress-coping mechanisms professionals use daily. Especially relevant is the practice of hobbies, professional training, and establishing boundaries.

The second article, written by Darío Luis Banegas (University of Edinburgh, UK) and María Elisa Romano (Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Argentina), discusses the (de)motivating factors among Latin American TESOL professionals who write in English with the purpose of publication. This study explored the (de) motivation of 522 TESOL professionals in South America to write for publication in English. Findings show that, despite personal and social-contextual challenges, the participants were driven by altruism, impact, and self-efficacy.

The third contribution is from Rafael Zaccaron and Donesca Cristina Puntel Xhafaj (Universidad de Federal de Santa Catarina, Brazil). The authors discuss the role of social representations when teachers and peers give feedback on writing tasks. This research investigated the bias in peer feedback. Data analysis suggests that the teacher's and peers' social representation plays a more significant role in uptake than the feedback itself.

Next, we have the article by Turkish authors Ahmet Basal (Yildiz Technical University), Erdem Akbaş (Erciyes University), and Betül Bal-Gezegin (Ondokuz Mayıs University). The study examined the impact of a corpus literacy course on English language teachers' perceptions and performance indicators. The results suggest that corpus literacy instruction is crucial for language teachers to effectively incorporate corpus into their classroom practices.

Mónica Abad-Célleri, Juanita Argudo-Serrano, Tammy Fajardo-Dack (Universidad de Cuenca, Ecuador), and Patricio Cabrera (Cabrera y Andrade Cía. Ltda., Ecuador) present research regarding EFL preservice teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation features. They examined Ecuadorian preservice EFL teachers' cognition regarding pronunciation models and targets, identity, and confidence. The results revealed that the participants highly value the native speaker model of pronunciation, are dissatisfied with their non-native English pronunciation, are not interested in showing their Ecuadorian identities when speaking English, and are still not confident in their English pronunciation.

The last article of this section examines the assessment practices of foreign language novice teachers. This joint article between Gabriel Cote Parra (Universidad de Pamplona, Colombia) and Alexis A. López (Educational Testing Service, USA)

reports a mixed-methods study at a public university in Colombia. It describes the classroom assessment practices and challenges of 75 novice foreign language teachers. Findings revealed that novice teachers predominantly used summative assessment in the classroom and aligned their assessment instruments to large-scale tests. In conclusion, novice teachers need more knowledge, skills, and support to handle daily assessment-related tasks.

The first article of the *Issues from Novice Teacher-Researchers* section is a multimodal study about the discriminatory practices regarding non-native English speaker teachers in language centers. Adriana Montoya and Doris Correa (Universidad de Antioquia, Colombia) explored institutional practices regarding native and non-native English speaker teachers in five language centers. Findings reveal that the language centers under study favor native English speaker teachers and discriminate against non-native English speaker teachers in multiple ways, such as job search, hiring requirements, room for negotiation, salaries, and perks.

The second article analyzes Twitter's functionality for science dissemination in EFL teaching and learning. Researcher Ana E. Sancho-Ortiz (Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain) argues that using tweets encourages the development of key competencies, provides room for the practice of integrated skills, and enhances the application of 21st-century skills.

The last contribution in this section is from the Universidad Nacional de Colombia in Bogotá. In it, Paula Vanessa Bello and Melba Libia Cárdenas unveil the experiences of Colombian university students and their use of the English language in international exchanges. The results indicate insufficient proficiency in academic and social environments due to low communicative skills and limited practice. However, autonomous exposure to the language and developing interpersonal skills positively impact the perception of competence in language use.

Our issue closes with the section *Issues Based on Reflections and Innovations*, which features two articles. Edgar Lucero, Ángela María Gamboa-González, and Lady Viviana Cuervo-Alzate (Universidad de La Salle, Colombia) discuss the conception of student-teachers and the pedagogical practicum in the Colombian ELT context. The results reveal that student-teachers are conceived as subjects with principles, values, beliefs, responsibilities, and knowledge. Meanwhile, the pedagogical practicum is an academic space, process, and experience constituted by purposes, practical knowledge, and building relationships. This literature review primarily contributes to the field as an invitation to continue revising the foundations of the pedagogical practicum and the kind of student-teacher that this space may construct.

The last article of this issue deals with a teaching proposal based on an English period novel (*The Viscount Who Loved Me*, 2000), now a Netflix series

(*Bridgerton*, 2022). The proposal intends to develop EFL students' multimodal communicative competence. Researcher Beatriz P. Rubio-López (Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain) integrated her innovation of multimodal communication into the EFL classroom to enhance the development of students' multimodal communicative competence, multiliteracies, and 21st-century skills. The paper offers a critical analysis and suggests how this proposal can feasibly contribute to fostering students' multimodal communicative competence.

As always, we trust that the diverse topics covered in this issue provide our readers with valuable insights and perspectives. We hope the articles and discussions included here spark our readers' curiosity, prompt their reflection, and foster a deeper understanding of the issues at hand. We thank our authors, reviewers, and readers for being a part of the scholarly community of the *Profile* journal; we look forward to sharing more compelling content in future editions.

Melba Libia Cárdenas
Journal Editor

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PROFILE

Issues from Teacher Researchers

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Examining the Wellbeing of In-Service EFL Teachers in a Spanish Context

Análisis del bienestar de los docentes de inglés en un contexto español

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This paper aims to extend our understanding of the factors underlying teacher wellbeing and the stress-coping mechanisms that professionals from the field use in their daily lives. The study focuses on the point of view of EFL teachers working in Andalusia, the southern region of Spain. Through semi-structured interviews and using Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory for the content analysis of data, the project identifies the primary sources of distress and growth that participants link to their profession. Key among them are emotional competence, the school environment, legislation, and boundaries. The study also pinpoints the main stress-coping strategies participants were already implementing in their lives to fight against feelings of burnout. Especially relevant is the practice of hobbies, professional training, and establishing boundaries.

Keywords: secondary education, second language instruction, English language teachers, teacher burnout, teacher welfare

Este artículo pretende ampliar nuestro conocimiento acerca de los factores subyacentes al bienestar docente y sobre los mecanismos que estos profesionales usan para lidiar con el estrés. Se analizan estos aspectos desde la perspectiva de los profesores de inglés de Andalucía, región sur de España. Mediante entrevistas semiestructuradas y usando la teoría ecológica de Bronfenbrenner para el análisis de contenido de los datos, el proyecto identifica las fuentes de malestar y bienestar que los participantes ligan a su profesión. Entre ellas, destacan la competencia emocional, el ambiente escolar, la legislación y los límites. Además, se enumeran las estrategias implementadas por los participantes para combatir el síndrome de desgaste profesional. Son especialmente relevantes las actividades deportivas, el desarrollo profesional y los límites.

Palabras clave: bienestar docente, educación secundaria, enseñanza de lenguas, profesores de inglés, síndrome del desgaste profesional

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Introduction

For the past sixty years, researchers in the field of education have explored the concept of teacher wellbeing, aiming to maximize it so that professionals can have more rewarding personal and professional lives (Aelterman et al., 2007; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; McCallum & Price, 2010; Mercer, 2018). Research has proven the topic's relevance at a personal, institutional, and even political level. However, little research has been done, specifically in Spain, on the wellbeing of in-service teachers (Guijarro Ojeda et al., 2021; Pérez Valverde et al., 2016) rather than preservice teachers (Cardoso Pulido, 2018; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; Pérez Valverde, 2006, 2017). Thus, the present study aimed to focus on EFL teachers at the secondary level in Andalusia, a region in the south of Spain, to understand their awareness of the topic better, concentrating on the factors affecting their wellbeing, both positively and negatively, and the strategies they implement in their daily life to avoid feelings of burnout. We aim to offer a holistic approach, differentiating between those factors and strategies that depend on participants as individuals and those depending on institutional or political authorities.

Literature Review

Teacher Wellbeing

Since the 1960s, the idea of wellbeing, in general, has gained momentum (McCallum et al., 2017), motivating a still-growing body of research focused on what it is, how to achieve it, and how to maintain it over time (Brown & Ralph, 1992; Dewaele et al., 2023; Ebadijalal & Moradkhani, 2022; McCallum & Price, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Van Petegem et al., 2005; Weinstein, 1988, 1989). The World Health Organization (1947) defined wellbeing as a "state of complete physical, mental and social wellbeing and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (p. 1).

Within the research field, many classifications have been made. From them, and for the present study, two subcategories are especially relevant: subjective wellbeing and eudemonic wellbeing, which will be analyzed in the field of teacher wellbeing. On the one hand, Diener and Ryan (2009) defined subjective wellbeing as "judgments and feelings about life satisfaction, interest and engagement, affective reactions such as joy and sadness to life events, and satisfaction with work, relationships, health, recreation, meaning and purpose, and other important domains" (p. 391). On the other hand, eudemonic wellbeing, according to Ryan and Deci (2001), would entail pursuing the development of our potential and feeling that, although unpleasant circumstances may surround us, we are making the most of them and thriving to the possible extent.

Finally, teacher wellbeing refers to the levels of satisfaction reported by those in this profession and the incredibly detrimental feelings of burnout that tend to arise among them (Gruber et al., 2020). Numerous studies have dealt with the concept of teacher wellbeing, all of them highlighting the existence of burnout and its consequences (Aelterman et al., 2007; Austin et al., 2005; Butler & Kern, 2016; Gruber et al., 2020; Harmer, 2017; McCallum & Price, 2010; Mercer, 2018, 2020; Pérez Valverde, 2006). Furthermore, much research explores the attitudes or strategies that may enhance the sense of wellbeing among teachers (Aelterman et al., 2007; Macías, 2018; McCallum et al., 2017; Mercer, 2020), while others provide the factors that could be a detriment to it (Austin et al., 2005; Butler & Kern, 2016; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; Dang, 2013; Gregersen et al., 2020; McCallum & Price, 2010; Pérez Valverde & Ruiz, 2014). Overall, the increasing interest in the field proves its relevance in society and the pertinency of the present study.

The Distinctiveness of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

As a discipline, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) has characteristics that suggest the need to consider it separately from others. Borg (2006,

p. 5) summarizes it in five factors: (a) the nature of the subject matter itself, (b) the interaction patterns necessary to provide instruction, (c) the challenge for teachers of increasing their knowledge of the subject, (d) isolation due to the absence of colleagues teaching the same subject, and (e) the need for outside support for learning the subject. Hence, the already existing complexity and expectations put upon teachers seem to be amplified when the subject they teach is a foreign language.

Consequently, the present project aims to complete the field of language teacher wellbeing by addressing some gaps that require further study. Firstly, the study of foreign language teachers as a collective is still in its early stages, being especially relevant to the work of Mercer (Cardoso Pulido, 2018; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; Gregersen et al., 2020; Guijarro Ojeda et al., 2021; Jin et al., 2021; Johansen & Pérez Valverde, 2017; Mercer, 2018, 2020; Mercer & Gregersen, 2020; Pérez Valverde, 2006, 2017; Pérez Valverde et al., 2016; Pérez Valverde & Serrano Gallardo, 2019; Sulis et al., 2021), although it is mainly focused on preservice teachers (Cardoso Pulido, 2018; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; Pérez Valverde, 2006, 2017) or teacher trainers (Guijarro Ojeda et al., 2021). Therefore, contributions exploring how in-service language teachers interpret and manage their wellbeing are still needed to consolidate our knowledge of this topic. The present project aims to address that gap in the context of TEFL inside the educational system in Andalusia by taking a group of EFL teachers with several years of experience as participants.

Factors Affecting Teacher Wellbeing

Regarding the factors that may affect teachers' wellbeing, researchers coincide in the following as being crucial: the school environment (Aelterman et al., 2007; McCallum et al., 2017; Mercer, 2020), legislation in the area (Brown & Ralph, 1992; McCallum et al., 2017), resilience (McCallum et al., 2017), self-efficacy (McCallum et al., 2017), emotional competence (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; McCallum et al., 2017; Mercer, 2020), individual personality (McCallum & Price, 2010; Mercer, 2020), and boundaries between personal and professional life (Mercer, 2020).

All those factors can play a role when teachers try to achieve and maintain a stable state. Thus, when such factors are positively managed and work correctly, teachers report high levels of wellbeing; conversely, if those factors are not adequately handled, this may negatively affect the teachers' wellbeing. Then, whenever teachers face burnout and discontent, or their wellbeing is at stake, they need to know what steps to follow to return to balance. Identifying what is affecting their wellbeing is essential, but so is discovering what coping strategies could allow them to regain their sense of physical, social, and mental stability.

Coping Strategies

Several studies have explored what practices are already available for teachers to cope with stress (Aelterman et al., 2007; Austin et al., 2005; Brown & Ralph, 1992; Butler & Kern, 2016; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; Harmer, 2017; McCallum & Price, 2010; McCallum et al., 2017; Mercer, 2020). Austin et al. (2005) identify palliative strategies to reduce emotional discomfort to make it more bearable. Some include recommendations for teachers to manage their free time, such as physical exercise (Austin et al., 2005) or hobbies (Austin et al., 2005; Harmer, 2017). Other strategies are concerned with the work environment and with attitudes teachers could adopt to reduce their stress levels and feelings of burnout; habits like delegating responsibility (Austin et al., 2005; Brown & Ralph, 1992), self-reflection to identify their limitations (Austin et al., 2005; Brown & Ralph, 1992; Harmer, 2017), or cultivating their interest in a continuous professional development that helps them rekindle their interest in their profession (Mercer, 2018; Harmer, 2017). Finally, there are other strategies that the school

should promote at large. These include programs to train communicative skills and assertiveness (Austin et al., 2005), building networks within the school and the educational community (Aelterman et al., 2007; Mercer, 2020), or promoting positive psychology (Gable & Haidt, 2005) within the institution to help teachers focus on "what's strong" instead of "what's wrong" as professionals (Aelterman et al., 2007; Butler & Kern, 2016; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; Gregersen et al., 2020; McCallum & Price, 2010; Mercer, 2018).

However, it is worth highlighting that much of the research on these strategies is focused on preservice teachers (Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; McCallum & Price, 2010;) or reports quantitative studies (Aelterman et al., 2007; Austin et al., 2005). Thus, there is a need for more extensive research carried out with in-service teachers and for a qualitative methodology that could allow us to analyze the outcomes of each strategy over time.

Method

The present study followed a qualitative methodology, with an initial close-ended questionnaire and a semi-structured interview as data collection instruments. The study aimed to address three different aspects of the field:

1. What are the primary sources of distress for secondary school EFL teachers in Andalusia?
2. What are their primary sources of professional and personal flourishing?
3. What are the primary tools secondary school EFL teachers in Andalusia have to manage situations where their wellbeing could be at stake, and how did they acquire them?

Context and Participants

Eight secondary school teachers (seven women and one man) from seven Andalusian schools volunteered to participate in the study. They were contacted via people in common with the principal researcher, and the criterion for selection was that the participants had to work as EFL secondary education teachers in Andalusia. There were no criteria for the type of school (private, semi-private, or public), even though we will state later the general importance this can have on teachers' work. There were no criteria for the specific year they were teaching or the number of years they had been teaching English. Six participants taught in semi-private institutions, and two in public ones. Semi-private schools in Spain receive public and governmental funding, whereas public schools' incomes come entirely from the Spanish government. The age of the interviewees was relatively homogenous, ranging from 31 to 47 years. The participants' teaching experience ranged between three and 20 years (see Table 1). Five were married, two were single, and one was in a relationship, although all reported having solid social and family support. All participants' first language was Spanish.

The type of school (private, semi-private, or public) was significant as, in Spain, they tend to be organized and managed differently in terms of their approach to issues like spiritual life and relationships among the teachers. Generally, teachers in semi-private schools have more extended contracts and are surrounded by an institution with some religious leaning (typically catholic). In contrast, teachers in public schools earn higher salaries while belonging to more individualistic working environments.

Table 1. Interviewees and Interview Information

	Age	Gender	Type of school	Teaching hours per week	Extra working hours per week	Length of the interview
P1	35	Female	Semi-private	9–11	11–15	46 min
P2	31	Female	Semi-private	18–21	11–15	85 min
P3	43	Female	Semi-private	18–21	16–20	57 min
P4	46	Female	Semi-private	18–21	11–15	45 min
P5	47	Female	Semi-private	4	0–5	68 min
P6	46	Male	Public	11–15	6–10	66 min
P7	38	Female	Public	15–18	11–15	53 min
P8	46	Female	Semi-private	18–21	6–10	37 min

Data collection instruments and research process

Data for the research were gathered through a sociodemographic data questionnaire and an in-depth, semi-structured interview per participant.

All the participants filled in the questionnaire about their professional experience, their civil status, the number of hours they taught English, and the amount of time devoted to extra work. After completing the questionnaire, participants took part in a semi-structured interview.[1] The semi-structured interviews were conducted over two months; their length is included in Table 1. They were held in Spanish to guarantee that participants felt comfortable expressing their opinions without linguistic limitations. Three interviews were held in person, and five took place online. The format of the interview resulted from the mix of those used in Gruber et al. (2020), Mercer (2020), and Butler and Kern (2016). It was divided into four dimensions:

1. The evolution of the participants' EFL secondary school teaching career in Andalusia included information about their general feelings toward their profession and their main challenges and motivations.
2. Feelings and opinions about the EFL subject in secondary schools in the Andalusian context. Here, the participants were asked about their opinions on the Andalusian EFL curriculum and general guidelines, whether they considered them appropriate, and the reasons behind their answers.
3. Relationship with their department, the management of their schools, and the institution. First, the participants were asked to analyze their opinions about their colleagues in their department, collaboration or differing opinions, and what impact they felt that had on their wellbeing. They then analyzed these aspects about the rest of the school faculty and management team members.
4. Personal and professional balance and wellbeing. This last section included questions regarding the participants' ability to differentiate between their persona at school and at home. They were asked about their relaxation habits and feelings toward their social capital.

Only qualitative data were gathered since qualitative research enables exploring and understanding "the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (Almalki, 2016, p. 291). Furthermore, we concluded that creating a semi-structured interview to gather the data from the participants would be the most appropriate method to proceed as it gives

1 The structure of the interview could be accessed for research purposes by consulting the researchers of the present study.

participants the freedom to add any relevant information while the researchers remain passive.

Data Analysis

The content analysis model was followed to analyze the data from the interviews, a method of great importance within social science research (Prasad, 2008). In general terms, "content analysis may be seen as a method where the content of the message forms the basis for drawing inferences and conclusions about the content" (Prasad, 2008, p. 2).

The first stage of the content analysis consisted of creating the categories into which the data would be classified. To create such categories, we followed Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory systems (Härkönen, 2007; Mercer, 2020). It allows a more holistic and organized analysis of the source of distress and flourishing that participants identify in their professional and personal lives while making it easier to relate answers to one another to find social patterns that could be addressed. Each system contained the following information:

- **microsystem:** individual qualities (strengths and weaknesses), self-control, self-knowledge, identity, continuous professional development (CDP), psychological and social capital;
- **mesosystem:** institutional relationships, personal relationships, and sense of community within and outside the school;
- **exosystem:** the school, its rules, its functioning, and how it affects teachers;
- **macrosystem:** social, educational, political, and economic context, and teachers' opinions on them;
- **chronosystem:** life events and their sequence and influential life-turning points in a career.

The second stage entailed the application of these categories to each piece of data, that is, to each transcript of the interviews. After that, each category was analyzed again to collect the most recurrent topics among the answers. They are included in the Results section and a comparison with previous research in the Discussion and Conclusion sections.

Validity and Reliability

To verify the validity and reliability of the present study, we worked with a research specialist on qualitative research and the topic of teacher wellbeing on coding and categorizing data, and we verified that we had obtained the same results.

Interviewing teachers from different regions of Andalusia (Seville, Jaén, and Granada) also contributes to the validity and reliability of the study since it helps draw conclusions that could be generalized to the whole region.

Ethics

All interviewees were contacted via e-mail. Through a consent form, they were informed about the study's aims and the implications of their participation. All participants signed the form before the interview and gave explicit permission to record, transcribe, and utilize their data for the study. All their personal and institutional information was assured to remain anonymous.

Results

The analysis revealed several contributors and detriments to wellbeing and common coping strategies among participants. A summary of the participants' answers is included in Table 2, followed by an analysis of the most salient ones.

Table 2. Participants' Most Salient Answers to the Questions of the Semi-Structured Interview

Subsystem	Themes	Values	Participants
Microsystem	Vocation to work in secondary school	It was their initial vocation	All but P6
		It emerged after they began to work	P6
	Perceived strengths	Well-organized	P2, P3, P6
		Patience	All but P6
		Resilience	P4, P7
		Empathy	P1, P2, P4, P7, P8
		Emotional commitment	P1, P4, P7, P8
		Professional commitment	P1, P3, P6, P7, P8
		Flexibility	P4
	Perceived weaknesses	Lack of boundaries	P2, P7, P8
		Lack of self-assessment	P3, P4
		Taking things personally	P2
	Interest in continuous professional development	Strong value	All
	School mode vs. home mode	It is easy to go from one to the other	P1, P4, P6
		Not being able to divide fully	P2, P5, P7, P8
		Constantly feeling in school mode	P3
	Stress-coping strategies	Hobby	P2, P6, P7
		Psychological tools	P5, P7
		Setting boundaries	P1, P2, P4, P7
		Other strategies	P4, P6, P8
		None	P3
	Sources of distress	Lack of time	P2, P3, P4, P7, P8
		Perfectionism	P2, P3
		Profession demands	P2, P3, P4, P5, P7, P8
		Other	P6
	Sources of flourishment	Assuming imperfections	P1, P2, P4, P7, P8
		Boundaries	P1, P2, P4, P7
		Evolution as a teacher	P1, P2, P4, P5, P6, P7
		Personal situation	P2, P4, P5, P7
		Professional aspects	P3, P6, P7, P8
	Perceived level of wellbeing	Strong wellbeing	P1, P4, P7
		Burnout from work	P2, P3, P6, P8
		Burnout for other reasons	P5

	Psychological capital	Optimism	P1, P4, P5, P7, P8
		Self-esteem	P1, P4, P6
		Accepting limitations	P2, P7
	Social capital	Satisfactory family life and support	P2, P3, P4, P5, P7, P8
		Satisfactory social life and support	P1, P4, P5, P6
Mesosystem	Relationship with students	Positive	All
	Relationship with the families	Strong value	P4, P5
	Relationship with colleagues in general	Feeling support	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P8
		Feeling isolated	P6, P7
	Relationships within the department	Methodological support	P4, P5, P8
		Psychological support	P1, P3, P4, P5, P8
		Feeling isolated	P2, P6, P7
	Relationship with the school management	Feeling support	All but P6
		Feeling isolated	P6
Exosystem	School professional support	Feeling support	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P8
		Feeling isolated	P6
	School psychological support	Feeling support	All but P6
		Feeling isolated	P6
	School guidelines for the subject	There are strict guidelines to follow	P4, P6
		Teachers have flexibility and freedom	P1, P2, P8
	School programs for continuous professional development	Programs oriented to professional issues	P2, P4, P5, P8
		Programs oriented to personal issues	P1, P4, P5, P8
		No particular concern with continuous professional development	P6, P7
Macrosystem	Regional English curriculum	Appropriate	P8
		Unrealistic	P1, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7
	Regional English teaching guidelines	Well-designed	None
		Incoherent	P2, P3, P5, P6, P7, P8
	Sources of distress	Student ratio	P2, P3, P5, P6, P7, P8
		Bureaucracy	P1, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8
		Diversity	P5, P6
		Teacher role	P3
	Role of the inspection	Indifference	P2, P4, P8
		Negative opinion	P6, P7
	Social factors affecting education	Positive opinion	P4, P5
		Negative opinion	P3, P6

Chronosystem	Feelings toward their present situation	Motivated	P1, P2, P4, P5, P7
		Burnout	P3, P6, P8
	Past events that could affect them	Personal issues	P2
		Professional issues	P5, P6
	Future events that could affect them	Personal issues	None
		Professional issues	P6, P7

Factors Perceived as Promoting Wellbeing

The first factor participants identified as necessary was their emotional competence (microsystem), which includes empathy, patience, and resilience. Those participants who claimed empathy and emotional commitment, good organization, and flexibility upheld them as supporting their professional wellbeing as secondary school EFL teachers. They agreed that emotional stability benefits not only them as teachers but also their students and professional lives at the school: "If you are emotionally steady, the class will be emotionally steady, and you'll be more prepared to deal with any challenge"[2] (P7).

The participants mentioned taking part in courses devoted to the development of the skills mentioned above (P4 and P5), mindfulness activities organized by their schools (P2 and P7), or using prayer as a means to achieve that steadiness (P3, P4, P5, and P6).

Empathy and patience were the most consistently mentioned emotional qualities, and participants deemed them essential to thrive in teaching. However, they also agreed on the need to set a limit to avoid diving too deep into their students' lives, to the point that it could negatively affect them: "You must set a limit not to get too involved, as it can contribute to your feelings of burnout" (P1).

Secondly, the participants mention the need to have and maintain a strong professional commitment (microsystem and exosystem). All participants reported a strong professional commitment through CPD and an awareness of how necessary it was to fight against feelings of burnout.

> As a teacher, you must be aware of the constant need to recycle yourself. (P4)
>
> New problems need new solutions; past ones are no longer valid. (P6)

All the participants were enrolled, had been enrolled, or were about to enroll in a course that would expand their teaching knowledge (either from a professional or personal perspective), keeping them motivated and engaged with their profession. Furthermore, those participants whose schools actively invest in their CPD as teachers or as people through courses or funding for courses (P1, P2, P4, P5, P8) assessed this as one of the aspects of their institution they valued the most and identified it as a contributor to their feelings of belonging and wellbeing.

The school environment (mesosystem) was also regarded as highly influential. Most participants (P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, and P8) reported a strong feeling of community within their schools due to good relationships with colleagues and school managers. As the primary motivation behind their sense of community and connection, they emphasized having good personal bonds and opportunities to share personal information regarding their feelings in informal or formal contexts during working hours. Most importantly, they all regarded this sort of relationship as essential for their later development as teachers within the classroom.

2 Interviews were held in Spanish, but quotes have been translated into English.

> If we didn't have this support from colleagues and the school, our job would be tough. We wouldn't be able to do it since our daily work is already demanding; we need this sense of family inside the school, not feeling isolated. (P4)

Finally, some participants mentioned their capacity to set boundaries (microsystem) as necessary and advisable. Those participants who reported an ease to go from "school mode" to "home mode" also assessed that ability as the reason behind their feeling of balance and stability: "I used to take things personally, but not anymore. I don't even wait until I am home, once in the car, I am a mum and not a teacher" (P4).

The participants emphasized that teachers must accept that success in their profession not only relies on them as teachers, but there are also other factors out of their control that must be acknowledged: "You must learn that learning involves both you and your students, and you can't be constantly thinking or blaming yourself at home for something that may not be going well at school" (P6).

Interestingly, P1 stated that setting boundaries was something she had taken up recently and identified it as one of the reasons that she no longer feels the urge to quit her job. However, initially, it provoked her feelings of guilt and unprofessionalism.

Factors Perceived as Diminishing Wellbeing

Most participants mentioned a lack of boundaries (microsystem) as detrimental to their wellbeing. Five participants reported having difficulties or being unable to separate their "school mode" from their "home mode" and perceived this as damaging their wellbeing both inside and outside the school: "You are more tired and irritable. You are even unable to perform with your students" (P2).

Interestingly, although all of the participants linked this fact to feelings of burnout, two of them assumed this was part of their personality and faced this obstacle with a different outlook:

> I never disconnect, but because I am a very creative person. I pick up my girl, and when helping her with her homework, I may see something I want to try myself as a teacher. (P7)

Mirroring what was mentioned above, the school environment (mesosystem) also could harm wellbeing. The two participants who reported feeling isolated inside their institution (P6 and P7) identified this as one of their sources of professional distress: "It has really affected me, up to the point that I no longer want to get involved in any project at the school" (P6).

However, individual personality proved again to play a role in how much this could negatively affect wellbeing since P6 approached it from a more pessimistic point of view. At the same time, P7 saw it as a source of learning: "It teaches you how to set limits; you learn to differentiate between what should worry you and what shouldn't."

Finally, all participants agreed on the negative impact of legislation and curricular aspects (macrosystem) on their wellbeing. All teachers worked in Andalusia, which meant that all had to follow the curriculum and guidelines established by the regional government (the 15th of January 2021 order by the *Junta de Andalucía*). They all agreed on the extreme ambition of the curriculum in terms of the amount of content given the weekly time they had to teach. All of them mentioned at some point during the interview not having enough time to cover everything, mainly when they also must devote time to develop what has been labeled as "competencies": "It affects negatively as you often find yourself wasting time on things that won't directly affect your classroom, instead of devoting that time to preparing useful materials. It is frustrating and time-consuming" (P3).

The participants also mentioned the methodological guidelines included in the order, which defends active

methodologies and innovative approaches to teaching and learning that are incompatible with the evaluation demands and the books teachers are made to use: "The methodological proposal is contradictory since books don't include active methodologies as the law requires, nor does it offer activities to attend diversity. Books focus on grammar, not skills" (P2).

Most Prevalent Stress-Coping Strategies

Three strategies prevailed among participants: hobbies, CPD, and boundaries. On the one hand, five participants named hobbies like running, playing a musical instrument, or hiking as their way to disconnect from work. Although they all expressed satisfaction with practicing them, it is worth mentioning that only P7 affirmed doing hers consistently. "I do feel better doing it, but normally, two months after the beginning of the school, I lack time, and I give it up" (P3).

On the other hand, as previously mentioned, all teachers were engaged in CPD and perceived this as a means to maintain their professional motivation. By learning something new, they recovered their perspective and overcame feelings of burnout. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that those teachers who did not feel they could share this growth with their faculty reported frustration because they felt they were not contributing to the school but to their classes.

Finally, the need to set clear boundaries between their personal and professional lives was a staple among the answers for those who already did it and those who knew they had to improve. Some of the participants defined boundaries as differentiating their "school mode" from their "home mode," leaving behind preoccupations that could interfere with their wellbeing in either of those spheres: "I enter the school, and I fully become a teacher; my business remains outside, and nobody needs to know about it" (P1).

Others defined setting boundaries as establishing a moment when they stopped working to devote themselves to people or activities unrelated to their profession. Interestingly, P2 reported feeling guilty when first doing this but acknowledged that it had had an incredibly positive impact on her overall wellbeing.

Discussion

Results indicate that secondary school EFL teachers in Andalusia are experiencing feelings of burnout at work and are aware of the need to cultivate their wellbeing in order to improve their professional performance. Given the importance of education and the impact of teacher wellbeing on its quality (McCallum & Price, 2010), identifying the factors that improve or diminish teachers' wellbeing seems essential for schools and their administrative staff to improve our overall educational standards.

As presented in the revision of previous literature on teacher wellbeing, several aspects were identified as essential when determining sources of either fatigue or growth: the school environment (Aelterman et al., 2007; McCallum et al., 2017; Mercer, 2020), legislation (Brown & Ralph, 1992; McCallum et al., 2017), resilience (McCallum et al., 2017), self-efficacy (McCallum et al., 2017), emotional competence (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; McCallum et al., 2017; Mercer, 2020), individual personality (McCallum & Price, 2010; Mercer, 2020), and boundaries (Mercer, 2020). The data collected in the present study contribute to a more specific understanding of four: school environment, legislation, emotional competence, and boundaries.

Regarding the school environment, these results build on existing evidence of how having welcoming and supporting relationships with colleagues and leaders correlates to higher levels of wellbeing among teachers. Even when feeling stressed or drained, participants felt that sharing and receiving support from those who work with them immensely positively impacted their overall professional and personal satisfaction. On the contrary, those who felt isolated (P6 and P7) mentioned how this was detrimental to the quality of their professional life.

They could feel motivated by their students, classes, and performance. However, the feeling of solitude could eclipse all that and leave them with burnout, as they feel unsupported and undervalued.

Secondly, the data affirm that teachers perceive legislative issues like the EFL curriculum, methodological guidelines, and bureaucracy as sources of distress. None of the participants mentioned anything related to the Spanish or Andalusian legislation regarding EFL education as positive; they described it as unrealistic and distant from the reality of a classroom. Student ratios, the amount of content they must cover, and the disparity between a curriculum based on competencies and an assessment system still focused on a numerical grade all burned participants out. They demanded more freedom to adapt to their classes, fewer students so they could effectively attend to the diversity of levels and abilities in the classroom, and a closer relationship between teachers and lawmakers to create a framework that converges with professionals' and students' needs.

Additionally, participants' answers demonstrate that they were aware of the benefits of being resilient and emotionally intelligent for their professional and personal lives. Interestingly, many (P2, P4, P5, P7) reported doing courses to improve their emotional competence and shared skills essential for their wellbeing. These results concur with the previous research on the connection between emotional intelligence and resilience and teachers' personal and professional wellbeing.

Finally, the study's results prove that boundaries between teachers as individuals and their professional lives are a source of flourishment for EFL teachers, and the lack of those limits is a source of distress.

The final aim of the present study was to collect information about the coping strategies participants knew and practiced when fighting against stress and burnout. As mentioned above, the focus would be on palliative strategies that minimized the effect of these two factors instead of on direct action strategies (Austin et al., 2005) that aimed to eliminate them. Previous studies identified six practices that would enhance teachers' wellbeing: taking up activities such as physical exercise (Austin et al., 2005) or a hobby (Austin et al., 2005; Harmer, 2017), delegating responsibility (Austin et al., 2005; Brown & Ralph, 1992), self-reflection to identify your limitations (Austin et al., 2005; Brown & Ralph, 1992; Harmer, 2017), cultivating CPD (Harmer, 2017), and strategies that should be promoted from both the school as an institution and the administration (Aelterman et al., 2007; Austin et al., 2005; Mercer, 2020).

The data of this study indicate that participants are aware of those strategies, as they mentioned hobbies and CPD. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the most prevalent among all participants was CPD, as they all referred to training courses they were doing, had done, or were planning on doing. Participants' reports about the level of satisfaction produced by this type of professional education were highly positive overall. However, the extent to which CPD could sometimes contribute to the sense of burnout when used as the only strategy could be debated and explored, as it does not imply doing something unrelated to work. Further research is needed to test the outcomes of implementing CPD as the only coping strategy as opposed to combining it with another one, such as practicing a sport, which is more related to taking time out and self-care.

The other prevalent coping strategy was setting boundaries, which agrees with the conclusions of previous research in the field (Austin et al., 2005; Brown & Ralph, 1992). All participants upheld the need to differentiate between "school mode" and "home mode" and to establish a limit of extra time devoted to work at home. Those who reported struggling to do it (P2, P3, P4, P7, P8) identified it as one of their primary sources of distress and accepted having to improve on it to decrease their fatigue and burnout. Nonetheless, as they all mentioned their lack of time to deal with their professional demands (preparing lessons, bureaucracy, attending to students' issues, etc.), it is customary to witness struggles to maintain their boundaries. These

results are evidence that Andalusian lawmakers and schools should consider the need for their professionals to have time out for themselves. Given the benefits that free time, hobbies, and boundaries have proven to have on teachers' wellbeing (and consequently on the overall quality of education), it seems logical to take them into account when establishing what being a teacher involves.

Conclusion

The topic of teacher wellbeing is gaining momentum, and the research body is proliferating (Aelterman et al., 2007; Austin et al., 2005; Butler & Kern, 2016; Cardoso Pulido & Guijarro Ojeda, 2020; Gruber et al., 2020; McCallum & Price, 2010; Mercer, 2018, 2020; Pérez Valverde, 2006). Overall, the present study contributed to this body of research by revealing the main factors affecting EFL teachers' wellbeing in Andalusia. Among the detriments were fostering negative relationships at the workplace (with colleagues and leaders), demands and expectations from lawmakers, and teachers' perceived emotional competence and personal weaknesses. On the other hand, they perceived it as beneficial to have a sense of community at the school, feel professionally supported by those managing the school, have constant professional development, and be able to set boundaries between their personal and professional life.

In addition, the participants conveyed knowing some strategies they could implement to boost their wellbeing, such as hobbies, motivating their interest in their profession, and, interestingly, establishing limits between their work and themselves as human beings. Nevertheless, they were only committed to their professional growth and were not as consistent when including other stress-coping strategies in their lives.

Consequently, further research could be done to test the impact of solely applying a practice like CPD, which is still related to work, in contrast to combining it with a more leisure-based one. Also, although the study aimed to test the distinctiveness of EFL (Borg, 2006; Gruber et al., 2020; Mercer, 2020) compared to other subjects of Spanish secondary education, participants' answers were not specific to the topic, as they considered their answers applicable to any other teacher. This suggests that further research is needed to emphasize questions about this distinctiveness in order to test how it is perceived by teachers in this context. Finally, due to the size of the study, we could not go much deeper into the impact that individual personality could have on the answers. However, based on the answers and how one particular aspect could sometimes be regarded as an obstacle or an opportunity to grow, we recommend further research on that correlation, as it could result in more specialized action plans to improve teachers' wellbeing in Spain and in general.

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(De)Motivating Factors Among TESOL Professionals Writing in English for Publication From South America

Factores (des)motivantes entre profesionales en la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera que escriben en inglés para publicación desde Sudamérica

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While the literature has examined the experiences and attitudes of TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) professionals toward writing in English for publication in terms of material, environmental, and political conditions as well as (non)discursive challenges, little is known about the (de)motivating factors underpinning their drive to publish in English, particularly in South America. This study explores the (de)motivation of 522 TESOL professionals in South America to write for publication in English. The study adopted a sequential mixed-methods design that consisted of an online survey followed by 20 individual interviews with purposefully sampled participants. Findings show that, despite personal and social-contextual challenges, the participants were driven by altruism, impact, and self-efficacy.

Keywords: demotivation, experiences, motivation, South America, writing for publication

La literatura ha examinado las experiencias y actitudes de los profesionales en la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera en relación con condiciones materiales, contextuales y políticas, así como en relación con dificultades (no)discursivas. Sin embargo, poco se conoce sobre los factores (des) motivantes que subyacen para publicar en inglés en Sudamérica. Por tanto, este estudio exploró la (des) motivación alrededor de la escritura en inglés para publicación entre 522 profesionales de inglés como lengua extranjera en Sudamérica. Se adoptó un diseño de método secuencial mixto que consistió en una encuesta en línea seguida por veinte entrevistas individuales con participantes escogidos selectivamente. Los resultados sugieren que, a pesar de los desafíos personales y sociocontextuales, los participantes dieron prioridad al altruismo, el impacto, y la autoeficacia.

Palabras clave: desmotivación, escritura para publicación, experiencias, motivación, Sudamérica

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Introduction

The expansive phenomenon of writing in English for scholarly publication (e.g., Lillis & Curry, 2016; Paltridge, 2020) has resulted in the emergence of English for research publication purposes (ERPP; Flowerdew & Habibie, 2022; Habibie & Starfield, 2020). Given the entrenched social, economic, and political drives behind ERPP across contexts, researchers have paid particular attention to English-as-an-additional-language (EAL) scholars' perceptions and practices of ERPP (e.g., Curry & Lillis, 2018; Li & Flowerdew, 2020). These have been often examined in relation to inequalities and inequities that publishing in English can lead to in detriment of knowledge dissemination from EAL scholars often based in so-called peripheral economies/countries (Flowerdew, 2019; Lillis & Curry, 2022; Rounsaville & Zemliansky, 2020). These studies suggest that EAL scholars are at a linguistic and economic disadvantage compared to their Anglophone counterparts (Navarro et al., 2022).

Despite such obstacles, EAL scholars continue to publish in English, motivated by factors such as financial rewards (Xu, 2020a), international recognition (López-Navarro et al., 2015; Mendoza et al., 2021; Sheldon, 2020), as well as knowledge dissemination and advancement (Lee, 2014). Studies on ERPP and motivation tend to collect data across scientific domains (but see Mur-Dueñas, 2019). However, little is known about EAL TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) professionals' (de)motivation to publish in English. In this study, EAL TESOL professionals are defined as educators with teaching or research responsibilities in higher education courses on English for specific/academic purposes (ESP/EAP) and teacher education programs in TESOL. Hence, this study aims to interrogate how different factors and experiences influence the (de)motivation of writing in English for publication among EAL TESOL professionals in South America.

Conceptual Framework

In this study, motivation is approached from an in-context, relational view (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021; Ushioda, 2013) to refer to the undergirding personal, contextual, and historical drives and factors that direct a person's actions and, as discussed in Darvin and Norton (2021), their investment in specific situated practices to achieve their goals.

TESOL educators' drives can combine intrinsic, social-contextual, and temporal factors. Intrinsic influences include autonomy, relatedness (e.g., contribution to the common good or the profession), and self-efficacy (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Social-contextual factors refer to institutional dynamics (e.g., working conditions, the curriculum) and societal views of educators. Last, temporal factors cohere opportunities for professional development and stability (e.g., securing tenure) in teaching as a career. In their conceptualization of teacher motivation, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2021) state that these three factors can be associated with notions of the self (past, present, and future) and how such motivational drives encourage educators to invest in performativity.

A few studies have examined EAL scholars' (de) motivation to publish in English. Regarding intrinsic motivation, participants appear to be driven by an interest in a broader international readership and recognition, mainly capitalized through citations. For example, in a quantitative study conducted with Spanish researchers from different fields, López-Navarro et al. (2015) found that researchers in the social sciences were primarily driven by (a) communication with international peers and (b) international recognition through citations and invitations to conferences. These findings have been confirmed among researchers in social science (Sheldon, 2020) and applied linguistics (Mur-Dueñas, 2019).

Studies also support the importance of social-contextual and temporal factors such as positive research assessment, access to research grants, and other financial rewards (e.g., Xu, 2020a) for job security and

promotion (e.g., Sheldon, 2020). However, Rounsaville and Zemliansky (2020) suggest that although scholars may be driven by institutional mandates, they may also be motivated by "a kind of patriotic rationale that was tied to the desire to elevate Ukrainian science" (p. 624). In the case of small-scale studies with TESOL professionals, participants were driven by intrinsic relatedness factors such as contributing to the field (Banegas et al., 2020) and enhancing self-efficacy and professional development concerning teaching practice (Rathert & Okan, 2010). These findings suggest that social-contextual and temporal factors are reconciled to respond to an intrinsic sense of personal achievement among EAL scholars.

In terms of demotivation among EAL scholars, discursive as well as non-discursive challenges exert a negative influence. Regarding discursive factors, the same studies reviewed above demonstrate that EAL scholars' challenges may be connected to L2 development and preparation, understanding of writing conventions and genres, practices in their L1, and issues at the juncture of discourse and argumentation (Mur-Dueñas, 2019). In this study, we locate discursive challenges at the intersection of intrinsic, social-contextual, and temporal factors since scholars' frustrations and performance may be connected to self-efficacy, difficult working conditions, and preparation. Discursive challenges may be aggravated when non-discursive issues such as lack of institutional support with ERPP and research, lack of access to (im)material resources (e.g., human, time, space, finances, bibliography, technology), or even national language policies (Rounsaville & Zemliansky, 2020) increase EAL scholars' frustration with publishing in English-medium journals (Corcoran, 2019; Janssen & Ruecker, 2022; Mendoza et al., 2021). It is worth noting that incentives such as financial rewards, promotions, or international recognition do not necessarily enhance EAL scholars' motivation to publish in English in the long term. Xu's (2020b) study with Chinese academics reveals that incentives can demotivate them since they feel their agency and autonomy are threatened, as they need to orient themselves to respond to an institution-mandated research agenda. In López Navarro et al.'s (2015) study, the participants also showed that the pressure of high-ranking journals and institutions to appeal to an international audience to the detriment of local needs acted as a demotivating factor.

Salager-Meyer (2014; see also Flowerdew, 2019; Li & Flowerdew, 2020; Lillis & Curry, 2022) suggests that the drives and difficulties experienced by EAL scholars demonstrate the complicated and pernicious hierarchy in academic publishing. This includes (a) the differences between central (international) and peripheral (national/regional) journals; (b) the hegemony of English norms and what counts as "important topics"; (c) the minoritization of languages such as Spanish and Portuguese as scientific languages in Latin America (Arnoux, 2016; Zavala, 2019); and (d) systemic complications that exert a negative effect on individual's trajectories and well-being (Hanauer & Englander, 2011; Mendoza et al., 2021; Ramírez-Castañeda, 2020).

Bolstered by a person-in-context, relational view of teacher motivation (Ushioda, 2013), this study seeks to understand EAL scholars' (de)motivation with scholarly writing for publication in English by calibrating the focus on South American EAL TESOL professionals' drives and experiences. Against this backdrop, two questions guided this study:

1. What factors motivate and demotivate South American EAL TESOL professionals to write in English for scholarly publication?
2. How do their experiences with writing in English for scholarly publication influence their (de)motivation?

Method

We conducted a sequential mixed-methods-based study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) that consisted of an online landscaping survey followed by one individual interview with purposefully sampled participants. The survey was completed by 522 TESOL professionals, who matched all these criteria: (a) be working in South

America, (b) at a higher education institution (tertiary or university), (c) as a part-time or full-time tutor/lecturer/teacher/educator/professor in (d) the field of English language teaching (including English for Academic/Specific/Occupational Purposes), and (e) be an EAL user.

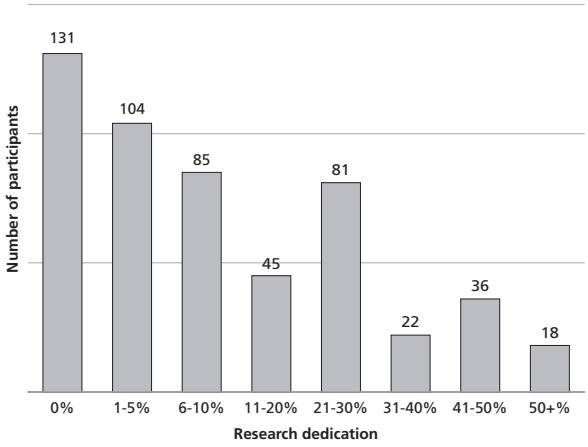
Participants

The participants (frequency in brackets) were based in Argentina (146), Brazil (72), Chile (54), Colombia (107), Ecuador (68), Paraguay (7), Peru (12), Uruguay (38), and Venezuela (18). They identified themselves as female (79%), male (20%), and 1% preferred not to disclose this information. Regarding age, the distribution was the following: 21–24 (0.65%), 25–34 (15.48%), 35–44 (34.19%), 45–54 (30.97%), 55–64 (16.77%), and 65–74 (1.94%). Concerning years of professional experience in higher education, the results were 0–5 (14.06%), 6–10 (26.75%), 11–20 (36.3%), 21–30 (17.19%), and 31–40 (5.09%). The question on the participants' highest qualification/degree yielded these results: undergraduate (9.68%), *licenciatura* (10.32%), *especialización* (10.97%), master's (45.81%), and doctorate (23.23%). The terms *licenciatura* and *especialización* have a wide spectrum of meanings in South America. The former could be understood as an undergraduate program focusing on teaching, linguistics, or English language and literature research. The latter may range from a 120-hour course to a graduate two-year degree program to develop teaching or research skills around one area.

Of the 522 participants, 28.95% had a post as lecturer in modules linked to English language pedagogy (e.g., the practicum), 23.68% as lecturer in modules linked to English as a system (e.g., grammar), 21.71% as EAP tutor/lecturer, 11.18% as lecturer in modules connected to professional development (e.g., educational research), and 1.32% as lecturer in modules linked to translation.

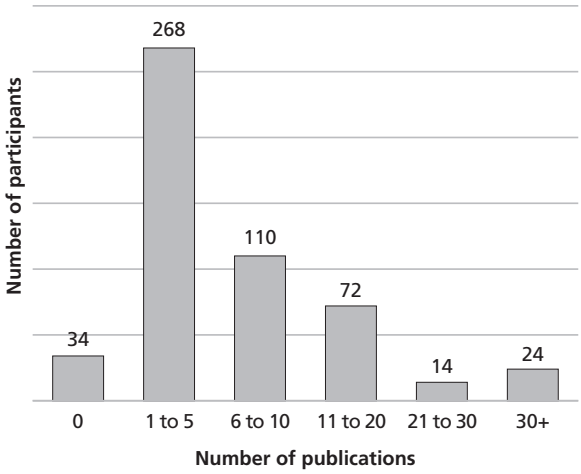
The data also depicts the complex nature and precarity behind some of these higher education posts in South America since only 55.33% of the participants had full-time jobs (not necessarily permanent). The remaining 44.67% represented part-time jobs, often exclusively comprised of teaching hours. Regarding the workload allocated to research, Figure 1 shows the frequency of participants according to the percentage of research dedication. Only 4.31% of them had between 31–40% of their workload for research. However, the 20 interviewees later confirmed that, in practice, teaching commitments also consumed 20% or more of their research time.

Figure 1. Participants' Percentage of Research Dedication in Their Post (*N* = 522)



All the participants reported having submitted a manuscript for publication (i.e., reviews, empirical articles, conference papers, books, and book chapters) between 2011 and 2021 in local, national, regional, and, to a lesser extent, international outlets. Figure 2 shows that 488 (93.58%) published at least one paper. Of those 488, only 10.72% said they published at least one article in an international journal.

Figure 2. Participants' Publications Between 2011 and 2021 (*N* = 522)



Regarding the language(s) of publication, only 9.01% stated that all their publications were in English. This finding reveals that the participants, to varying degrees, also published in other languages, such as Spanish or Portuguese, which shows that they could be regarded as plurilingual EAL authors (Corcoran, 2019).

Data Collection and Analysis

The survey[1] consisted of 24 questions, organized into two sections: (a) background information (Questions 1–7) and (b) experiences and perceptions (Questions 8–24). The sections included open-ended and closed-ended questions to gather information about the participants' working conditions, experiences, and (de) motivating factors surrounding academic writing for publication. The closed-ended questions often featured a Likert scale. For instrument validation, the survey was piloted with an international group of TESOL professionals, some based in South America. Drawing on their feedback, the survey was modified before it was administered widely.

The survey was distributed via Facebook, Instagram, professional mailing lists, and professional networks and remained open between 1 May and 30 June 2021. The participants were required to grant written informed consent before completing the survey. Drawing on quantitative analysis procedures (Brown, 1988), descriptive statistics was used for the closed-ended items with a Likert scale. Frequency of responses was used with closed-ended items without a Likert scale, and content analysis was used for questions with open-ended items.

Of the 522 who completed the survey, 71 were willing to participate in a follow-up interview. We selected 20 through purposeful sampling to represent a range of (a) backgrounds and (b) publication records, drives, and experiences (Table 1).

The follow-up interviews with the 20 participants were carried out between July and September 2021. Each author interviewed ten participants via Zoom. The interviews (mean length = 42 minutes) were in Spanish or English. All the interviews followed this protocol: (a) the participant introduced themselves and briefly described their working environment to confirm their answers to survey questions 1–7, and (b) the participant was asked to elaborate/justify/illustrate their responses to survey questions 9, 10, 14, 17, 20–22 to gauge their experiences with publishing, impact of rejections, motivating and demotivating factors, and types of targeted outlets (e.g., in Question 10a–b, you said your first preference was to publish in regional journals and that the main reason was impact, could you tell me more about it?). An asterisk (*) placed at the beginning of some interview extracts below indicates the authors have translated them from Spanish (original) into English.

1 Available at https://bit.ly/3ILAlYZ

Table 1. Interviewed Participants' Details

Participant (pseudonym)	Country	Highest degree	Years of experience	Part-time (PT) or full-time (FT) post	Percentage of research dedication	Outlets published in English 2011–2021	Main motivation to publish
Ana	Colombia	Master's	13	PT	0	1–5	Better post
Agustín	Colombia	Doctorate	32	FT	6–10	+30	Share experience
Bruno	Chile	Master's	8	FT	1–5	6–10	Obtain a scholarship
Camila	Argentina	*Licenciatura*	4	PT	0	1–5	Sharing
Carlos	Colombia	Master's	21	FT	6–10	6–10	Enhance reputation
Carolina	Argentina	*Licenciatura*	14	PT	0	1–5	Obtain scholarship
Cayetana	Brazil	Doctorate	24	PT	21–30	11–20	Post duty
Cristina	Ecuador	Master's	6	PT	0	1–5	Better post
Diego	Peru	Master's	3	PT	1–5	1–5	Better post
Francisco	Ecuador	Master's	9	FT	21–30	6–10	Sharing
Genaro	Uruguay	Licenciatura	15	PT	0	0	Enhance teaching
Helena	Chile	Doctorate	11	FT	21–30	6–10	Participate in the academic community
Juan	Argentina	*Especialización*	18	PT	6–10	0	Enhance teaching
Melina	Argentina	Master's	14	PT	1–5	0	Improve writing skills
Mercedes	Uruguay	*Especialización*	22	PT	11–20	1–5	Participate in the academic community
Rita	Colombia	Master's	26	PT	1–5	11–20	Contribute to knowledge
Rodrigo	Uruguay	Undergraduate	2	PT	1–5	1–5	Obtain scholarship
Sabrina	Argentina	*Licenciatura*	7	FT	0	1–5	Better post
Samira	Argentina	Doctorate	16	FT	11–20	0	Post duty
Pablo	Argentina	Master's	13	PT	1–5	1–5	Improve writing skills

The interviews were transcribed in standard orthography (English/Spanish) for a combination of deductive (factors in teacher motivation as discussed in Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2021) and inductive thematic analysis (e.g., legitimacy for self-efficacy or reviewers' feedback as frustrating, Figure 3; Braun & Clarke, 2021). Understood as an iterative process, thematic analysis entailed each author reading and re-reading the data for data familiarization before engaging in the following levels of coding: (a) initial, (b) focused (identification of frequent or significant codes connected to the research questions), and (c) axial (organization of codes into broader analytical categories). We then discussed our codes for theme unification (Figure 3) to re-analyze the data. We should acknowledge our positioning as two South American researchers interested in supporting knowledge flow and democracy in/from Latin America.

To ensure confirmability, trustworthiness, and transparency (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), a UK-based colleague unfamiliar with the study analyzed 50% of the data. Discrepancies were discussed, which involved reanalysis of some interviews until we reached an agreement.

Findings

The findings integrate quantitative and qualitative data and have been organized according to motivating and demotivating factors.

Motivating Factors

According to the survey, 81.20% of the participants were interested in writing an article even if it was not part of their post (maybe: 14.53%; no: 4.27%). Of those interested in publishing, 54.07% said they would publish in English, 38.89% in Spanish, 5.10% in Portuguese, and 0.37% in Guarani. The participants used a five-point Likert scale (1 = *little/no motivation*, 5 = *extremely motivating*) to select the main drives behind publishing (Table 2). The items could be categorized as representing intrinsic (Items 1–7 and 9), social-contextual (Items 8 and 11) or temporal (Items 10 and 12) motives (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021).

Figure 3. Theme Unification

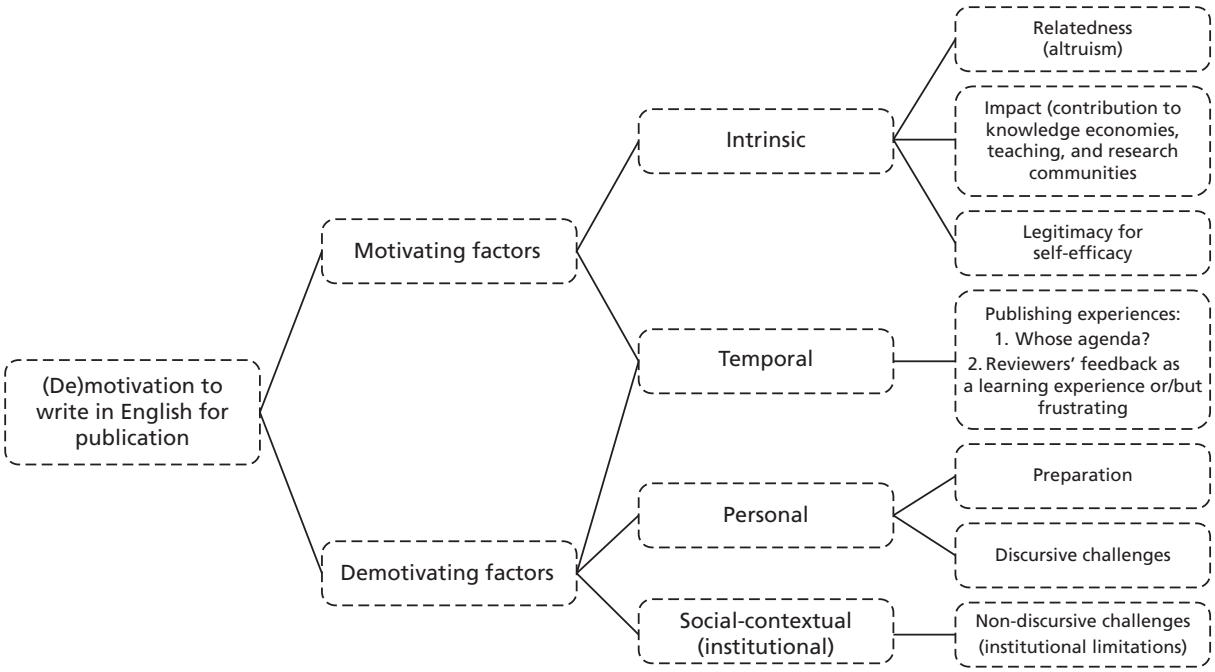


Table 2 provides a wide range of motivating factors; however, intrinsic motivation through relatedness, impact, and legitimacy for self-efficacy influenced the participants' interest in publishing.

Intrinsic Motivation Through Relatedness

The participants' motivators to publish were mainly linked to intrinsic drives connected to relatedness emerging from the field itself (Item 1), a sense of belonging (Item 3), teaching and personal efficacy (Item 4), and identity development and validation (Items 5 and 6). Also, responses to Items 1 and 3 could be interpreted as participants' interest in impact, the latter also connected to Item 9. Notably, a social-contextual factor, such as fulfilling contractual obligations (Items 8 and 11), did not rank high, possibly because of the percentage of participants (25%) without a research contract or pressure to obtain research grants. However, Cristina explained (Extract 1) that even when there was a contractual/external factor at play, her sense of self-efficacy and self-validation was more prominent: "This is my main motivation, to finish the research process, to prove myself I can do this, that I can improve my research skills and use of academic English."

As in previous studies (e.g., López-Navarro et al., 2015), intrinsic motivation played a vital role in the participants' motivation to publish in English, particularly about relatedness (altruism, contribution to knowledge, and self-efficacy). Unlike previous studies (e.g., Xu, 2020a, b), social-contextual factors such as promotion or other financial rewards did not appear as prominent.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Reasons for Publishing (in Order of Frequency)

Reason	Mean	*SD*	95% CIs M	
			Lower	Upper
1. To contribute to knowledge	4.55	0.84	4.37	4.65
2. To share a professional experience	4.40	0.88	4.19	4.54
3. To participate in the academic community	4.38	0.98	4.18	4.52
4. To enhance my teaching	4.12	1.10	3.98	4.22
5. To develop my researcher identity	4.12	1.23	3.99	4.31
6. To be legitimized as a researcher	3.57	1.53	3.36	3.81
7. To develop my academic writing skills	3.55	1.26	3.34	3.72
8. To fulfill my obligations/duties as an educator	3.32	1.50	3.16	3.53
9. To enhance my reputation	2.82	1.48	2.59	3.00
10. To obtain a better post	2.72	1.45	2.48	2.91
11. My research funder requires it	2.69	1.61	2.37	2.88
12. To obtain a scholarship	2.39	1.51	2.21	2.55

Intrinsic Motivation Through Impact

Altruistic values about contribution to teaching communities and knowledge economies drove participants' interest in impact. For example, Camila explained: "*It's about socializing experiences within a group, that is, within the national as well as international teacher community, to establish links, to belong. I'm enriched and can enrich others through what I write" (Extract 2).

By the same token, other participants' altruistic motives to publish were connected to knowledge society and democracy:

> *To transcend, to communicate. I think that there's a moment in our academic lives in which we have to project ourselves. The idea is to contribute to the knowledge society, to citizenship. I think that if we are part of a public national university, we have the obligation to transcend, to spread and share knowledge. (Rita, Extract 3)

Behind their altruism, impact influenced the participants' preferred types of journals, as in Mur-Dueñas (2019). Table 3 shows that the participants preferred international journals, contrary to their 2011–2021 publication history.

The three most selected motives behind the participants' most preferred outlet were impact (51.01%), contribution to context (23.49%), and prestige (9.40%). While the first two reasons relate to societal altruistic motives, the third is oriented toward individual professional identity and validation within the academic community beyond their immediate context.

Regional and national journals were attractive for reasons connected to the combination of impact and contribution to knowledge at a regional level as a way of strengthening local knowledge economies:

> *I'm interested in regional journals because the editors and the readership and us authors have a shared understanding of topics which are important to us all in the continent, so our impact is more focused and direct. (Juan, Extract 4)
>
> I'd like to publish more in regional and national journals because all of them are open access and that contributes to knowledge flow and democracy within and beyond the continent. (Cayetana, Extract 5)

Extracts 4 and 5 show that TESOL professionals' intrinsic motivation through impact on regional research agendas can advocate for engaging in regional journals. As previously noted (Cárdenas & Rainey, 2018; Rounsaville & Zemliansky, 2020), they can elevate local knowledge as central and develop regional conversations around context-responsive topics that do not need to conform to journals based in Anglo-dominant countries.

Table 3. Ranking of Preferred Outlets (1 = Most Preferred)

Question	1	2	3
National (e.g., *Argentinian Journal of Applied Linguistics*)	26.06%	55.63%	18.31%
Regional (e.g., *Profile*)	14.79%	30.99%	54.23%
International (e.g., *Language Teaching Research)*	59.15%	13.38%	27.46%

Intrinsic Motivation Through Legitimacy for Self-Efficacy

A sense of legitimacy also directed the participants' drive to publish in international journals from their closest and international academic communities (Table 2). As shown below, the participants' quest for validation/prestige was a strategy to enhance their self-efficacy. For example, those whose first option was to publish in international journals (Table 3) referred to notions of prestige, recognition, and visibility, as Extract 6 illustrates: "*Publishing in a high-ranking journal will give me the validation of the international community as a researcher. I'll become known, and that will help me participate more confidently in the local academic community" (Helena).

Differently put, publishing in a reputable international journal may be a message of external recognition of an EAL TESOL professional's research skills for their local and regional academic communities. Also, publishing in national and regional journals could validate the submission of manuscripts to international journals:

> I'd like to publish in national and regional journals to gain experience and confidence with the process and grapple with potential frustration. I think that it will help me move to submitting to international journals. I'm not ready for the big leagues yet. (Francisca, Extract 7)

Extract 7 illustrates that educators' interest in impact may be connected to a self-initiated professional development journey through which they progress from national and regional to international journals.

These findings portray how the participants' motivation to publish was highly intrinsic, with a dominance of relatedness factors. They also show that the participants tended to perceive the hierarchies among journals concerning their sense of self-efficacy and contribution to regional knowledge, as problematized in Banegas et al. (2020).

Demotivating Factors

Personal and Social-Contextual Demotivating Factors

Arranged in order of negative impact (Likert scale 1 = *little/no impact*, 5 = *extremely impactful*), Table 4 shows a range of multifarious demotivating factors: personal (e.g., Items 5 and 9) as well as working conditions (e.g., Items 1, 4, and 10). Similar to the results on motivation, the participants' years of experience explain the higher *SD* in items 2–6 and 10.

In line with studies from Latin America (Mendoza et al., 2021; Waigandt et al., 2019), non-discursive personal (e.g., Items 5, 7, and 8), and social-contextual challenges (Items 1–4, 6, and 10) exerted a negative impact on the participants' motivation to engage in scholarly writing. Discursive problems (Items 9, 11–13) were less influential. As previously discussed in the literature (e.g., Flowerdew, 2019), the participants were disadvantaged regarding institutional support and personal preparation, including research skills, but excluding ERPP skills.

During the interviews, some participants elaborated on their discursive challenges, identity as Latinxs writing in English, and issues with adapting or conforming to other writing conventions and expectations. As discussed in Li and Flowerdew (2020), the participants perceived their L1 and culture as barriers:

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Demotivating Factors

Item	Mean	*SD*	95% CIs M	
			Lower	Upper
1. Lack of time	4.05	0.56	3.90	4.21
2. Institutional support	3.42	1.05	3.24	3.67
3. Nature of my post (e.g., teaching)	2.62	1.14	2.48	2.81
4. Access to academic resources (e.g., articles)	2.57	1.51	2.32	2.77
5. Research skills	2.48	1.01	2.21	2.66
6. Institutional incentives (e.g., promotion)	2.22	1.82	2.04	2.45
7. Awareness of journals in my area of expertise/interest	2.02	0.02	2.00	2.03
8. Knowledge of publications processes	1.82	0.22	1.77	1.99
9. Knowledge of writing conventions	1.73	0.77	1.68	1.81
10. Salary	1.68	1.08	1.48	1.72
11. Genre awareness	1.52	0.51	1.12	1.61
12. English language proficiency	1.44	0.41	1.16	1.55
13. Proofreading skills	1.24	0.19	1.20	1.39

> *I think the most difficult thing for me was to understand that, to enter the English-medium research world, I had to compromise my L1 Spanish identity just to fit in the Anglo-Saxon tradition of writing. (Diego, Extract 8)
>
> *I feel that when I'm writing in English, I need to get rid of my linguistic and cultural identity as a Latino. So, I find the writing depersonalizing, like I cannot connect my identity with that text I am writing. (Genaro, Extract 9)

Extracts 8 and 9 depict a familiar issue in the literature: plurilingual writers' professional identities and voice when writing in English (e.g., Langum & Sullivan, 2020; Lillis & Curry, 2016). The extracts expose that the investment (Darvin & Norton, 2021) triggered by intrinsic motivation factors takes place at the expense of the participant's identity in an attempt to belong/conform to an imagined international academic community (Kuteeva & Mauranen, 2014) in TESOL.

In terms of motivating and demotivating factors, it could be advanced that while the motivation for scholarly writing in English was highly intrinsic, demotivation was primarily social-contextual. Below, we examine the influence of the participants' publishing experiences.

(De)motivating Factors From Publishing Experiences

The participants' experiences submitting manuscripts for publication added a wide range of (de) motivating factors, particularly concerning research interests and reviewers' feedback.

Whose Agenda?

The 488 participants who reported having published a paper expressed a gamut of feelings (Table 5). The participants used more than one adjective to describe their views (e.g., "a learning opportunity and friendly," "friendly but time consuming," or "time consuming and frustrating"), which explains that the total percentage exceeds 100%.

Table 5. Participants' Experiences With Publishing (*n* = 488)

The experience was…	%
1. A learning opportunity	70.11
2. Time consuming	60.45
3. Frustrating	30.03
4. Friendly	12.44
5. Easy	4.87
6. Difficult	3.66

The 522 participants also acknowledged the number of manuscripts rejected between 2011 and 2021: 0 (48.15%), 1–5 (38.89%), 6–10 (9.26%), 11–20 (2.78%), 21–30 (0%), and more than 30 (0.93%). They reported the following reasons: outside the scope/interest of the journal (51.16%, desk rejection), methodological problems (9.30%), limited awareness of recent advances in the field/weak conceptual framework and literature review (9.30%), unclear manuscript structure (6.97%), not meeting academic language standards (6.97%), lack of original findings (6.97%), unclear focus (4.65%), and problems with how results were presented (2.97%). It is worth noting that the participants' ERPP skills did not seem to constitute a barrier. Concerning desk rejection, Samira said: "*Perhaps the context of our studies, which are located in Latin America, is not relevant to them [international journals] because most of their readership belongs to the US, Canada, and Europe" (Extract 10).

Samira seems to question the extent to which so-called international journals are *international* as a synonym of *research agenda inclusive*. Samira's experience may also indicate that some participants placed themselves in a deficit position from which they believed that their context, and by extension their research, was not good enough for the international readership of prestigious journals, an issue previously problematized in Mur-Dueñas (2019) or Xu (2020b).

Unlike the reported experiences with accepted manuscripts, the 271 participants who had manuscripts

rejected summarized them with one word or phrase only (Table 6).

Table 6. Participants' Experiences With Rejected Manuscripts (*n* = 271)

Consequence	%
1. Revised and submitted elsewhere	86.92
2. No action	7.21
3. Stopped submitting the manuscript	3.35
4. Questioned their professionalism	1.26
5. Had their contract cancelled	1.26

Both Item 1 in Table 6 and Item 1 in Table 5 show that the participants adopted a resilient attitude and valued professional development benefits (e.g., Janssen & Ruecker, 2022), that is, temporal factors of teacher motivation derived from reviewers' feedback (see below). However, we should not ignore those whose well-being and job stability were affected (Table 6, Items 4 and 5), even if they were only a minority.

Reviewers' Feedback as a Learning Opportunity

As Paltridge (2019) notes, reviewers' feedback is a core element of the academic publication process. Some participants perceived editors' and anonymous reviewers' feedback as friendly, respectful, supportive, and constructive even when the outcome was a rejection, usually attributed to methodological and/or conceptual issues. Two participants said:

> *The feedback from the reviewers and editors helped me reflect on my own work and reconsider or pay attention to issues I had overlooked or was unaware of. (Ana, Extract 11)

> *You learn not only in terms of framework but also in terms of which type of vocabulary you should use, how to organize your writing, the type of information you should include. All these things you will only learn through this experience; you won't know about them otherwise. (Pablo, Extract 12)

Extracts 11 and 12 show the learning value these participants associated with the publishing experience. In some cases, they focused on the article's content and the possibility of reflecting upon their research as a result of feedback, while others highlighted more formal or genre-related aspects of ERPP (Extract 12).

Reviewers' Feedback as Frustrating

Feedback assumed demotivating properties when the participants considered the external reviewers' comments contradictory and/or aggressive: "*The reviewers' comments were contradictory, and the editor didn't seem to have a firm stance. The reviewers' comments were aggressive, and the editor could have, quite ironically, edited them before sending them raw" (Helena, Extract 13).

Extract 13 shows that the participants' feelings of frustration may indicate that, at least in the participants' eyes, journal editors need to offer clearer editorial/executive orientations. In addition, reviewers' feedback led some participants to struggle with their self-image as professionals, but their sense of self-efficacy prevailed:

> *I had good comments on that paper at my university, and when it came back with this negative review, I asked myself: "Am I good at this?" But then, you have two options, either you take it as a failure and never publish again, or you keep trying. I looked for another journal, and then I did pass the first revision process. (Bruno, Extract 14)

The participants' (de)motivating experiences with publishing seem to be influenced by temporal factors of teacher motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021), as they understood them as learning opportunities (i.e., professional development). In particular, the participants displayed resilience (Extract 14), and the outcome of the review process, regardless of the nature and tone of the feedback, drove them to revise their manuscripts and submit them elsewhere (Table 6, 86.92%). Such a behavior illustrates the interconnectedness between motivation and investment (Darvin & Norton, 2021;

Ushioda, 2013). Their intrinsic sense of relatedness and interest in professional development led them to persevere despite demotivating social-contextual circumstances (Table 4).

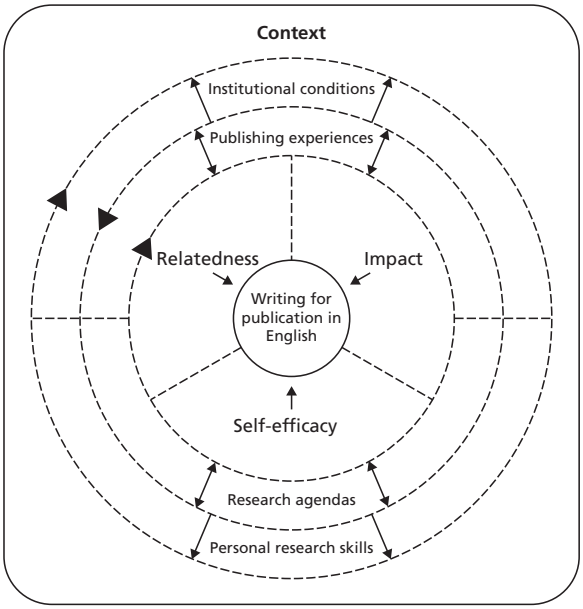
Overall, the findings show that the participating South American EAL TESOL professionals' publishing interests and trajectories were influenced by (a) intrinsic, (b) temporal, and (c) social-contextual factors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). However, these factors may exercise different degrees of influence on EAL TESOL professionals.

Discussion

This study explored the factors that (de)motivate EAL TESOL professionals in South America to publish in English and how their publishing experiences can be (de)motivating. Drawing on our findings, Figure 4 depicts the in-context centripetal or centrifugal forces arranged in three layers that shape the (de) motivating factors resulting from personal, contextual, and experiential circumstances. The three layers constantly interact with each other, hence the broken lines and the arrows indicating directionality. This three-layer system is part of a broader context that exceeds EAL TESOL professionals' institutions, extending to journals in the field and professional communities in different settings.

In the inner-most layer, three interdependent intrinsic factors (relatedness, impact, and self-efficacy) exercise a centripetal force, thus acting as motivating drives in scholarly writing for publication in English among EAL TESOL professionals in South America. As in previous studies (e.g., Banegas et al., 2020), relatedness, which in turn is built on a sense of altruism, refers to the participants' interest in contributing to knowledge in the field (see Table 2, Item 1 and Extracts 1 and 2) while developing a sense of belonging to the TESOL community. In parallel, there is an interest in achieving a positive impact on their teaching practice (Table 2, Item 4, Extract 3) as well as on teaching and

Figure 4. South American EAL TESOL Professionals Writing for Publication in English: (De)Motivating Factors



research communities in the region (Table 2, Item 3, Extract 3), which echoes previous studies (Rathert & Okan, 2010; Rounsaville & Zemliansky, 2020). In this sense, publishing may legitimize the participants locally (Extract 7) and internationally (Extract 6). Last, self-efficacy conflates those drives that can help TESOL professionals feel confident and recognized by local, regional, and (imagined) international communities (Table 3, Items 6 and 9, Extracts 6 and 9) (Kuteeva & Mauranen, 2014). At this point, we speculate that an interest in validation can also act as a way of compensating for the lack of support they may suffer at an institutional level. However, it should be noted that, unlike studies in other areas of the social sciences (e.g., López-Navarro et al., 2015; Sheldon, 2020; Xu, 2020a), drives sitting at the intersection of intrinsic and social-contextual factors such as international recognition, citations, financial rewards (including research grants) or promotion were not as significant as intrinsic motivating factors for the participants in this study (Table 2, Extracts 1–3). We believe the lack of such

opportunities in the participants' working conditions may explain the difference. In addition, the participants in this study did not identify themselves as researchers but as lecturers with a heavy teaching workload, mainly interested in contributing to the advancement of the field and improvement of their teaching practices (Table 2, Items 1–4).

The middle layer conflates temporal factors such as publishing experiences and social-contextual factors about tensions around research agendas. Both acted as centripetal or centrifugal forces. As a centripetal force, the participants catalyzed reviewers' feedback as professional development prospects over time (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021) and the publishing experience as a learning opportunity (Table 5, Extracts 11 and 12), which in turn could be associated with notions of resilience, self-efficacy, and professional identity; therefore, they were motivating. This is further supported by the fact that most of the experiences with rejected manuscripts led participants in this study to revise and resubmit their work to other journals (Table 6). Notwithstanding, feedback perceived as aggressive or contradictory and desk rejections due to a purported focus outside a journal's scope became demotivating (i.e., a centrifugal force; Extract 13). As illustrated in Extract 14, such negative experiences may lead professionals to experience a lack of confidence.

Regarding tensions around international journals' research agendas (Salager-Meyer, 2014) and participants' views on scope (Table 4, Extracts 4 and 10) or interests in regional journals (Table 4, Extracts 4 and 5), it seems that some participants may wish to prioritize local research agendas and mainstream languages in the region (e.g., Spanish) through submissions to national/regional journals, while still acknowledging the regional impact and validation they could achieve through international journals. This finding differs from previous studies in which participants yielded to the pressures and challenges of appealing to an international audience (e.g., Xu, 2020b). This decision at the intersection of the middle and inner-most layers reinforces the gravitation toward elevating regional knowledge (Rounsaville & Zemliansky, 2020) in TESOL by contributing to research topics that are initially meaningful to TESOL professionals in South America (e.g., Lillis & Curry, 2022). At the same time, they seem ready to utilize their plurilingual identity (e.g., Langum & Sullivan, 2020; Lillis & Curry, 2016) to unsettle hegemonic discourses in knowledge production and dissemination. In other words, they are interested in contacting other regional educators (Extracts 4 and 5).

Last, the outer-most layer contains social-contextual factors (institutional conditions) and personal preparation (research skills), which assume a centripetal movement. In the case of our participants, higher education institutions may operate against TESOL professionals' temporal and intrinsic motivation drives. In line with the literature (e.g., Mendoza et al., 2021), our participants are part of a higher education system with precarious working conditions, given the volatility of their contracts or the limited workload allocated to research (Figure 1). These undesirable circumstances are exacerbated by a lack of institutional support, incentives, or access to international journals, which places South American TESOL scholars in a state of inequality and inequity compared to their counterparts in the so-called Global North (Flowerdew, 2019). Social-contextual factors may also increase an identity of deficiency among TESOL educators writing from "edge countries" (Rounsaville & Zemliansky, 2020), mainly when they assess their research skills. Nevertheless, the participants displayed resilience since 81.20% were inclined to publish regardless of their unfavorable working conditions, and only 6.42% (Figure 2) did not exhibit publication records between 2011 and 2021. The synergy between temporal and intrinsic motivation factors may explain their resilience.

Finally, this study corroborates previous research canvassed on the professional development benefits and contribution to situated knowledge through writing

for publication (e.g., Rathert & Okan, 2010) despite non-discursive challenges (e.g., Mur-Dueñas, 2019). However, the participants did not recognize their ERPP development as a major discursive challenge (Table 4, Items 5, 8, 9, 11–13), as discussed in the literature (e.g., Flowerdew, 2019), or a major reason for desk rejections, even when some reported a struggle between their Latinx identity and ERPP (Extracts 8 and 9). We believe this discrepancy with previous research is based on the identity of our EAL participants: TESOL professionals in higher education (i.e., professionals who may have experience in EAP/ERPP). We may also speculate that acknowledging personal issues with ERPP could have been perceived as a threat to their professional identity and sense of self-efficacy.

Conclusion

This study suggests that EAL TESOL professionals in South America show resilience in contributing to teaching and research in the region and beyond. However, their resilience should not be romanticized since the benefits obtained are built on perpetuating inequality and inequity.

Our findings are not free from limitations. For example, we mainly focused on journals as outlets for publication, but we did not enquire about other outlets, such as edited volumes. We also did not probe further into those participants who expressed an interest in publishing in languages other than English nor into the type (or lack) of publishing rewards, incentives, or career progression opportunities in many South American universities. Finally, we did not dig deeper into cases in which higher education professional educators may not be required to publish.

A few implications can be drawn from this study. Higher education institutions in South America with TESOL programs can (a) incentivize the publication in languages other than English (Navarro et al., 2022) by offering awards or extra days off, (b) encourage lecturers to include publications authored by Latin American (TESOL) professionals in their reading lists, (c) offer courses based on critical plurilingual pedagogies (Englander & Corcoran, 2019) for writing for scholarly publication in national and regional journals, (d) set writing centers to support higher education professionals address genre, meta-discourse, and style-related issues in the writing of manuscripts for publication (Innocentini & Navarro, 2022; Janssen & Restrepo, 2019; Janssen & Ruecker, 2022), (e) organize intra-/inter-institutional, self-led writing groups to increase mentoring, collaboration, and research capacity (Carlino & Cordero Carpio, 2023; Colombo & Rodas, 2021; Rodas et al., 2021), and (f) liaise with regional professional associations and journals to discuss issues around research agendas and publishing practices. A focus on regional journals may echo an epistemologies-of-the-South perspective (de Sousa Santos & Meneses, 2014) since this emphasis may lead to emancipating logos that destabilize hegemonic and hierarchical ways of knowledge production sometimes reproduced in South America.

Future research could examine EAL TESOL professionals' publications in languages other than English through more sophisticated quantitative and qualitative methods. The psychological and political connections between job satisfaction, career progression, and professional development through writing for scholarly publication are also worth investigating. Longitudinal case studies could also shed light on language professionals' publishing experiences and their management of different institutional and publishing barriers.

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Teacher and Peer Feedback on English as an Additional Language Writing: The Role of Social Representations

Retroalimentación de profesores y compañeros de clase en la escritura de inglés como lengua adicional: el papel de las representaciones sociales

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This mixed-methods study aims to investigate the bias in peer feedback. Thirty-two English as an additional language learners gave each other anonymous feedback on their texts. Half of the participants received feedback from their teacher disguised as peer feedback, while the other half received actual peer feedback. Data were collected through drafts of two essays, feedback, and a questionnaire. Results indicate that although participants reported trusting teacher feedback more, the quantitative uptake of feedback was similar regardless of the source. Data analysis suggests that the teacher's and peers' social representation plays a more significant role in uptake than the feedback itself.

Keywords: English as an additional language, peer feedback, social representation, teacher feedback, writing

Este estudio de métodos mixtos investigó los posibles sesgos en la retroalimentación a cargo de compañeros de clase. De manera anónima, 32 estudiantes de inglés como lengua adicional se dieron retroalimentación mutua sobre sus textos. La mitad de los participantes recibió retroalimentación de su profesor disfrazada de retroalimentación por parte de sus compañeros, mientras que la otra mitad sí recibió retroalimentación de sus compañeros. Los borradores de dos ensayos, la retroalimentación y un cuestionario revelaron que, aunque los participantes informaron que confiaban más en la retroalimentación docente, la aceptación de la retroalimentación fue similar sin importar la fuente. El análisis sugiere que la representación social del profesor y de los compañeros de clase tiene un papel más importante que la retroalimentación en sí misma.

Palabras clave: escritura, inglés como lengua adicional, representaciones sociales, retroalimentación de compañeros de clase, retroalimentación docente

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Introduction

> When it's corrected by the teacher, we don't really analyse what was highlighted, if the teacher corrected, there has to be something wrong there; whereas, when a peer, at the same level we are, corrects it, we really ponder whether there is something wrong. (Participant from a previous study)

We were collecting data for a previous study on peer feedback (Zaccaron & Xhafaj, 2020) when a few students did not meet the deadline for handing in their texts; consequently, their essays could not be analysed by a peer and considered for that study. Nonetheless, the first author, their English teacher, decided to provide feedback to those students but forgot to mention that the feedback was not from a peer. Although their data were not included, they also completed a questionnaire to analyse their perception. As seen in our epigraph, their answers were puzzling, considering that when we analysed their uptake of that feedback—provided by the teacher, but they did not know that—the rate was quite similar to the ones who received peer feedback. This view raises pertinent issues concerning one's engagement with the feedback and triggered the present study. Here, a group of students received feedback provided by the English teacher but thought a peer had provided it, while the second group received peer feedback.

Several studies have investigated different formats, timing, and the emotions involved in both teacher and peer feedback (Chang, 2016; Cui et al., 2021; Mahfoodh, 2017; Salih, 2013; Wu & Schunn, 2020; Zaccaron & Xhafaj, 2020; Zheng & Yu, 2018), while a few studies have looked at the influence of social representations of teachers (Castro, 2004) and classmates in the learning process. However, in the English as an additional language (EAL) field, there is a lack of research on the intersection between these two areas. This action can contribute to the field of feedback on writing as social representations show avenues to understand individual representations and attitudes to a social object (Wachelke & Camargo, 2007).

In our study, this social object is students' feedback on their texts. Therefore, our objective is to analyse bias in peer feedback. To do so, we investigate the effect of teachers' and peer social representations on EAL writing through learners' behavioural engagement with teacher feedback disguised as peer feedback.

Brief Overview of Teacher Feedback and Peer Feedback

As feedback is a vital tool for learning (Carless & Boud, 2018; Hattie & Timperley, 2007), the last two decades saw considerable new research on feedback on L2 writing (Yu & Lee, 2016). In these studies, feedback was teacher-led (Ferris, 2006; Mahfoodh, 2017), came from a peer (Côté, 2014; Hu & Lam, 2010), or encompassed both modalities (Cui et al., 2021; Liu & Sadler, 2003; Lu & Bol, 2007; Maldonado-Fuentes & Tapia-Ladino, 2019; Ruegg, 2015; Yang et al., 2006). This study builds on previous research by investigating the effect of teacher and peer feedback with a specific focus on how the social representation of these actors might play a role in the behavioural engagement learners have with feedback, as well as their perception of the process.

Teachers are expected to provide feedback to students (be it orally or in writing). Moreover, students are usually frustrated if they do not receive it (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Shrum & Glisan, 2015). In this respect, learners perceive teacher feedback as more trustworthy than peer feedback, and its usefulness is generally not questioned (Chang, 2016; Liu & Wu, 2019). One of the reasons for this belief might be what Ruegg (2015) found when she compared the differences in uptake of peer and teacher feedback with tertiary-level students in Japan—teacher feedback was more specific. Also, learners paid more attention to it and accepted it more often than peer feedback.

On the other hand, teacher feedback—the most frequent in EAL classes—can also have a few caveats. For students, finding their essays full of teacher feedback can be an emotionally frustrating and discouraging experience (Lee, 2014; Mahfoodh, 2017), which can affect their

behavioural engagement with feedback. Moreover, it is not uncommon for learners to exert a more passive role in accepting surface-level feedback (Yang et al., 2006), as teachers at times focus more on a narrow range of linguistic aspects that do not always equate to the students' needs or, contrary to Ruegg (2015), give vague feedback (Cui et al., 2021). Likewise, Lee (2014) warns that students can also have perfunctory engagement with teacher feedback that focuses on the product rather than the process.

Peer feedback has learners as sources of information and shifts the teacher-students' typical roles (Liu & Edwards, 2018). Typically, this type of feedback is believed to encourage collaboration (Zaccaron & Xhafaj, 2020), present suggestions and techniques for improving one's work, and allow for exposure to various writing styles (Ho & Savignon, 2007). In this respect, Hyland and Hyland (2006) argue that peer feedback helps novice writers understand how readers see their work. However, Ho and Savignon (2007) and Zaccaron and Xhafaj (2020) warn that sometimes hostility can arise during face-to-face feedback sessions. Additionally, if they are used to receiving this feedback, peers can focus their assessment mainly on the form (Maldonado-Fuentes & Tapia-Ladino, 2019). Furthermore, the perception of peer feedback usefulness might not equate to performance on writing revisions (Strijbos et al., 2010), and peer feedback might not meet the writer's expectations (Salih, 2013).

More recently, a strand of studies explored affective variables that affect the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Chen and Liu (2021), who investigated teaching Chinese as a second language, highlight that empathy, cultural stereotypes, and learners' emotions influence how teachers perceive the effectiveness of written feedback. Learners' emotions are pivotal for learners' (dis) engagement with peer feedback. Still, on contextual variables that may impact learners' perception of feedback, the notion that culture and context play a relevant role in the feedback process has been indicated in teacher feedback (Cheng & Zhang, 2021) and peer feedback (Bolzan & Spinassé, 2016) studies.

Furthermore, Zaccaron and Xhafaj (2020) reported that although learners valued peer feedback, they preferred teacher feedback as peer feedback could not generally be trusted, which triggered them to reflect more when analysing this type of feedback. Finally, proficiency level in the additional language might influence the engagement with peer and teacher feedback (Hu & Lam, 2010; Liu & Wu, 2019; Zheng & Yu, 2018). Thus, there is a call for more studies to investigate learners' perceptions of what they believe to be effective for them and teachers' beliefs—which are part of social representations—about what works for learners.

Finally, Ruegg (2015) points out that when receiving both peer and teacher feedback, learners, not surprisingly, prefer teacher feedback, as the teacher will evaluate and mark the final version of their writing. This way, she is signalling that, for studies to investigate teacher and peer feedback, they should employ different strategies to avoid this possible bias.

Social Representations in the EAL Classroom

A challenge teachers face is understanding the kind of representations learners bring to the classroom (Chaib, 2015). In this respect, Vale et al. (2018) mention that the interaction between teachers and students is crucial in educational contexts and that such an interaction is based on the social representations these actors have. Therefore, understanding how these social representations impact learning cannot be underestimated (Castorina, 2017). As the feedback process involves the other, it is unsurprising that it is mediated by learners' representations of the feedback giver. This impact was explicit in the excerpt by a previous participant in our epigraph.

According to Jodelet (2001), social representation is a form of socially created and shared knowledge. It has a practical application as it affects behaviour, allows communication, and helps construct a reality common to a social whole. These representations are not static but based on previous knowledge triggered by a given

social situation. Almeida and Santos (2011) and Vale et al. (2018) highlight communication's paramount importance for social representation.

According to Chaib (2015), to understand the learning process from a social representation perspective, one has to look at the social relationship between the teacher and learners. From the teachers' perspective, Fernandes' (2006) study on social representations and identities of English teachers in Brazil interviewed four teachers who felt their proficiency in the additional language was not good enough compared to native speakers. Consequently, they felt insecure as they believed teachers could not make mistakes. Fernandes (2006) argues that such a position indicates the notion of the role model teacher who knows everything and is solely responsible for students' learning.

While there are a few studies on the social representation of English teachers in Brazil, most studies had learners as participants. They also focused on the representation of the English language (e.g., Michels, 2018). An exception is Castro (2004), who investigated the role English learners attributed to themselves in the learning process. Her results indicated that while learners credited their successes to the teacher, shortcomings were attributed to themselves. Moreover, learners tended to ignore the importance of their participation and of playing a more active role in their learning process, highlighting that topics, activities, and resources chosen by the teacher played a relevant role in their learning. The social representations found by Castro indicate a traditional view of learning in which teachers and students have clear roles. Not only is the teacher represented as the one who manages the activities, but also as the one who manages most of the students' learning process.

Finally, as for how social representations of the source of feedback affect the extent to which this feedback is trustworthy, Mayo (2015) argues that the concepts of trust and distrust are not simple contraries. That is, not trusting a source does not necessarily mean one rejects it entirely. The grey area leads to a sense of distrust that considers both scenarios possible, making reactions more complex (Mayo, 2015).

Despite a large body of research that studied teacher and peer feedback on writing in EAL contexts, no study investigated the impact social representations of teachers and peers have on their engagement with feedback. Thus, drawing on previous studies and addressing this gap, the following research questions guide this mixed-methods study:

1. Is there a difference in the behavioural engagement with teacher feedback when presented as peer feedback?
2. What are the students' perceptions of the written feedback process?

Method

We adopt a mixed-methods approach to research by combining quantitative and qualitative data (Dörnyei, 2007). By triangulating the data, we aim to explore different aspects of the dataset to answer our research question.

Participants and Context

Data were collected over a semester in an extension programme in a Brazilian university that offers additional language courses as an outreach activity, among them English. Most learners are either graduate or undergraduate students from the same institution. The English course lasts five years, and each semester encompasses 15 weeks of two 90-minute classes per week.

Thirty-two learners taking the EAL course in two groups participated in this study. The participants were at the intermediate level[1]—B1 level according to the Common European Framework—and taught by the first author, who had been teaching EAL at the university

1 This was the expected level as students in these classes had been studying at the course for two years or took a placement test for entrance. The textbook used in this course was the second volume of the Interchange series (Richards, 2017).

for four years. Only learners who completed their first essay (teacher feedback) before the second essay (teacher or peer feedback) had their data included in the study.

Instruments, Procedures, and Data Collection

Learners wrote two essays during the course. For Essay 1, in pairs, they were instructed to take notes while interviewing each other in class. Afterwards, they had to write a short narrative text at home to introduce their peer. Teacher feedback on this text also served as a model for indirect feedback.[2] Before Essay 2, learners had a short training for peer feedback, as training is essential for its success (Chang, 2016; Min, 2005). Although longer and more elaborate training is ideal, we agree with Hu and Lam (2010) when they warn that the classroom requires adaptations, especially a course not solely focused on writing such as ours. Therefore, a 30-minute training activity occurred in class a week before learners engaged in giving feedback. During this training, in pairs, they had to give form-focused feedback on a paragraph provided by the teacher using the colour code scheme used by the teacher in their previous essay and add comments about content and structure. The teacher monitored and helped pairs during the activity, which ended with a discussion on some outstanding issues that a few learners had.

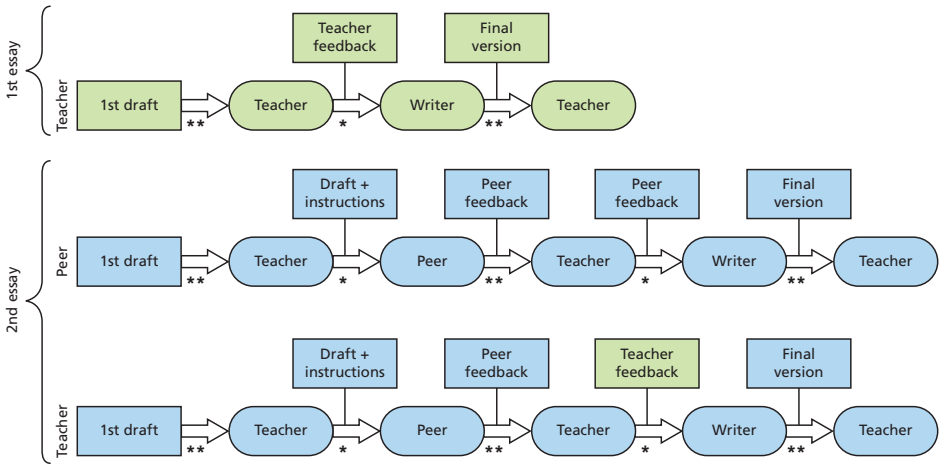
Essay 2 was a short expository text about a TED Talk of their choice. The teacher presented the TED website and its main features in class, as some students were new to it. For homework, they were instructed to watch as many TED Talks as possible, find one they liked, and write a short essay about it. This text (120–180 words)[3] had to contain a title, a summary of the main points of the video, as well as their reasoning for their choice. With the instructions for the essay, the teacher also emailed his essay to serve as input/model. Finally, the students were asked to keep the reader (their peer) in mind when writing.

Most EAL learners in this course had not had the opportunity to rewrite their text before. Therefore, instructions in class and an email detailed the text requirements and the steps they followed. As for anonymity, all authorship information was removed from the files before randomly assigning them to another learner. The only information remaining in the essays was a number so the teacher could keep track of reviewers and reviewees. Figure 1 describes the steps for data collection.

2 Hyland and Hyland (2006) define indirect feedback as the one where there is an indication of an error by using an underline, circle, code, and so on.

3 Learners were encouraged to use Google Docs or Word to avoid a mismatch of the colour coding.

Figure 1. Steps Implemented for Feedback



Note. Arrows = communication via email; blue = peer feedback.
*: a gap of 3 days. **: a gap of 10 days.

During the ten-day interval, learners had to provide feedback; the teacher randomly chose half of the essays to give feedback himself. After learners emailed the teacher the feedback for their peers' text, all authorship information was deleted from these files that were emailed back to the writers. All students received their revised text at the same time. Furthermore, they believed they were receiving feedback from a peer, even though half of them had feedback provided by the teacher, a design facilitated by electronic feedback (Ene & Upton, 2018). Finally, learners had three days to consider their feedback and submit their final versions for teacher evaluation.

After the students emailed the teacher their revised essay, they were asked to complete an attitudinal questionnaire on Google Forms (see Appendix) to unveil their perceptions of giving and receiving peer feedback. Questionnaires in Brazilian Portuguese were chosen over interviews due to time restrictions, as grades had to be assigned quickly. We considered that having the grades could affect learners' perception of the process (Best et al., 2015). Although we acknowledge that questionnaires present some limitations to grasping complex issues (Dörnyei, 2010), mainly the time allocated for completion, they remain a popular instrument to collect data on the perception of peer feedback (Chang, 2016; Wu & Schunn, 2020). The questionnaire had Likert-type items (three questions with six options) and some open-ended questions and was previously tested and used by Zaccaron and Xhafaj (2020).

Data Analysis

The quantitative data resulted from coding the feedback writers received for their essay draft and its uptake on the final version of the same text, which indicated learners' behavioural engagement with feedback.

In line with Conrad and Goldstein's (1999) proposal, all types of feedback were analysed to see whether they were (a) not revised, led to (b) successful, or (c) unsuccessful revisions. This step follows the same procedure employed by Mahfoodh (2017) and Yang et al. (2006).

A second analysis of our quantitative data compared the feedback provided and its uptake on the final versions of Essay 1, for which only the teacher gave feedback, and Essay 2, in which half of the group received teacher feedback but believed that a peer had given it, and half of the group received peer feedback.

Coding the quantitative data started with a preliminary practice involving both researchers, each coding eight essays with 101 tokens (feedback). The level of agreement reached using SPSS was a Cronbach alpha of 0.766, which is acceptable considering the three possible outcomes (taken up successfully, unsuccessfully, or not addressed) for the two variables (lexis and grammar). Then, the first author coded the remaining feedback, and the second author reviewed it. Instances of disagreement were discussed until agreement was found. Despite trying to keep consistency during the analysis (i.e., coding data in a short time), we acknowledge the subjectivity of such an approach as a limitation. Next, two excerpts exemplify the coding process for behavioural engagement with feedback.

The reviewer highlighted two grammar errors in this passage. We discussed that the second error could also have indicated a vocabulary issue. However, the colour used indicated the focus on the tense.

> Although they have only 16 neurons, it's eight per eye that say exactly where the target is.

Below, in the revised text sent to the teacher, we counted one successful (says) and one unsuccessful uptake (it is).

> Although they have only 16 neurons, it is they are eight per eye that says exactly where the target is.

Finally, to understand EAL learners' perception of the feedback process, qualitative data gathered through the questionnaire were analysed inductively using a reflexive thematic approach, identifying patterns across data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Data were approached deductively (based on previous descriptors

in the literature) and inductively, as new categories were identified in the data (Miles et al., 2014). Then, the analysis process using ATLAS.TI software version 22.1.5 facilitated the identification of recurrent themes and interconnected patterns. For instance, this process allowed us to link several actions taken by learners (e.g., analyse feedback, compare with different sources, and consolidate knowledge) to the first theme, "Research Triggered by Insecurity May Lead to Autonomy." Additionally, considering cross-cultural issues in multilingual research (Thompson & Dooley, 2019), the qualitative data in this paper were translated into English by two professional translators and the two authors. Differences in these translations were discussed until we agreed on a solution.

Ethics

Ethics was a sensitive issue for this study. The idea of providing teacher feedback presented as peer feedback was deemed justified considering that (a) teachers possess more advanced knowledge of the additional language than students; (b) therefore, teacher feedback would not negatively impact students' revised essays; and (c) the adopted design was the only possibility to investigate possible bias in feedback uptake. Furthermore, this study was approved by the institutional research ethics committee. Participants were provided with enough information to decide whether to participate voluntarily in the study. Finally, the handling of identifying information guaranteed confidentiality. Six participants either missed deadlines or did not consent to the study, and their data were not included.

Results

Quantitative Data

To answer our first research question, we compared the percentage of uptake (Tables 1, 2, and 3) for Essay 1—teacher feedback identified as such—and Essay 2—experimental condition.

Table 1. Proportions of Suggestions and Take-up Rates (Essay 1)

Measure	Lexis	Grammar	Total
N. of suggestions	32	340	372
Suggestions taken up successfully: *n* (%)	25 (78.12)	282 (82.94)	307 (82.53)
Suggestions taken up unsuccessfully: *n* (%)	5 (15.62)	42 (12.35)	47 (12.63)
Suggestions not addressed: *n* (%)	2 (6.25)	16 (4.71)	18 (4.84)

Table 2. Proportions of Suggestions and Take-up Rates (Essay 2: Teacher Feedback Disguised)

Measure	Lexis	Grammar	Total
N. of suggestions	29	268	297
Suggestions taken up successfully: *n* (%)	15 (51.72)	167 (62.31)	182 (61.28)
Suggestions taken up unsuccessfully: *n* (%)	4 (13.79)	32 (11.94)	36 (12.12)
Suggestions not addressed: *n* (%)	10 (34.49)	69 (25.75)	79 (26.60)

Table 3. Proportions of Suggestions and Take-up Rates (Essay 2: Peer Feedback)

Measure	Lexis	Grammar	Total
N. of suggestions	21	124	145
Suggestions taken up successfully: *n* (%)	11 (52.38)	82 (66.13)	93 (64.14)
Suggestions taken up unsuccessfully: *n* (%)	3 (14.29)	13 (10.48)	16 (11.03)
Suggestions not addressed: *n* (%)	7 (33.33)	29 (23.39)	36 (24.83)

While the percentages for unsuccessful uptake were similar, 12.6% for Essay 1 and 12.1% and 11% for Essay 2, the percentage of not addressed feedback showed a substantial difference, as only 4.8% of suggestions for Essay 1 were disregarded. In contrast, for Essay 2, this number rose to 26.6% of suggestions when they were from the teacher disguised as peer feedback and 24.8% of peer suggestions. There were instances where teacher feedback (Essay 1) led to errors, possibly for being unclear (Cui et al., 2021); nonetheless, learners addressed these instances and made changes where indicated by the teacher. When it comes to the feedback they thought was from a peer, distrust, possibly fuelled by the social representation of students of English, seemed to lead learners to ignore a much higher number of suggestions.

In sum, the answer to our first research question (Is there a difference in the behavioural engagement with teacher feedback when presented as peer feedback?) is that the percentage of suggestions taken up for teacher feedback disguised as peer feedback and peer feedback is quantitatively close.

Qualitative Data

Following Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis procedures, we identified three broad themes for our qualitative data.

Research Triggered by Insecurity May Lead to Autonomy

Learners indicated the feedback process to be demanding, mainly due to feeling insecure. While they reported insecurity about both the peer feedback they received and the feedback they gave to a peer, students also assessed this emotion to be a trigger for further research, as Lucia[4] mentioned: "As we weren't sure . . . we had to look things up, do some research and study." As a result, learners employed more strategies (e.g., checking different sources) than they would typically do when dealing with teacher feedback: "It leads us to verify (in other sources) whether that point/observation is accurate" (Jorge). Overall, students reported high behavioural engagement with peer feedback, especially considering that "analyse," "compare," and "research," as a group, were the codes with the highest presence in the data.

Furthermore, participants acknowledged that this activity demanded more time and effort than they were used to in the English class: "It was a *trabalheira* [much work] giving this feedback, I read my classmate's text about a thousand times" (Catarina). The use of *trabalheira*, a hyperbole for the word "work," echoed a feeling expressed by many students, that is, their high behavioural and cognitive engagement with the tasks was the result of the challenge posed by the activity, which a few learners reported to be beyond their language competence. This might be due to the sense of responsibility to their peer: "I don't want to be unfair, and at the same time, I want to show that I noticed something that isn't so clear in the text" (Gabriel). In other words, similar to Hu and Lam (2010), our participants were worried their feedback could mislead their peers; hence, they spent more time analysing it. Learners indicated this extra work could positively influence their future production in English, as Joice

4 All names are pseudonyms.

mentioned: "to analyse the common mistakes that are made and try to avoid them." This statement shows that some learners benefited from feedback by playing a more active role.

Similarly, learners were asked whether they engage differently with teachers and peer feedback. As reported in the literature (Chang, 2016), they trusted teacher feedback more. Concerning our research question on behavioural engagement, peer feedback resulted in high engagement, as mentioned by Leandro: "A search/reflection, which would probably not happen if the teacher pointed out the mistakes directly. After all, if the teacher says something, that's it, period!" This contrasting attitude towards the source of feedback (peer or teacher) gives a glimpse into how the social representation of these actors affects the process of an activity that shifts the role of authority in the classroom to students, such as peer feedback.

Additionally, it shows a more traditional social representation of teachers, similar to Vale et al. (2018). According to Wachelke and Camargo (2007), social representations serve as a guide to actions. In our study, this seems to have resulted in a more critical lens applied by students to peer feedback. Teacher feedback disguised as peer feedback received the same treatment.

In sum, despite feeling unsure about their peer feedback, at times, learners displayed a certain level of autonomy as they not only carried out research to give and analyse their peer feedback but also compared to their current production and indicated this could have an effect in the future, enhancing their learning. To summarise the positive aspect of researching more due to uncertainty, Moira mentioned: "It gives me the autonomy to pursue learning."

More Attention to Errors

Some students indicated that the higher attention required in the activity could benefit their future texts: "It makes us more attentive not to make the same mistake again" (Jorge). A high level of attention was required to analyse whether the feedback they received was appropriate to the context: "I had a little more work because I had to find out if that correction was right or not" (Luana). Additionally, the attention reverberated on their essays: "In a way, I am more attentive when writing mine (text)" (Maria). These remarks, by different learners, highlight that calling one's attention to errors was perceived as one of the main benefits of the peer feedback process.

Moreover, attention was indicative of high behavioural and cognitive engagement with peer feedback, as seen in the following excerpt by Joana: "I had to filter those corrections/comments that seemed plausible; this way, I found the mistakes I had made and kept the structures which I considered correct." Judging feedback, an essential aspect of feedback literacy (Carless & Boud, 2018), is a highly demanding cognitive action, as the peer's views trigger an evaluation of the feedback and their own text. Another point from Joana's answer is that learners, in general, were more prone to exercise their agency when dealing with peer feedback, as they evaluated feedback and decided to keep what they judged appropriate. Ana highlighted that the attention and effort required was a rupture from the general tasks in class: "It takes us, as students, out of our comfort zone." Such a process contrasts with their take on teacher feedback, which is taken at face value, as seen previously in Leandro's answer.

Having the chance to rewrite their text after feedback was something new to learners; they, therefore, highlighted the benefits of acting upon their errors and producing a new revised text: "Having the possibility to rewrite is very important so that we can correct our mistakes and not just observe what mistakes we make." Here, Felipe points to the crucial element of acting upon feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) instead of simply receiving feedback. This view aligns with Carless and Boud's (2018) stance that feedback not acted upon is simply information and, as such, does not have the same impact on learning. Moreover, with that

statement, Felipe hints that engagement with feedback is not as high when no resubmission is required. By paying close attention to errors when rewriting their first draft, learners indicated they judged peer feedback and mainly filtered what was appropriate to their text.

Higher Engagement With Peer Feedback

Giving and receiving feedback from a peer had benefits beyond reading different writing styles, as seen in Ho and Savignon (2007). Pre-intermediate students seemed to benefit from observing areas for improvement and successes in local textual issues, as seen in Luciana's position: "When you write something, especially in another language, it's important to have different points of view to notice mistakes and successes." Here, she highlights two aspects of this activity. First, writing in an additional language is demanding, and having diverse viewpoints, other than the teacher's, on linguistic aspects that can be improved is beneficial. The second aspect is that she could realise, through peer feedback, her accomplishments as a writer in the additional language.

Additionally, participants mentioned they could benefit from perceiving errors in their peer's text. Rodrigo, for instance, said:

> It was an exciting way of learning because, until then, I had been learning from my own mistakes. With this new action, I could learn from the mistakes of others and realise that they were mistakes that I would also make.

Rodrigo indicates that by looking at someone else's text and errors, one can identify patterns and perceive constructions similar to one's own (Shrum & Glisan, 2015).

Notably, although these learners were at the pre-intermediate level, they did not restrict their analysis to the word level. For instance, Julia mentioned that reading another form of organisation of arguments was enlightening: "It's possible to perceive other ways of structuring arguments." Still, beyond the word level, Moira adds: "It can bring new insights, ways of writing, and expressions that I can include in my future texts." This positive view of learning linguistic aspects from a peer's text aligns with Zhang and Hyland (2022), whose participants were happy to learn words and phrases in the peer feedback process.

Finally, to a few learners, giving feedback also served as a springboard to look for the video source for their peer's text. Gus said he decided "to watch the TED Talk itself to understand what the text was about." This went beyond the standard behavioural engagement with feedback and enhanced its exposition to include more input in English, which might benefit his learning.

Discussion and Implications

This mixed-method study proposed two research questions to investigate the impact social representations of teachers and peers have on EAL learners' behavioural engagement with written feedback. Taken together, the quantitative and qualitative results suggest that the source of feedback is more relevant than the feedback itself for its processing by the EAL learners investigated in this study. Additionally, the triangulation of our data strengthens the idea that peer feedback fosters strong behavioural engagement as it seems to trigger more reviewing strategies. We argue that the social representation of peers elicited from the answers to the questionnaire—that is, of what a peer at the same level can do—seems to trump their positive individual experience in producing feedback for their peer and, in turn, influences their suspicious behaviour towards processing the feedback received. Even taking into account the fact that the teacher would grade the texts (Ruegg, 2015), there was a considerable difference in uptake for Essay 1 (teacher feedback) and Essay 2 (teacher feedback disguised as peer feedback). The trust, or rather the lack of it, in the source of feedback seemed to lead to a more critical analysis of feedback when participants thought it came from an anonymous peer.

As Mayo (2015) argues, not trusting does not necessarily equate to invalidating the other. In our

study, distrust of peers seemed to bring about some positive actions (i.e., research and double checks) despite extra work and the negative emotions it generated namely uncertainty and anxiety. When comparing their approach to the first feedback they received (teacher feedback) and their answers from the questionnaire, our participants seemed to display a more passive role when processing teacher as opposed to peer feedback, corroborating Lee (2014) and Yang et al. (2006). Such a traditional approach to teacher feedback aligns with the social representations of English language teachers in Brazil found by Castro (2004). One may argue that this is obvious, considering the different roles teachers and students play in the classroom and the social representations of these groups. However, if we were to advance in offering a more student-centred approach to learning in the EAL context, should we not encourage students to apply a more thorough approach to teacher feedback, too? For teachers, the results also highlight that when the assessment focuses on the result rather than the process, learners seem to accept teacher feedback in a perfunctory manner.

It is important to emphasise that our objective is not to encourage learners to distrust teacher feedback, which is their default approach towards peer feedback. We argue that encouraging learners to apply similar analyses when they conduct peer feedback to teacher feedback might enhance their learning process, as they devote more attention to the feedback received and search other sources, enhancing their engagement. In fact, by revisiting our data from two years ago to write this article, there were a few instances when the teacher of the groups, the first author, found that some of his feedback was incorrect or too vague. This fact can happen for several reasons, be it time constraints of a fixed curriculum or high teaching workload (Cui et al., 2021). After all, the idea of teachers who are always right is a deeply ingrained myth, even by teachers (Fernandes, 2006). We are humans, so teachers sometimes give erroneous feedback despite avoiding it as much as we try. In sum, our argument is that teacher feedback should not be incorporated without reasoning, which, based on our results, often happens in the EAL context.

Another pedagogical implication is adopting peer feedback at all proficiency levels in general language courses. Despite a few adverse reactions it first generated, low-proficiency learners seemed to enjoy reading a peer's text and giving and receiving feedback. In this sense, we disagree with Liu and Wu (2019) when they suggest peer feedback only for higher proficiency groups. We side with Miao et al. (2006), who argue that exposure to peer feedback is the key to its acceptance. Thus, more rounds of peer feedback and its adoption sooner rather than later in language courses could be an effective strategy to mitigate possible negative emotions involved in the peer feedback process.

Conclusion

Overall, this study shows that pre-intermediate English learners display similar behavioural engagement with teacher feedback when disguised as peer feedback as they do with actual peer feedback; in other words, the social representations of teachers and peers seem to bias their feedback processing. Regarding the concern of perfunctory engagement with feedback, peer feedback, though perceived as an activity that requires more work, was the type of feedback that triggered a series of cognitive strategies and was also perceived by some learners as a means that placed them in control of their learning. Researchers and teachers should consider the benefits of peer feedback for pre-intermediate learners and the best way to fit specific contexts and reap its benefits.

We agree that studies on written corrective feedback should consider the powerful influence of specific contexts (Cheng & Zhang, 2021). Thus, our findings should be carefully considered. First, this was an exploratory study with data from only one teacher. Second, it was impossible to bring any firm conclusions about the comparison between the way learners received feedback

from the teacher in their first essay and the way they received feedback from the teacher (but which they thought was from a peer) in the second essay because we did not have an independent rater to analyse the feedback for its validity. Finally, our data came from the feedback process and a questionnaire. Future studies may employ different instruments, such as semi-structured interviews and stimulated recalls. This action would enrich the analysis of how learners perceive and approach teacher and peer feedback, considering the impact of authority and trust.

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Appendix: Perception Questionnaire

Name: _____ Age: _____

Please answer the following questions.

1. Regarding the colour-coded feedback, on a scale of 1 (I didn't like it at all) to 6 (I liked it a lot), how much did you like this correction?
   1 2 3 4 5 6
   Justify: _____

2. Were you familiar with this type of correction?
   Yes No

3. Regarding **giving feedback** on a peer's text, on a scale of 1 (I didn't like it at all) to 6 (I liked it a lot), how much did you like it?
   1 2 3 4 5 6
   Justify: _____

4. Regarding **your peer giving feedback** on your essay, on a scale of 1 (I didn't like it at all) to 6 (I liked it a lot), how much did you like it?
   1 2 3 4 5 6
   Justify: _____

5. Do you think that giving feedback on a peer's essay brings you benefits? Which one(s)?
   _____

6. Do you think the peer feedback you received helped you improve the final version of your text?
   Yes No

7. Did giving feedback make you go back to your text and change it?
   Yes No
   If so, give examples: _____

8. What do you do when you get peer feedback showing a mistake you wouldn't notice by yourself? Circle:
   - Ignore the feedback; your peer probably doesn't know the correct form, so they thought yours was wrong.
   - Confirm your hypothesis by asking someone else, searching online, or other sources.
   - It depends on the peer who gave feedback.
   - Other: _____

9. What if the same thing happens (previous question), but it was your teacher's feedback? What do you do?
   - You believe you are wrong immediately and look for the correct form.
   - You ask the teacher why the passage is wrong.
   - You ask another person/search online.
   - Other: _____

10. What kind of feedback would bring more benefits to your learning? Think about the different kinds of feedback you have had on your texts from other teachers. Justify your choice.
    _____

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Corpus Literacy Training for In-Service English Language Teachers

Alfabetización en corpus para profesores de inglés en servicio

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Corpus analysis offers a more accurate understanding of a language than intuition but is not widely used in foreign language instruction. This study uses a hermeneutic-phenomenology approach and content analysis to examine the impact of a corpus literacy course on the perceptions and performance indicators of 29 English language teachers. The results suggest that corpus literacy instruction is crucial for language teachers to incorporate corpus into their classroom practices effectively. Even a brief, intensive corpus literacy course can positively alter teachers' perceptions and abilities, increase their awareness of corpus usage in language teaching, and equip them with the skills needed, highlighting the importance of incorporating corpus literacy into the design of English language teacher education programs.

Keywords: corpus literacy, English language teachers, English language teacher education, teacher education programs

El análisis de corpus ofrece una comprensión más precisa del idioma que la intuición, pero no se utiliza ampliamente en la enseñanza de idiomas extranjeros. Este estudio examina, mediante un enfoque hermenéutico-fenomenológico y un análisis de contenido, el impacto de un curso de alfabetización de corpus en las percepciones y los indicadores de rendimiento de 29 profesores de inglés. Los resultados sugieren que la instrucción en el uso de corpus es esencial para que los profesores de idiomas lo incorporen efectivamente en su práctica. Incluso un curso breve e intensivo de formación en análisis de corpus puede alterar positivamente las percepciones y habilidades de los profesores, lo que demuestra la importancia de incorporar la alfabetización de corpus en el diseño de los programas de formación de profesores de inglés.

Palabras clave: alfabetización del corpus, formación de profesores de inglés, profesores de inglés, programas de formación docente

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Introduction

In any context, the quality of language education depends on the qualifications and competence of language teachers who continue to grow professionally beyond their initial preparation programs. To remain current in their expertise, language teachers need to update their knowledge through continuous engagement in professional development in which they learn about advances in their field, such as using a corpus in language teaching. With the proliferation and widespread availability of instructional computer technologies and affordances, acquiring corpus literacy skills has become important for updating foreign language teachers' repertoire of instructional methods. However, there is an enormous lack of corpus knowledge and skills among language teachers (Boulton, 2017; Chambers, 2019; Ma et al., 2022; Römer, 2011), indicating a need to provide professional education on how to use corpus technologies in teaching foreign languages (Frankenberg-Garcia, 2012).

Literature Review

The Corpus and Its Uses for Language Teaching

McEnery et al. (2006) described a corpus in linguistics as a compendium of texts selected from written and spoken language and arranged according to certain principles to exemplify samples of language usage according to standard or conventional linguistic criteria. It is, therefore, a collection of language as a reference for describing the target language in a machine-readable form (McEnery et al., 2006; McEnery & Wilson, 2004). Corpora (plural of corpus) are considered valuable resources as they can show how language works in authentic linguistic contexts. Although the history of corpus-based studies is not new, rapid developments since 1960 have paved the way for using corpus in linguistic fields such as lexicography and language teaching.

Corpus tools provide opportunities for linguistics researchers and language teachers and students. Farr (2008) listed a range of potential benefits for language teachers, particularly EFL teachers, beyond the capacity of their intuitions. For example, a corpus could allow teachers to identify patterns (i.e., collocation lists, clusters), word lists, and other lexico-grammatical instances for teaching/learning contexts. It can be used for language teaching and curriculum development purposes, such as creating corpus-based reading materials, class dictionaries, classroom exercises, and assessments based on real language examples, or simply searching for a structure in the target language. In brief, in addition to fields ranging from sociolinguistics and discourse analysis to translation studies and pragmatics studies, the corpus is mainly used in the field of language pedagogy for various purposes and in many ways, such as preparing lesson plans, creating teaching materials and classroom activities, conducting assessment, and producing dictionaries and coursebooks (Johansson, 2009).

The Necessity of Using a Corpus

Introducing corpus use to pre- and in-service language teachers could provide a versatile tool for accomplishing critical aspects of a teacher's tasks, such as planning, materials development, and testing. Among a few of the opportunities, for example, materials created by a teacher for language instruction and based on authentic language use seem to stand out since scholars (see Feng & Byram, 2002; Gilmore, 2019; Külekçi, 2015) indicate that this will markedly contribute to developing learners' both general and intercultural communicative competence. Such materials developed based on actual and correct language uses are potentially exploitable by the learners to become familiar with standard and idiosyncratic target language features ranging from lexico-grammatical structures to collocational and pragmatic uses. Meunier and Reppen (2015) highlight that the intuition of the material developers (teachers, practitioners, and so on) appears

to fail and become "unreliable" as far as phraseology and patterns in language are considered, promoting the view that it is "both possible and desirable to adopt corpus approaches in the design and development of language teaching materials" (p. 513).

Traditionally, learners obtain most target language input from textbooks (Kim & Hall, 2002). However, the language samples in textbooks are artificially aligned with particular instructional purposes and do not reflect natural and contextualized language use in communicative situations or important and frequently used language features (Barbieri & Eckhardt, 2007). Aston (2000) highlighted that language teaching curricula and materials seem to fall short of familiarizing learners with widespread uses of the target language; this suggests that "teachers often lack adequate textbook materials that focus on pragmatic functions" (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991, p. 10). This situation results in a severe gap between the English taught in classes and the English used by native speakers (Mindt, 1996), causing potential communication problems. Learners can obtain accurate input through materials drawn directly from native usage of the target language (Boxer & Pickering, 1995). In this context, the necessity arises to use a corpus consisting of the "real language" as a source input in foreign language education materials, activities, tasks, exercises, and exams.

Corpus Literacy

According to McEnery and Xiao (2011), the place of the corpus in language teaching and learning is felt more indirectly because teachers' limited knowledge of and skills in corpus use limit their ability to integrate it into their classroom practices. Corpus use has not become a general language teaching practice (Braun, 2005). English language teachers have been found to make little use of a corpus while preparing materials, activities, exercises, and exams (Mukherjee, 2004; Tribble, 2000). To use a corpus in their practices, English teachers would need to have acquired a set of skills such as corpus-linguistic, technical, and pedagogical skills (Callies, 2019; Mukherjee, 2006, as cited in Leńko-Szymańska, 2017). Language teachers' acquisition of these skills will only be possible through undergraduate courses, training, and workshops.

Heather and Helt (2012) defined corpus literacy as "the ability to use the technology of corpus linguistics to investigate language and enhance the language development of students" (p. 417). As Zareva (2017) highlighted, for teachers to benefit from incorporating corpora into their teaching practices, they must foster their corpus literacy skills. Considering the definition by Heather and Helt about corpus literacy of a teacher, it is not a mere (in)direct use of the corpus in the classroom, whether occasionally or often. However, it is more of a combination of required technological knowledge and research skills to support students' language learning. This is critical when the potential of corpora in teaching practices is considered.

Despite the recent emphasis on the significance of corpora's role in language instruction, there is a dearth of research on corpus literacy. To the best of our knowledge, most previous studies have focused on the training of preservice teachers (Breyer, 2009, 2011; Farr, 2008; Heather & Helt, 2012; Leńko-Szymańska, 2014, 2017; Naismith, 2017; Zareva, 2017). Naismith (2017) suggested that when teacher trainees in CELTA were introduced to corpus use and tools, they could gain deeper language awareness and utilize them in planning their lessons. In a study of preservice EFL teachers, Bal-Gezegin et al. (2022) reported that the participants, trained to use corpus tools for various purposes, benefitted from consulting the corpora while giving corrective feedback to learners' texts. The participants expressed that using corpora increased their sense of security and motivation while providing feedback.

Earlier studies on implementing corpora into classroom practices (Breyer, 2009; Chambers et al., 2011; Leńko-Szymańska, 2014) illustrate that teachers who were instructed explicitly in their use and encouraged to apply what they learned become highly skilled in using corpora to manage their instruction and make

appropriate language teaching decisions. Although researchers have also investigated corpus literacy for in-service language teachers (Çalışkan & Kuru Gönen, 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Karlsen & Monsen, 2020; Kavanagh, 2021; Lin & Lee, 2015; Ma et al., 2022; Mukherjee, 2004), there is still a need for further research. In previous studies, for example, Karlsen and Monsen (2020) interviewed four upper secondary school teachers to learn about their perspectives on integrating corpora in their teaching. They found that, although teachers had acquired corpus literacy, they avoided using corpora in class. The authors recommended the development of pedagogically appropriate and freely accessible corpora for use in class. Kavanagh (2021) investigated what four in-service English teachers found useful or challenging in corpora and found that they reported the same challenges, which the researcher considered a positive finding because "if the same problems exist for every type of teacher, successful solutions may apply to all" (p. 101). In-service teachers' positive attitudes toward corpus use in their classes were found among teachers with different amounts of teaching experiences; for example, Lin and Lee's (2015) study involved early career teachers, while Bunting's (2013) study involved teachers with more than 20 years of experience. These findings also indicate commonalities in teachers' perspectives on corpus use no matter how long they have been teaching and in what contexts.

One of the main reasons language teachers do not integrate corpus use into their practices is that they have not developed the necessary knowledge and skills, which Mukherjee (2006) suggested, ranging from understanding what a corpus is to using it as a source of valuable information supporting classroom practices. As Chambers (2019) stated, most language teachers are unaware that language classrooms are already equipped with various corpus-informed materials (i.e., textbooks and dictionaries). Leńko-Szymańska (2014) observed that there has been a very long-standing argument as to the need to create opportunities for in-service teachers, and even teacher candidates, to develop what Breyer (2009) termed "teaching awareness" and language teaching methods using corpora. However, as widely reported, the rare use of corpora by language teachers and language teacher educators is not unique to particular contexts (see also Ebrahimi & Faghih, 2017).

In the Turkish context, while there are some studies of the integration of corpus literacy into teacher education (Özbay, 2017; Şimşek, 2020) and university training of English language instructors (Çalışkan & Kuru Gönen, 2018), little is known about in-service teachers' perspectives on the integration of corpus use into their teaching practices. Therefore, the present study explored how a short-term corpus literacy course influenced the perceptions and performances of in-service English teachers regarding integrating corpora and corpus tools into language education.

Method

This study investigated the perceptions and performance indicators of 29 in-service English teachers (three men and 26 women: mean age of 36.5) about a three-day corpus literacy training. The participants worked at different state schools in Türkiye and took part in a research project aiming to introduce and develop their corpus literacy and skills. No ethical approval was required for this study, as it did not include any intervention that affected the participants. However, ethical considerations such as confidentiality of the data, anonymity of participants, informed consent, and right to withdraw from the study were guaranteed. This study adopted a hermeneutic-phenomenology (interpretive) approach to investigate changes in the participants' perceptions and performance indicators after completing the three-day course on both theoretical and practical aspects of corpus literacy.

Qualitative data were gathered with the same five open-ended questions asked before and after the training (see Table 1). The participants' written responses were taken in Turkish and translated into English.

Table 1. Open-Ended Questions Asked Before and After the Training

Perception	What do you think of using corpora in English lessons? Do you believe in the effectiveness of corpus use in English lessons? What are the possible benefits of using corpora in English lessons? What may be the possible reasons that hinder the use of corpora in English lessons?
Performance	Do you consider developing corpus-based content (materials, activities, tasks, exercises) for English lessons?

Following the hermeneutic phenomenological (interpretive) approach, we not only identified themes that emerged but also made relevant deductions to interpret the data (Creswell, 2007). The open-ended questions were designed to elicit changes in the participants' perceptions and performances after the training. We conducted content analysis, described by Krippendorff (1980) as "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context" (p. 21), which, according to Weber (1990), "uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from the text" (p. 9). For credibility, we applied researcher triangulation to our analysis (Creswell, 2009). The three researchers coded and categorized the participants' responses separately to determine common themes. After the initial examination of the data, we applied emergent coding (Silverman, 2013). We discussed the themes through comparisons and repeated readings, providing a holistic analysis using textural and structural descriptions of the participants' experiences (Creswell, 2007). Researcher triangulation countered the subjectivity of the emerging themes. Brief illustrative and representative excerpts were selected from the participants' responses to help clarify the emerging themes. The selection of excerpts was first done separately by the researchers and finalized after discussion.

The Course Design in the Training

Farr and O'Keeffe (2019) argue that if one accepts that language teaching is demanding, language teacher training is even more complex. In developing the syllabus for corpus literacy training, we benefitted from the suggestions of scholars in the field. Mukherjee (2006) suggested the following dimensions of learning corpus literacy: (a) learning what a corpus is, (b) understanding the affordances of a corpus, (c) conducting data analysis with a corpus, and (d) drawing language-use conclusions from corpus data. Overall, the results indicate that there have been substantial changes in the perceptions and performance indicators of the participants toward the use of corpus linguistics and corpus tools. Aston (2000) proposed five phases: (a) introducing participants to corpus-related skills; (b) helping participants transform theory into practice using corpora (general, specific, and learner's corpora); (c) enabling participants to explore different ways of integrating a corpus into their teaching; (d) guiding participants in collaboratively preparing various course elements, such as materials, activities, and exams; and (e) organizing participants' presentation of their products and contents to other English teachers who are active in the field.

Based on the suggestions mentioned above, the aim of the corpus literacy training in the current study was to enable participant teachers to:

- acquire basic information on general and special corpora specially prepared for English (COCA, BNC, etc.),
- plan and develop English course materials (including corpus-based activities, language practice in the four primary skills and sub-skills, and exams) using corpora and corpus tools (AntConc, Skell, UAM Corpus Tool, Sketch Engine),
- use the materials, activities, and exercises they have created with a corpus,
- develop their skills for integrating corpus use into English lessons per the curriculum and practice context-oriented language teaching with the do-it-yourself corpora they create.

The lectures we provided included such topics as the history of the corpus, types of corpora, how to build and tag a corpus, how to consult corpora for different purposes, preparing teaching materials, activities, and tasks with the help of corpus, doing text analysis, and using concordance lines and corpus tools. Each day, the participants attended eight hours of theoretical and practical instruction provided by the researchers. The training was conducted in a computer laboratory where each participant had a computer during the sessions. At the end of the training, the participants presented the corpus-based products they had prepared.

Findings

The findings are presented with subtitles in line with the open-ended questions asked before and after the training (see Table 1).

Perception-Oriented Open-Ended Questions Before Training

Initially, the participants could not give satisfactory answers to our four questions about their perceptions of the use of corpus in English teaching, showing that they generally did not have any knowledge about it. They gave such answers as the following:

> I do not know about this. (Participant 5)
>
> I don't know much about using a corpus, so I believe this training will be instrumental. (Participant 6)
>
> I am not competent. (Participant 14)
>
> I have never used it before. (Participant 22)
>
> I have heard of the corpus in the undergraduate program but have not seen it in detail. I do not know much about it. (Participant 28)

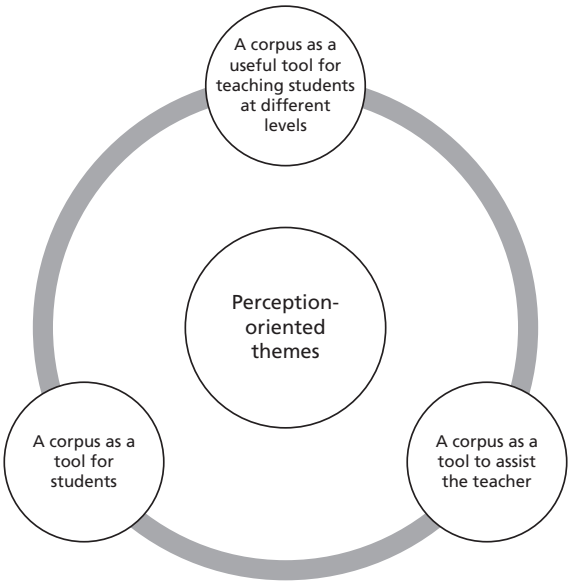
Performance-Oriented Open-Ended Question Before Training

As deduced from the replies to the perception questions, most participants did not know about using a corpus or had only heard of it. Accordingly, in response to the performance-oriented open-ended question, they all stated that they had not used a corpus in their teaching practices.

Perception-Oriented Open-Ended Questions After Training

In reply to Question 1 (What do you think of using corpora in English lessons?), the participants made positive comments from many different perspectives about using a corpus, from which three main themes emerged (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Perception-Oriented Themes



A Corpus as a Useful Tool for Teaching Students at Different Levels

The participants found that integrating corpora offered a range of opportunities for language teaching. Responses concentrated on how using a corpus could benefit the language skill development of students at different levels. During the short training, some participants gained new insights into how they could use corpora in their teaching. As evidence of how much the training transformed teachers' perceptions, one participant cited an example, stressing a pre- and post-

training difference in her understanding of whether and how she would use a corpus at different levels. Comments included the following:

> It should definitely be used, and I think it can be developed and applied to all skills. (Participant 3)
>
> With this project training, I had the chance to discover more clearly that it is applicable to the lessons. (Participant 8)
>
> At the beginning of the training, I thought that it could not be applied at all levels, but after the training, I saw that it could be applied to every class for *every skill*. I think I can integrate the corpus with new projects. (Participant 17)

A Corpus as a Tool to Assist the Teacher

After receiving the training and leveling up their corpus literacy, most participants found that using a corpus was highly useful as a support for teachers in dealing with the many challenges of EFL teaching. Most participants felt corpus tools boosted teaching efficiency, while the rest believed they offered innovative material and activity design methods. Participants also reported being motivated to use a corpus in their classes and enthusiastic about the different possibilities they had learned about in their training, as shown in the following statements:

> It can be used for material development, adaptation, item creation, and evaluation of our curriculum. Using a corpus will make our job easier. I think it will help us to teach different sentence patterns and [define meanings] without relying only on the dictionary. (Participant 6)
>
> While teaching the main components of the language such as vocabulary, reading, writing, grammar, and pronunciation, [a corpus] helps establish an organized background and prepare a good lesson plan. (Participant 9)
>
> The corpus offers a very practical presentation and [means of] learning in teaching English. I can benefit from [using a] corpus; it makes my life easier in a professional sense. (Participant 17)

A Corpus as a Tool for Students

The participants also expressed that integrating corpora into language teaching would significantly enhance their students' motivation and provide a range of advantages offered by corpus use (i.e., understanding language use in context). This affordance paves the way for reinforcing students' learning and opening a space for autonomous learning. Comments included the following:

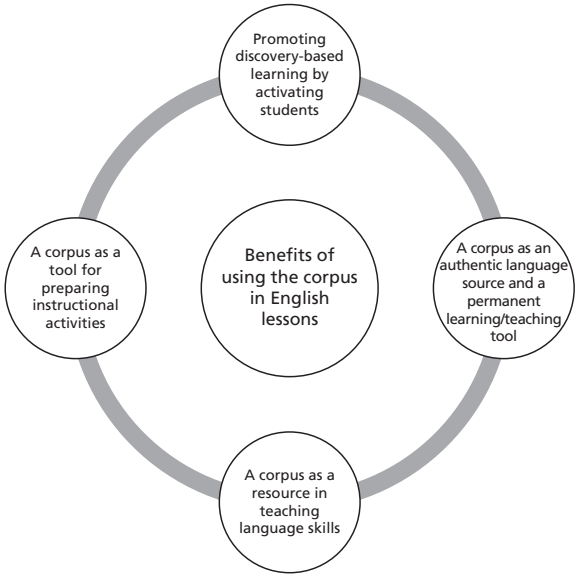
> Very useful for reinforcing students' learning. (Participant 11)
>
> I have students between the ages of 9–12. Since I think that my students are born and raised as "digital natives," I think that corpus education will be beneficial and motivating in the school environment. Students will learn more permanently by exploring the examples themselves and by seeing which words (nouns, adjectives, etc.) are used together, not by memorizing. (Participant 19)
>
> It enables students to choose the appropriate word, to see what to use in what context, to do many detailed vocabulary studies such as the frequency of use of words, etc. (Participant 24)

As for Question 2 (Do you believe in the effectiveness of corpus use in English lessons?), the teachers believed that using a corpus could be effective in various ways. One participant emphasized that he could use the corpus to prepare lesson plans and exams, and another commented that it could be used to "improve writing and reading skills, especially in fifth-grade English-based classes." The teachers also expressed hesitations and concerns about issues, such as the possible difficulty of using a corpus with low-level students. The participants stated that teachers should thoroughly explore the corpus themselves before deciding how to use it with particular groups of students.

Regarding Question 3 (What are the possible benefits of using corpora in English lessons?), it was evident that the training had significantly increased the participants' awareness of the benefits of using a corpus

in their lessons. Among those benefits perceived by the participants were the promotion of discovery-based learning by engaging students, provision of an authentic language source, accessibility of a permanent learning/teaching tool, availability of a practical resource in teaching language skills, and convenience of having a tool for preparing instructional activities (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Benefits of Using a Corpus in English Lessons



Promoting Discovery-Based Learning by Engaging Students

The participant teachers were highly focused on how corpus-based instruction could enhance students' English learning by supporting their development as autonomous learners. In this regard, the participants expressed that incorporating corpora and corpus tools into their teaching context would help them promote student-centered discovery-based learning. Some of their observations were:

> Students learn through exploration, and a horizon is opened for them. (Participant 1)
>
> Students do not memorize but learn by discovering examples themselves. They see with which nouns, adjectives, etc., words are used, and they study collocations. They will learn much more permanently. Students can learn by being involved in learning environments and by living and trying. (Participant 7)
>
> It is great for students to discover the meaning and uses of words. (Participant 16)
>
> Corpus tools with the right course design will support the student's discovery. (Participant 23)

A Corpus as an Authentic Language Source and a Permanent Learning/Teaching Tool

One of the issues in teaching EFL is the often insufficient amount and variety of real-life language that the learners are exposed to in and outside the classroom. Even though coursebooks and some other teaching materials provide some authentic language, they are limited in the range of structures they can present and do not convey how common a structure is in actual language use or whether there are alternative structures that might be pragmatically more appropriate in particular contexts. The participants appeared to recognize that corpora and corpus tools provide quantitative evidence of common usage in real-life language, which could provide them and their students with a more reliable source of authentic language use in the target language than the limited examples in textbooks and enable them to realize the power of contextually appropriate language. Among the teachers' comments were the following:

> By combining grammar rules and structures in their mother tongue, students have the opportunity to learn the structures in the target language more naturally and meaningfully from the real source, rather than speaking an artificial language. (Participant 2)
>
> The corpus provides a valid and reliable source for accessing authentic texts, applying discovery-based, problem-solving-based teaching, and preparing materials and content. (Participant 5)

> The student has the opportunity to learn the structures in the target language in a more natural way from the real source. (Participant 18)
>
> The corpus allows us to use a much more real language. (Participant 26)

Active and experiential learning by doing and through experience will likely trigger permanent learning. Consulting a corpus and using corpus tools can therefore support long-term retention of what is learned. As seen in the excerpts below, after becoming familiar with the corpus tools, the participants appreciated that the corpus-based approach could effectively support permanent learning.

> Learning the language from a real context will trigger further learning. (Participant 12)
>
> Using these tools actively will provide a permanent, reliable, and effective learning environment. (Participant 15)
>
> It will provide a permanent, reliable, and effective learning environment when these tool are used actively. (Participant 22)
>
> It provides a very important infrastructure for teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, and pronunciation. It helps [the teacher] to teach correctly and [the student to learn] permanently. (Participant 29)

A Corpus as a Resource in Teaching Language Skills

As they gained insight into how convenient a corpus and corpus tools could be as a language-teaching resource, the participants envisioned how these could be exploited to trigger students' active learning. Some emerging themes revolve around the potential effectiveness of corpus integration for helping students expand their vocabulary and repertoire of grammatical structures in the target language by actively exploring its usage in context. Participants' comments include the following:

> A useful tool for vocabulary learning and teaching the use of words in texts and the structures they are used together. (Participant 2)
>
> A corpus will be helpful for students to learn vocabulary and improve their writing and reading skills. It provides a very important infrastructure for teaching vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening, and pronunciation. (Participant 4)
>
> I will be able to improve the students' communicative skills by using corpus tools and designing materials with the right course design. (Participant 13)
>
> The corpus will be useful for the development of students' writing and reading skills. (Participant 21)

A Corpus as a Tool for Preparing Instructional Activities

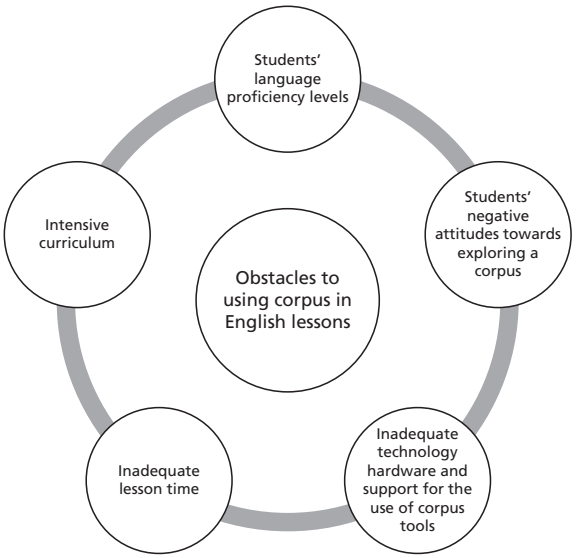
Providing meaningful materials and engaging activities is crucial to effective language teaching; developing them is demanding and can pose a major challenge for many EFL teachers. In addition, relying on sources other than authentic language, such as commercially produced texts, can result in low-quality materials. As reflected in the following comments, the participants reported being encouraged by the possibility of using a corpus as a resource for designing materials that were both realistic and appropriate for their teaching contexts:

> It provides a valid and reliable source for material and content preparation. (Participant 1)
>
> A corpus can be helpful in developing questions, exams, or materials. Performance homework and project homework can be given. (Participant 8)
>
> I will be able to improve the students' communicative skills by using corpus tools and designing materials with the right course design. (Participant 16)

Although after training the participants reported many benefits in the use of a corpus and corpus tools, their responses to Question 4 (What may be

the possible reasons that hinder the use of corpora in English lessons?) showed an awareness of the factors that could challenge or prevent the use of a corpus in their teaching contexts, such as students' language proficiency levels, students' negative attitudes toward exploring a corpus, inadequate technology hardware and support for the use of corpus tools, inadequate lesson time, and an intensive curriculum (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Obstacles to Using Corpora in English Lessons



Nevertheless, as indicated by their earlier comments, these negative factors did not discourage the teachers from considering the plausibility of integrating corpus use into their teaching. Indeed, some even suggested ways to eliminate possible barriers. As the following two teachers mentioned, with good planning and practice, most obstacles could be overcome over time, enabling them eventually to take full advantage of the benefits of corpus-based instruction in their teaching contexts.

> Technological infrastructure and inadequacies can create obstacles. Therefore, good planning should be done in advance. Deficiencies in the practitioner's and the learner's literacy skills can create some difficulties. However, *these shortcomings will improve with the use of the corpus*. In addition, it may not be necessary to have technology in the classroom to use corpora and compilation-based materials available. Some of the materials and tasks prepared by the teachers using the corpus tools *can be used with students in printed form*. (Participant 12)

> There may be a technical background, but *if I, as a teacher, do my own preparation/research well* and distribute the results to the class as course material, *I can use the corpus comfortably*. (Participant 25)

Performance-Oriented Open-Ended Question After Training

Based on the participants' replies to Question 5 (Do you consider developing corpus-based content—materials, activities, tasks, exercises—for English lessons?), it is reasonable to infer that after the training, the participants' beliefs about and attitudes toward the possibility of performing corpus-based teaching themselves had changed significantly. Before the training, the teachers were generally uninformed about corpora and corpus tools and had never considered using them in their teaching or lesson planning. After the training, the participants asserted they would use these tools to design materials and in their teaching. Therefore, it may be concluded that the teachers would likely use these tools to prepare and teach lessons. They were ready to integrate the corpus into their instructional practices. Some of the participants' responses in this regard are as follows:

> *Before the training*, I did not know what could be done with a corpus, *but after the training*, I think that using a corpus is a vast field. I *can contribute to* my students' language development with different tools and materials and produce good lesson plans. Through these training sessions, I have learned to develop such materials. (Participant 9)

> Yeah. I think *I can develop very effective worksheets*, especially for reading, writing, and language classes. (Participant 17)

> *I'm thinking about activities* to make my students talk by working on phrasal verbs and collocations. With the help of the information I gained in the course, *I can develop materials or activities* in this direction. I will definitely include it in my classes. (Participant 22)

As seen in the excerpts below, the teachers reflected on how they could use corpora, including specific programs to which they were exposed, for preparing language learning materials and activities. Their reasons for consulting a corpus varied according to their contexts. For example, while the teachers in the first and the third excerpts below mentioned corpus use for vocabulary teaching, the teacher in the second excerpt anticipated creating a learner-corpus from her students' writings. Her interest in corpus use goes beyond prospective applications to plans for action research on the learner-corpus created.

> Yes. For example, by using the *word part of the COCA program*, I can teach all the usages of the word from the videos created with native speakers and enable students to use new words actively. With the browse section, I can support my students in producing songs or poems according to their interests.
>
> Yeah. Studies, where I can upload more texts, *create a learner-corpus*, and do item analysis, will be compelling. There will be studies that I will turn into action research. (Participant 13)
>
> Yeah. I can prepare lesson plans through *BNC, COCA, and Lextutor*. For example, I can teach various vocabulary analyses and grammar *on Sketch Engine and English-corpora*. (Participant 20)

Discussion and Conclusion

Interest in using corpora and corpus tools for language learning and teaching has grown exponentially in the past decade. Despite this interest, using a corpus in language teaching and learning in various contexts is uncommon (Farahani & Pahlevansadegh, 2019). Mauranen (2004) has argued that, to improve the quality of language education substantially, "corpora must be adopted by ordinary teachers and learners in ordinary classrooms" (p. 208). The present study also suggests that corpus use should become a mainstay of language learning and teaching practices, especially in contexts where teachers and students do not have immediate access to actual language use. However, research has consistently shown that language teachers lack the necessary knowledge and skills to use corpora and corpus tools in their practices (Mukherjee, 2004; Römer, 2011).

Moreover, English teachers have little opportunity to observe the use of a corpus and corpus tools in language teaching (Braun, 2005), and few have even heard of corpora and their applications (Chambers, 2019; Ma et al., 2022; Mukherjee, 2004). As for Türkiye, there have been no compulsory courses with respect to the use of corpus linguistics and corpus tools in language teaching for teacher candidates in teacher education programs. However, some elective courses are offered in a few English language teaching departments of universities. Nevertheless, researchers have demonstrated the need for language teachers to become familiar with corpus linguistics and aware of the benefits of using corpora and corpus tools before they graduate from their departments (McCarthy, 2008; Mukherjee, 2006; O'Keeffe & Farr, 2003). Therefore, the need for training language teachers about corpora use and corpus tools and raising their awareness of the benefits of including them in their practices has heightened (O'Keeffe & Farr, 2003).

Offering this type of training to language teachers could be crucial to encourage them to expose their students to natural and authentic language use. The present study extends the findings of previous research by documenting changes in the perceptions and performance indicators of English teachers in İstanbul, Türkiye, after an intensive, three-day (24-hour) training course on corpus linguistics and literacy and corpus tools. Acknowledging the importance of scaffolding

while training teachers on using corpora and corpus tools (Ma et al., 2022), the researchers developed the course to guide teachers through the novel content in a step-by-step fashion.

The corpus literacy training provided in this project was practical regarding the changes in the perceptions and performance indicators of the participating English language teachers. This finding underscores those in several earlier studies. For example, Farr (2008) found that the participants developed a positive perception of using corpora. Similarly, Ma et al. (2022) concluded that the participants in their recent study of corpus-based language pedagogy training for TESOL teachers gained satisfactory levels of corpus literacy and initial competence in using corpus-based language pedagogy. In their case study, Heather and Helt (2012) also concluded that their corpus course was generally effective in positively orienting teachers to corpus use. Çalışkan and Kuru Gönen (2018) found that corpus training de facto increased EFL instructors' awareness of the use of corpus-based pedagogy. The participants of the present study also developed positive perceptions of corpora and their uses in language teaching. They mentioned many benefits of a corpus as an authentic target language source, a tool to support permanent learning, and a resource for preparing instructional activities. Considering the changes in the perceptions of our participant teachers after they had experienced training in corpus literacy and instructional practices, we also confirm the importance, and indeed the necessity, of such training for increasing teachers' awareness, literacy, and skills. Besides, after the training, the teachers in this study reported that they had acquired substantial skills in using corpora and corpus tools to develop content, activities, and materials for language teaching. From our participants' feedback, it is evident that, even after just an initial introduction to the corpus, they felt confident about its potential applications and how it could benefit their language teaching. We also found that some teachers felt considerably inspired when they realized the significant potential offered by corpora and corpus tools to showcase authentic language in their classes to help meet their students' needs for exposure to actual and contextual language use, especially in an EFL setting.

In parallel with our findings, Breyer (2009) concluded that a course on corpus-based teaching is necessary, as foreign language teachers are essentially novice corpus users. The 29 English language teacher participants in the current study also reported this need in their responses given before the training. Breyer suggested that teachers participating in such training increased their language awareness and practical knowledge of the target language and how to teach it. Naismith (2017) also found that CELTA trainees increased their language awareness and were able to utilize corpora and corpus tools in their practices. Our results are essentially in line with the results of these two studies. Our participants believe using a corpus enhances language teaching by aiding student engagement and developing instructional materials and assessments. Nevertheless, considerable time might be needed for language teachers to familiarize themselves and their students with the opportunities offered by corpus integration. This issue is of great importance, as teachers are also expected to implement some necessary technological and pedagogical knowledge to integrate corpus use into their teaching contexts.

Taken together, the results of the current study, along with the findings of previous studies, indicate that corpus literacy instruction is essential if language teachers are to use corpora and corpus tools in their classroom practices. As acknowledged by Davis and Russell-Pinson (2004), if teachers, as novices in corpus use, are to "embark on this linguistic journey" (p. 157) of benefitting from the corpus and its applications in their teaching, teacher educators and professional developers must first ensure that they have access to the instruction and guidance they need to become independent users of these resources. We believe such support is crucial

so they can acquire sufficient knowledge and skills to manage corpus-assisted language teaching successfully. Our findings suggest that even a short but intensive course on corpus literacy can effectively change the perceptions of English teachers, increasing their awareness of the potential use of corpora in language teaching and helping them acquire an initial set of skills for using corpus tools in their classroom practices. The overall positive reactions of the participants in this study to the corpus literacy course indicate the need for providing corpus literacy courses for both pre- and in-service foreign language teachers. In line with the findings of this study, we believe that corpus literacy courses provide opportunities for language teachers to experience the potential of corpora not only in their language teaching but also in their language development.

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Ecuadorian EFL Preservice Teachers' Attitudes Toward Pronunciation Features

Actitudes de docentes ecuatorianos de inglés en formación en torno a rasgos de la pronunciación

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This mixed-method study examines Ecuadorian preservice English as a foreign language teachers' cognition regarding pronunciation models and targets, identity, and confidence. Data were gathered through a self-reported, anonymous online questionnaire. Factor analysis and Spearman's correlations were conducted on the quantitative data, and content analysis on the qualitative data. The results revealed that the participants highly value the native speaker model of pronunciation, are dissatisfied with their nonnative English pronunciation, are not interested in showing their Ecuadorian identities when speaking English, and are still not confident in their English pronunciation. The findings are discussed in light of the implications for pronunciation teachers.

Keywords: attitudes, cognition, English as a foreign language, identity, preservice teachers, pronunciation

Este estudio de método mixto examina la cognición de futuros docentes de inglés como lengua extranjera ecuatorianos con relación a modelos y objetivos de pronunciación, identidad y confianza. Los datos se recolectaron mediante un cuestionario en línea anónimo. Se realizó un análisis factorial y de correlaciones de Spearman con los datos cuantitativos, así como un análisis de contenido con los cualitativos. Los resultados revelaron que los participantes valoran mucho el modelo de pronunciación nativo; están insatisfechos con su pronunciación de inglés no nativa; no están interesados en mostrar su identidad ecuatoriana cuando hablan inglés, y aún no tienen confianza en su pronunciación del inglés. Los resultados se discuten con base en su importancia para el entrenamiento de profesores de pronunciación.

Palabras clave: cognición, actitudes, docentes de inglés en formación, identidad, inglés como lengua extranjera, pronunciación

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Introduction

In the era of English as a lingua franca, English as an international language, and world Englishes—when the ability to use this language for communication is considered a core skill that enables participation in educational and working milieus, and when the native-like pronunciation goal tends to be discouraged in favor of intelligibility—issues of pronunciation are worth addressing. Nevertheless, even though scholars have endorsed the need for empirical studies in the area of pronunciation teacher education (Burri, 2015), studies on second language teacher cognition regarding pronunciation are exiguous (Baker & Murphy, 2011; Murphy, 2014), and no studies, to our knowledge, have been conducted with preservice English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in Ecuador. Against this backdrop, this study aims to analyze Ecuadorian EFL preservice teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation models and targets, identity, and confidence after taking phonetics and phonology courses as part of a university teaching training program in Cuenca, Ecuador. Since pronunciation learning can trigger identity predicaments due to the close connection between accent, intelligibility, and speaker identity (Gatbonton et al., 2005), analyzing preservice teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation issues can provide sound insights to understand and improve second language teaching training concerning pronunciation instruction.

Theoretical Framework

Research on attitudes, models of English, and identity in relation to pronunciation frame this study.

Teacher Attitudes and Identity

Teacher attitudes, along with beliefs, knowledge, feelings, perceptions, and thoughts, belong to the realm of teacher cognition, the "personal, unseen aspects of teachers' work," which exert a strong influence on teachers' behavior and pedagogical practices (Borg, 2019, p. 1150). Likewise, teacher identity can also be considered part of teacher cognition since it is related to teachers' beliefs, thoughts, perceptions, or feelings (Borg, 2019); however, according to Burri et al. (2017), cognition and identity should be considered as separate components of teacher learning that develop jointly. It is a paramount element of the teaching profession since it can lay the foundation for constructing teachers' ideas on "how to be, how to act, and how to understand their work and their place in society" (Sachs, 2005, p. 15). Teacher identity is not a determinate, stable, unchanging feature but constantly constructed and negotiated based on the experiences teachers undergo (Macías Villegas et al., 2020). In fact, "the development of teacher identity is an ongoing process of interpretation and reinterpretation of who one considers oneself to be and who one would like to become" (van Lankveld et al., 2017, p. 326). Learning to teach directly influences teacher identity formation (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009); therefore, the theoretical and practical knowledge learned in teaching training programs allows preservice teachers to shape and understand their role as teachers (Macías Villegas et al., 2020).

Models of English and Pronunciation Attitudes

According to Kirkpatrick (2006), three models of English can serve English language teaching in different contexts: the exonormative native-speaker model, the endonormative nativized model, and the multilingual or lingua franca model. Choosing the English variety to be used as a model for teaching and learning in the expanding circle, where English is a foreign language, and the outer circle, where English is one of the official languages of a country, has usually been not grounded on educational issues but on political and ideological considerations; therefore, teachers and learners, who are the direct users, do not often have a saying in the decision of the model to be used for teaching and learning (Kirkpatrick, 2006). Usually, the native-speaker model has been preferred for being a simple and cautious

choice because of the tremendous amount of material available for teaching and assessment that uses native-speaker varieties, the consideration of these varieties as standard, the interests of influential media and publishing agencies, and the perceived superiority of such varieties over relatively new, nativized ones (Kirkpatrick, 2006). Although the native-speaker model has been recognized as the most appropriate model for learners who are interested in migrating to English-speaking countries and learning the culture of these countries (Brown, 2014), it has been emphasized that these learners are small in number since the majority of outer-circle and expanding-circle learners will use English to communicate with other nonnative speakers (NNS)(Kirkpatrick, 2006).

Instead of considering the standard English varieties—General American (GA) or General British (GB)—a "default" decision, many factors should be analyzed before selecting a variety of English for instruction: the particular teaching context, "student's needs and goals, teacher's expertise, and attitudes toward a particular variety of English" (Matsuda, 2019, p. 148). Indeed, learners' attitudes toward the target language may directly affect the pronunciation type adopted by them (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994) as well as their "learning choices and outcomes" (Setter & Jenkins, 2005, p. 5). Research on learners' attitudes toward pronunciation and their relationship with pronunciation goals has yielded mixed results. For instance, Pullen (2012) observed that the more the EFL learners felt affiliated with their culture, the less they cared about achieving native-like English pronunciation. On the other hand, Georgountzou and Tsantila (2017) reported that although EFL learners highly valued their culture, they also had positive attitudes toward native English accents and wanted to achieve native-like pronunciation.

Regarding second language teachers' attitudes, Monfared (2018) found out that English teachers in the expanding circle tend to highly value native-speaker pronunciation, considering it the best and only correct form, while English teachers in the outer circle tend not to strive for native-like pronunciation and value meaning conveyance instead. Chan (2018) reported that even though Hong Kong English teachers consider intelligibility a crucial factor in communication, their teaching practices aim at native-like pronunciation, especially regarding assessment criteria. In general, teachers, learners, and educational authorities, especially in expanding-circle contexts, still prefer a standard native-speaker variety, mainly GA or GB, as the model of pronunciation (Jenkins, 2007; Rogerson-Revell, 2011) without careful consideration of the attitudes that learners hold toward these prominent world accents (Brown, 2014). In Ecuador, an expanding-circle country, English is part of the primary, secondary, and higher education curriculum. Although the English pronunciation model for instruction is not stated in official documents, it is usually a native-speaker model, either GA or GB. Likewise, in universities where EFL teaching majors are offered, those pronunciation models are preferred.

Linguistic Identity and Pronunciation

Linguistic identity is related to language attitudes, ideologies, and linguistic power, and in postmodern societies, the complexity of these interrelations is increasing (Jenkins, 2007). Since very few L2 learners manage to attain native-like pronunciation in the target language, it is not deemed an achievable goal, and thus, pronunciation research has focused on intelligibility rather than accent (Derwing & Munro, 2015). Indeed, the achievement of intelligibility is claimed to be more important than both accent reduction and the attainment of native-like pronunciation (Isaacs & Trofimovich, 2012). Likewise, the global spread of English (meaning that it is used either as a second language or as a lingua franca by speakers who outnumber people who use it as a first language) and, thus, its global heterogeneity have increased the interest in world Englishes research and impacted the English language teaching field (Matsuda, 2019), suggesting new teaching approaches that foreground and develop learners' intelligibility

while allowing them to preserve and show their identity when speaking (Jenkins, 2007).

Speaking is an identity act since speakers, through the choice of language or language variety, reflect their "social and ethnic solidarity or difference" (Le Page & Tabouret-Keller, 1985, p. 178) and reveal both speakers' self-images and the images they want other people to perceive (Pennington, 2019). As a major component of speaking skills, pronunciation is related to identity since it depicts how speakers want to present themselves individually and collectively (Pennington, 1997). For instance, "L2 speakers actively adjust pronunciation in order to express different meanings, to style speech, and to convey different facets of their identity and affiliations with valued others" (Pennington, 2019, p. 374). Therefore, ethical issues can arise when L2 learners attempt to acquire native-like pronunciation since they can feel that the direct relationship between their culture and mother tongue is at risk (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 2001). Golombek and Jordan (2005) analyzed how two Taiwanese preservice teachers in a pronunciation teaching program developed their teacher identities. They noted that it was fundamental for them to acknowledge themselves as legitimate English speakers to develop as pronunciation teachers. Burri et al. (2017) studied the development of teacher identity and cognition in a pronunciation-teaching post-graduate course. The findings revealed that NNS teachers started to see themselves as legitimate English teachers thanks to the pronunciation knowledge they acquired in the course.

Another pronunciation issue related to NNS teachers' identity formation is pronunciation confidence (Park, 2012) since it affects EFL teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation teaching. Uchida and Sugimoto (2019) revealed that EFL teachers are more likely to hold positive attitudes toward pronunciation teaching and tend to think that it is crucial and effective when they are confident in their pronunciation. However, NNS teachers tend to be insecure about their pronunciation, making them avoid teaching pronunciation (Murphy, 2014). Couper's (2016) study indicated that Uruguayan EFL teachers are anxious about their NNS pronunciation and thus avoid teaching certain aspects, such as suprasegmentals.

Most of the studies above have been conducted with in/preservice teachers learning pronunciation pedagogy; however, no studies were found with NNS preservice teachers after taking phonetics and phonology courses. This study aims to address the following research question: What factors underlie Ecuadorian EFL preservice teachers' attitudes toward English pronunciation issues after taking phonetics and phonology courses?

Method

Context and Participants

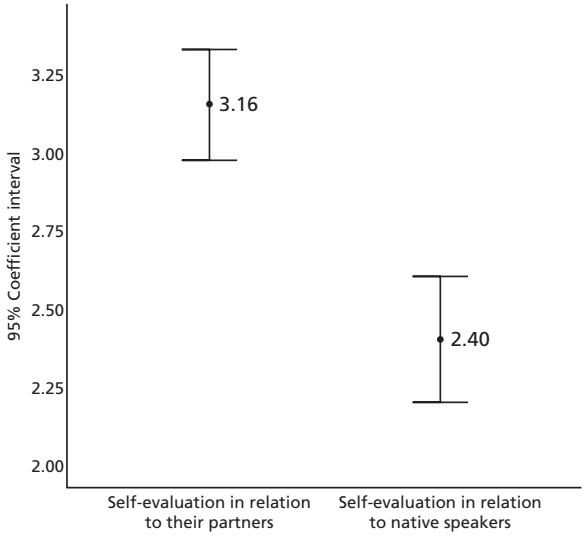
This study was conducted in February 2022 at a university in Cuenca, Ecuador, with students who had just finished the fifth and seventh semesters of an eight-semester EFL teaching training program. The content of the teaching program curriculum covers three main areas: linguistic knowledge (e.g., reading and writing, conversation, phonetics, phonology, pragmatics), teaching skills (e.g., TEFL, applied techniques and resources for teaching EFL, among others), and practicum (e.g., community outreach practice and teaching practice). English Phonetics is part of the fourth-semester curriculum, while English Phonology is of the fifth. The preservice teachers who had just finished the first and third semesters were excluded from the study since they had not taken those subjects yet. This selection criterion was based on the consideration that these courses have impacted the preservice teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation and their identity formation as teachers (Macías Villegas et al., 2020). The Phonetics course revolves around the following topics: phonemes, allophones, syllable stress, consonant and vowel sound description, recognition, and production, while the Phonology course focuses on weak forms, consonant clusters, connected speech, sentence stress, and intonation. Although the pronunciation model adopted

for the courses is GA, the preservice teachers are also exposed to some GB.

Of 75 preservice teachers who had just finished the fifth (n = 43) and seventh (n = 32) semesters, 70 agreed to complete an anonymous online questionnaire.

The participants' ages ranged from 19 to 32 years (M = 22.13, SD = 2.32), and most were women (74.2%). Only 32.9% reported taking extra English classes and 8.6% living in an English-speaking country. Half of the participants mentioned that they never or hardly ever use English as a medium of communication outside the university classroom, while 38.5 % use it sometimes. For 77.4% of the participants, reaching a high English proficiency level is very important. Regarding their English overall proficiency self-evaluation, on a 1–5 scale, the mean value was 3.16 compared to their peers, but it was 2.40 compared to native speakers (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Error Bars Diagram of Participants' Proficiency Self-Evaluation in Comparison With Their Partners and Native Speakers



Research Design

The study follows an explanatory sequential mixed-method design. The qualitative data contributed to gathering deeper insights and a deeper understanding of the quantitative data (Creswell, 2014).

Data Collection

Instrument

A self-report questionnaire was developed to study preservice teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation issues after taking phonetics and phonology courses. Demographic and background information was elicited in the first section: age, gender, English training, living in an English-speaking country, use of English, English proficiency self-evaluation, the importance of a high English proficiency level, and the reasons for having decided to enroll in the EFL teaching training program.

The second section contains 29 five-point Likert-scale questions that elicit attitudes regarding native-speaker and NNS pronunciation models, English pronunciation ability and confidence, identity, and native-speaker and NNS pronunciation teachers, which were taken from Chan (2018), Georgountzou and Tsantila (2017), Monfared (2018), Uzun and Ay (2018), and Uchida and Sugimoto (2019). In addition, two open-ended questions are included: the first one asks the participants to write a paragraph about how their identities are affected when trying to pronounce English like a native speaker, while the second one prompts the participants to write a paragraph to explain how speaking like a native speaker will help them in their future.

The questions were written in Spanish and pilot-tested with two university students of different majors whose comments helped to adjust some questions. The anonymous online questionnaire was sent to the participants right after they had finished the academic semester to avoid any conflicts of interest that could have arisen because one of the researchers was the lecturer of the Phonetics and Phonology courses. At the beginning of the questionnaire, for ethical purposes, it was clearly stated that participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous, that it would not affect participants in any manner, and that agreeing to fill out the questionnaire also meant agreement for their data to be used for research purposes.

Data Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted with Jamovi software (the Jamovi Project, 2021). The adjustments to test the model validity (RMSEA, TLI, and χ^2) followed Byrne's (2016) guidelines. The dimensions are shown with their mean and standard deviation and are contrasted with average values and error bars.

The exploratory factor analysis yielded a five-factor solution. The suitability of the data for factor analysis was tested with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (.664) as well as with the Barlett's Test of Sphericity [$_{\chi}^{2}$ (406 *df*) = 961; $p \leq .001$]. The Principal Axis Factoring method was used for factor extraction along with the Varimax rotation technique. The five factors explain 48% of the variance. Factor loadings are .38 and higher, except for one item belonging to Factor 2 (loading of .285), which was retained because it contributes to explaining this factor. Internal consistency was determined by using Cronbach's Alpha and McDonald's Omega coefficients. The values were over .7 for four factors, indicating acceptable internal consistency, except for Factor 5, which can be because this factor comprises only two items.

Moreover, content analysis of the paragraphs written to answer the open-ended questions was used to identify emerging themes and patterns (Dörnyei, 2007). Two members of the research team analyzed the paragraphs. They were read thrice while extracts were highlighted in different colors, grouped, and labeled. The labels were compared to agree on the final categories.

Questionnaire Results

The five factors (Table 1) were labeled considering the strongest loadings (Loewen & Gonulal, 2015); therefore, the first factor, which consisted of eight items, was named *Importance of the native speaker GA accent*. Factor 2 was labeled *Satisfaction with NNS pronunciation* and included eight items; Factor 3 (with five items) was called *Pronunciation confidence*; Factor 4 (with four items) was named *Native- vs. nonnative-speaker pronunciation teachers*, and Factor 5 (with two items) was labeled *Interest in the British accent*.

Table 1. Five-Factor Solution for Attitudes Toward Pronunciation Issues

	M (SD)	Factor				
		1	2	3	4	5
1. Would speaking like a native speaker help in your future?	4.59 (.69)	.769				
2. Is your English learning goal to sound like a native speaker?	4.29 (.98)	.726				
3. Would you like to sound like a native English speaker?	4.57 (.73)	.685				
4. Is pronunciation instruction important?	4.84 (.43)	.674				
5. How important is it to you to pronounce English like a native American speaker?	4.56 (.75)	.660				
6. Is it advisable for nonnative-speaker teachers to acquire native-like pronunciation?	4.20 (.91)	.611				
7. Do you try to pronounce English like a native American speaker?	4.33 (.73)	.486				
8. Is pronunciation instruction effective?	4.24 (.92)	.463				
9. Would you like to keep your nonnative accent when you speak English?	1.99 (1.07)		.830			
10. Are you happy with your nonnative accent?	2.67 (1.13)		.729			

11. Do you feel comfortable speaking English with apparent features of your Spanish native language?	2.80 (1.04)	.551			
12. Do you think that speaking English with an Ecuadorian accent is acceptable for English teachers?	2.97 (1.14)	.532			
13. Does it matter to you how your peers or interlocutors perceive your English pronunciation (if your pronunciation shows that you are not a native speaker?)	1.91 (1.08)	.550			
14. Do you speak English with a nonnative accent?	3.24 (.99)	.475			
15. Is it enough for nonnative-speaker teachers to have an English pronunciation that does not interfere with communication?	3.21 (1.11)	.464			
16. Do you feel that if you pronounce English like a native speaker, your Ecuadorian identity is affected?	1.37 (.8)	.424			
17. Is it acceptable that the pronunciation of English teachers has traces of their native accent (Spanish)?	2.99 (1.07)	.285			
18. Are you confident in your English pronunciation?	3.13 (.77)		.779		
19. How satisfied are you with your English pronunciation?	3.33 (.6)		.681		
20. Do you think you are competent in English pronunciation?	3.64 (.83)		.641		
21. Do you make conscious efforts to improve your English pronunciation?	4.04 (.80)		.515		
22. Can native speakers of English easily understand your accented English?	3.54 (.94)		.450		
23. When pronouncing certain sounds, do you make an effort to approximate the accent of a native English speaker?	4.21 (.75)		.378		
24. Do you prefer a nonnative-speaker teacher to teach you English pronunciation?	3.03 (1.10)			.765	
25. Do you think that a nonnative-speaker English teacher can teach pronunciation?	4.1 (1.03)			.764	
26. Do you think that only native speakers should teach pronunciation?	3.73 (1.19)			.673	
27. Do you prefer a native-speaker teacher to teach you English pronunciation?*	2.21 (1.10)			.420	
28. Do you try to pronounce English like a British native speaker?	2.39 (1.12)				.900
29. How important is it to you to pronounce English like a British native speaker?	2.93 (1.19)				.737

Note. The principal axis factoring extraction method was combined with a Varimax rotation.
* This item was reversed since it logically contradicts the rest of the items but shows good saturation with the group of items.

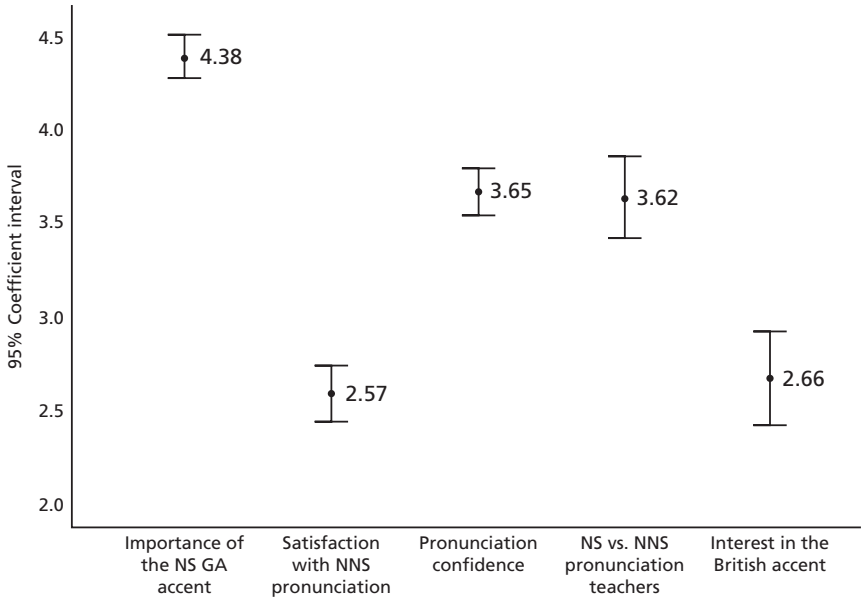
The mean of the five factors is shown in Table 2. As can be seen, the greater value was for *Importance of the native-speaker GA accent* while the lowest, for *Satisfaction with NNS pronunciation.*

Table 2. Descriptive Dimensions of Preservice Teachers' Attitudes Toward Pronunciation Issues

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Importance of the native-speaker General American accent	2.18	4.91	4.38	.49
Satisfaction with nonnative-speaker pronunciation	1.11	4.78	2.57	.65
Pronunciation confidence	2.33	4.83	3.65	.53
Native- vs. nonnative-speaker pronunciation teachers	1	5	3.62	.91
Interest in the British accent	1	5	2.66	1.07

An error bar chart was created to determine significant differences related to the variability of the dimensions. As shown in Figure 2, with a confidence interval of 95%, three groups of dimensions are differentiated significantly. The first group corresponds to *Importance of the native-speaker GA accent* with the highest mean (4.38). The second group comprises two factors: *Pronunciation confidence* (3.65) and *Native- vs. nonnative-speaker pronunciation teachers* (3.62). The last group encompasses *Satisfaction with NNS pronunciation* (2.57) and *Interest in the British accent* (2.66).

Figure 2. Error Bar Diagram of Participants' Attitudes Toward Dimensions of Pronunciation Issues



Spearman's correlations were used to explore the relationship between the EFL preservice teachers' pronunciation attitudes and some of their characteristics. As indicated in Table 3, the results reveal that Factor 1, *Importance of the native-speaker GA accent*, has a significant positive correlation with the variable *Importance of reaching a high English proficiency level*. In addition, Factor 3, *Pronunciation confidence*, shows a significant positive correlation with four variables: *Frequency of English usage outside the classroom*, *Self-evaluation in relation to peers*, *Self-evaluation in relation to native speakers* (Rho = .585), and *Living in an English-speaking country*. Lastly, Factor 5, *Interest in the British accent*, positively correlates with *Extra English courses* and *Living in an English-speaking country*.

Table 3. Spearman's Correlation of the Five Dimensions

		Frequency of English usage outside the classroom	Self-evaluation in relation to their classmates	Self-evaluation in relation to native speakers	Importance of reaching a high English proficiency level	Extra English courses	Living in an English-speaking country
Factor 1	Correlation coefficient	.121	-.068	.057	.398**	.064	.161
	Sig. (bilateral)	.324	.576	.64	.001	.597	.183
	N	69	70	70	70	70	70
Factor 2	Correlation coefficient	.068	.008	.019	-.161	.227	-.12
	Sig. (bilateral)	.58	.947	.878	.183	.059	.322
	N	69	70	70	70	70	70
Factor 3	Correlation coefficient	.267*	.392**	.585**	-.007	.041	.263*
	Sig. (bilateral)	.026	.001	0	.953	.737	.028
	N	69	70	70	70	70	70
Factor 4	Correlation coefficient	.073	.078	.124	0	-.041	.204
	Sig. (bilateral)	.553	.521	.308	1	.736	.09
	N	69	70	70	70	70	70
Factor 5	Correlation coefficient	.213	.193	.196	.233	.268*	.394**
	Sig. (bilateral)	.079	.109	.104	.053	.025	.001
	N	69	70	70	70	70	70

*Significant correlation at .05 (bilateral). **Significant correlation at .01 (bilateral).

Qualitative Data Findings

A content analysis of the open-ended questions was carried out to gain deeper insights into the quantitative data. Regarding the first question, which asks the participants to write a paragraph to explain how their Ecuadorian identities are affected when pronouncing like a native speaker, 94% stated that their identity is not affected at all. In fact, one central theme emerging from the analysis is the belief that their Ecuadorian nationality, cultural roots, customs, and identity are not affected when they pronounce English like a native speaker. The second central theme refers to the desire for improvement and mastering the English language, which makes them try to sound like a native speaker. The following excerpts written by some participants (P), which were translated into English, exemplify the previous ideas:

> I will always be proud of my Ecuadorian roots, independently of how I pronounce another language. (P14)
>
> I do not think my Ecuadorian identity is affected by my English pronunciation or my desire to perfect my pronunciation to be similar to a native speaker's. (P1)
>
> My identity remains the same. The only thing that is expected when learning a new language is obviously to speak like a native speaker, and we do not do it in order to be like them but for the language itself. (P10)
>
> My Ecuadorian identity would not be affected since the characteristics that make me Ecuadorian are still there. Learning a new language and speaking it like a native speaker is a new characteristic or skill that does not make my other characteristics disappear. (P11)

Nevertheless, six students stated that their Ecuadorian identity is affected when trying to pronounce it like a native speaker. They stated that if they lose their Latin accent, other people will not be able to identify where they are from or may think that they want to be like foreign people:

> I think it does because the accent gives clues about our ethnicity. So, when we speak English with our Latin accent, we are expressing our cultural diversity. (P58)
>
> Personally, I think people's accents are part of their culture because they show the speakers' native tongue. If I lose my Latin accent, people from different nationalities won't be able to appreciate or identify my nationality, which is very important to me. (P3)
>
> For me, our Latin accent is one of our biggest characteristics, and getting rid of it is getting rid of our identity and what defines us culturally. (P25)
>
> People may think that I am trying to hide my identity and pretend to be a foreign person. (P24)

The analysis of the paragraphs about how speaking like a native speaker will help the preservice teachers in the future (second open-ended question) yielded the following major themes: to get better job opportunities in different professional areas and as EFL teachers, to increase self-confidence at the time of listening and speaking the language, to get a job or study in an English-speaking country, especially the USA, and to be better role models and teachers.

Most participants ($n = 60$) deem that speaking like a native speaker would give them an edge when looking for a job in general, and of course, as English teachers:

> Being able to speak like an English native speaker would help me a lot to find a job in the future since most private schools look for teachers with good pronunciation and good performance when speaking English. It can also help me to increase my confidence in my knowledge and pronunciation of the language. (P12)
>
> Mainly, it would help me improve my professional skills and thus help me work not only as a teacher but also in other areas, for example, as a translator in a company. So, my main objective is to speak like a native speaker. (P21)

More than half of the participants ($n = 41$) state that having a native-like accent would increase their English communication confidence:

> Having a native-like accent allows people to understand better and helps communication to be felt more natural. (P57
>
> I could communicate with native speakers better and make myself understood easier. (P67)

Less than half of the participants ($n = 24$) state that having a native-like accent would help them work and study in an English-speaking country:

> In a country where there is no future, it is extremely important to get out of here, and a viable option is to travel to a developed country like North America. English is the main language in first-world countries, so speaking this language and passing as a native speaker is a huge advantage in academic and work fields. (P2)
>
> To fulfill my objective of traveling to an English-speaking country, it is important that I can communicate easily and simply with native speakers. (P69)

Lastly, some participants ($n = 18$) believe that speaking like a native speaker would make them better teachers:

> Knowing how to speak like a native speaker means that, among other things, I have the knowledge of the process of producing each sound and of the differences between English and my native language; therefore, I could teach that process to my students and facilitate them the way to reach correct pronunciation, because only making them repeat my pronunciation without knowing about the process behind it is not optimal. (P70)
>
> Speaking like a native speaker would greatly help my future as a teacher because my students would learn from my pronunciation, and if I have bad pronunciation, they won't learn efficiently. (P28)

Discussion

This study examined EFL preservice teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation issues (models and targets, identity, and confidence) after taking phonetics and phonology courses. Five attitude dimensions were revealed after factor analysis: *Importance of the native-speaker GA accent, Satisfaction with NNS pronunciation, Pronunciation confidence, Native- vs. nonnative-speaker pronunciation teachers,* and *Interest in the British accent*. The first factor, *Importance of the native-speaker GA accent*, which represents the highest level value on a five-point Likert scale ($M = 4.38$), entails the significant appraisal that preservice EFL teachers give to the native pronunciation model, especially the GA accent since they think it would help them in their future; therefore, they wish they sounded as native speakers, try to emulate this accent, and consider it as an English learning objective. They also think that teaching pronunciation is important and effective. By and large, research has shown the tendency of EFL teachers and learners to indicate a strong preference for standard native accents—GA or GB (Jenkins, 2007; Timmis, 2002)—and the preservice teachers of this study are not the exception. They stated that having a native accent will give them an advantage when looking for any job, acknowledging the importance of English as a core skill in the globalized world (Graddol, 2006) and when applying for an EFL teaching post, implying that employers prefer to hire English native speakers as teachers (García-Ponce et al., 2020). Many participants also think that a native-like accent would increase their communication confidence since people will be able to understand them better, and so will they.

In addition, since some participants (34%) want to work or study in an English-speaking country (mainly the USA), they think that a native accent will allow them to communicate with native speakers easily, which is in line with the idea that a native-speaker standard model is very appropriate indeed for English learners who aim to communicate with native speakers (Jenkins, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2006). The participants also stated that having a native-like accent will make them better role models and teachers. Like in Timmis's (2002) and Uchida and Sugimoto's (2019) studies, the preservice teachers of this study reckon that NNS teachers should

acquire native-like pronunciation; in fact, one of their English learning goals is the achievement of such type of pronunciation. As can be seen, for the preservice teachers, the context for target language use, which should determine pronunciation goals (Jenkins, 2007; Rogerson-Revell, 2011), is not a decisive factor since most of them would not use the language to communicate with native speakers and still aim at native-like pronunciation.

In the same vein, the second factor, *Satisfaction with NNS pronunciation*, which represents the lowest level value on the five-point Likert scale ($M = 2.57$), reflects the preservice teachers' discontent with their English nonnative pronunciation. This factor encompasses the participants' desire of not keeping their native accent when speaking English because they are neither happy nor comfortable with it. They believe it is unacceptable for an English teacher to speak with an Ecuadorian accent. Furthermore, part of this factor is the belief that their Ecuadorian identity is not affected when pronouncing English like a native speaker. There is a tendency for teachers in the expanding circle to hold negative views toward their own accented English. For instance, Monfared (2018) reported that English teachers in the outer circle were more confident and happier with their accented English than those in the expanding circle. The outer-circle teachers were more motivated to preserve their nonnative accents, while the expanding-circle teachers wanted to sound like native speakers. However, as stated by Monfared, both groups of teachers seemed to be influenced by the native-speakerism ideology and were more likely to project a native-speaker image to be accepted by students and employers.

According to Brown (2014, p. 160), three considerations can influence pronunciation targets: intelligibility (how easy someone can be understood), image ("trying to convey an impression of being a prestigious speaker of English"), and identity (showing who someone is individually and concerning country and native language). As the results show, intelligibility is not enough for these preservice teachers, and image overrides identity when choosing the pronunciation target; in other words, they are more interested in being "perceived as good confident English speakers" (Brown, 2014, p. 159) than in showing and preserving their Ecuadorian identities, which is confirmed with the significant correlation found between Factor 1 and the variable *Importance of reaching a high English proficiency level*. The results agree with Georgountzou and Tsantila (2017), who found out that even though Turkish EFL learners highly valued their culture, they also set a high value on native-like English pronunciation, and with Brabcová and Skarnitzl (2018), who noted that most Czech EFL learners did not "feel the need to express their identity through accent" (p. 48). Most participants stated that their desire to perfect and master the English language does not undermine their pride in their Ecuadorian identity.

Nonetheless, L2 learners may face ethical issues when adopting a native-like accent since they may feel that their cultural link with their mother tongue can be weakened (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 2001). Learners who are proud of their nationalities and languages are more likely to speak English with an accent that identifies their mother tongue and country of origin and might be reluctant to imitate a native-speaker accent since they might feel that "this would be tantamount to changing their personality and identity" (Brown, 2014, p. 159). For instance, Pullen (2012) reported that the achievement of native-like English pronunciation was unimportant for EFL learners who were more affiliated with their culture. This can be the case of the six participants who reported that their identity is indeed affected when trying to sound like a native speaker and may feel that changing their pronunciation is synonymous with interfering with their identity (Jenkins, 2007). Nevertheless, most participants do not feel that way, and some even think pronunciation is unrelated to identity. This latter belief can be problematic when teaching pronunciation since not being aware of the relationship

between pronunciation and identity can interfere with the understanding that some learners may feel that their identity is threatened and that native-like pronunciation may not be a target for all students. Therefore, preservice teachers must reflect on the varieties of English accents and pronunciation targets that teachers and students aim for so that instruction can be tailored and evaluated accordingly.

The third factor, *Pronunciation confidence*, shows a medium-high level value on the five-point Likert scale ($M = 3.65$) and entails the preservice teachers' feelings of English pronunciation confidence, satisfaction, and competence. It can be said that after taking the Phonetics and Phonology courses, the preservice teachers are not confident in their pronunciation, which could derive from their desire to achieve native-like pronunciation. If this goal encourages them to continue practicing and learning, it can be a positive influence that resonates with the requirement of high-quality teachers, who are lifelong learners, to improve the quality of education (Murray, 2021). However, if it refrains them from their willingness to teach pronunciation and the development of a legitimate English speaker identity, then the target should be reconsidered. As Murphy (2014) argues, many NNS teachers are reluctant to teach pronunciation because they "feel insecure about the quality of their own pronunciation even when such feelings are unwarranted" (p. 205).

On the other hand, NNS teachers tend to hold more positive attitudes toward pronunciation teaching when they have a higher confidence in their pronunciation (Uchida & Sugimoto, 2019). The fact that the *Pronunciation confidence* factor correlated significantly with the variables *Frequency of English usage outside the classroom*, *Self-evaluation*, and *Living in an English-speaking country* suggests the necessity for EFL teaching programs to include student exchange opportunities in English-speaking countries since, as Uchida and Sugimoto (2019) noted, living in an English-speaking country positively affects pronunciation confidence. In addition, it should be highlighted that two items related to the effort made for improving pronunciation and attaining native-like pronunciation factored with *Pronunciation confidence*, suggesting that the preservice teachers, by using their knowledge of phonetics and phonology, make an effort to try to sound as native speakers, which might give them confidence.

The fourth factor, *Native- vs. nonnative-speaker pronunciation teachers*, indicates a medium-high level value on the 5-point Likert scale ($M = 3.62$) and involves the preservice teachers' preference for being taught pronunciation by a native-speaker teacher rather than by an NNS counterpart. However, they do believe that NNS teachers can teach pronunciation. This factor also involves the belief that only native-speaker teachers should teach pronunciation. These beliefs concur with the preference for native-like pronunciation models representing accuracy and perfection. In general, teachers and learners consider native-speaker teachers to be better at teaching pronunciation than NNS teachers (Henderson et al., 2015); for instance, even though the students in Li and Zhang's (2016) study showed significant pronunciation gains after being taught by a NNS teacher and no significant gains when taught by a native-speaker teacher, the students preferred the latter.

Lastly, the fifth factor, *Interest in the British accent*, reflects a low mean score on the Likert scale ($M = 2.66$), showing that the participants place little importance on acquiring the British accent. Only the participants who had taken extra English courses (32.9%) and had lived in an English-speaking country (8.6%) showed interest in learning this accent. Nonetheless, this fact also underscores the importance of exchange programs to help preservice teachers adopt a more open position toward other native-speaker models and different NNS models (Murphy, 2014).

It can be said that the knowledge gained in the Phonetics and Phonology courses may have influenced the participants to aim for the attainment of native-like pronunciation and to feel dissatisfied with their nonnative accents; however, more research is needed

to determine how their attitudes and future teacher identity develop in those courses. It would be helpful to determine the influence their dissatisfaction with their nonnative pronunciation has on the development of legitimate English-speaker identities. Longitudinal studies can be conducted using interviews to gain a deeper understanding. We hope that the findings of this study contribute valuable insights into pronunciation issues in the realm of EFL teacher education even though, due to the small sample size, the results cannot be generalized.

Conclusions

This study depicted Ecuadorian EFL preservice teachers' attitudes toward pronunciation issues after taking Phonetics and Phonology courses. The participants' positive attitudes toward achieving native-like pronunciation suggest that a native-like accent as a pronunciation model for teaching phonetics and phonology suits future EFL teachers' preferences, needs, and goals. The goal of attaining such pronunciation is directly related to the image they want to project, which is being highly proficient English speakers. Nevertheless, embedding pronunciation issues (such as native and nonnative accents as models and targets, identity, pronunciation confidence, and the like) that prompt reflection and analysis in the curriculum of those courses seems pivotal for preservice EFL teachers. Such insights can help them forge their identities as pronunciation teachers and be more open to different English accents, which in turn will allow them to make conscious decisions when teaching and setting pronunciation learning outcomes.

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Examining the Assessment Practices of Foreign Language Novice Teachers

Investigación de las prácticas de evaluación de profesores principiantes de lenguas extranjeras

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This paper reports a mixed-methods study at a public university in Colombia. It describes the classroom assessment practices and challenges of 75 novice foreign language teachers. To gather the quantitative data, the participants completed an online survey. For the qualitative data, 11 key informants participated in one-on-one online interviews. Findings revealed that novice teachers predominantly used summative assessment in the classroom and aligned their assessment instruments to large-scale tests. Moreover, novice teachers faced many challenges with classroom assessment, including determining how to assess their students, developing assessment instruments, and interpreting and using assessment scores to inform teaching and learning. In conclusion, novice teachers need more knowledge, skills, and support to handle daily assessment-related tasks.

Keywords: classroom assessment challenges, classroom assessment practices, novice foreign language teachers

Este artículo presenta un estudio de métodos mixtos, desarrollado en una universidad pública de Colombia, que describe las prácticas y desafíos de evaluación en el aula de 75 profesores principiantes. Para la recolección de información cuantitativa, se utilizó un cuestionario en línea y, para la información cualitativa, se usó una entrevista en línea con once docentes. Los resultados muestran que los participantes utilizaron predominantemente la evaluación sumativa y alinearon sus instrumentos con evaluaciones a gran escala. Además, se evidenció que los participantes enfrentaron muchos desafíos para evaluar a sus estudiantes, desarrollar instrumentos de evaluación, e interpretar y usar puntajes de evaluación para informar la enseñanza y el aprendizaje. En conclusión, los participantes necesitan más conocimientos, habilidades y apoyo para afrontar las tareas diarias relacionadas con la evaluación.

Palabras clave: desafíos de la evaluación en el aula, prácticas de evaluación en el aula, profesores principiantes de lenguas extranjeras

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Introduction

In Colombia, five-year undergraduate foreign languages programs provide preservice teachers with educational training on five components: general component (e.g., literacy, research, foreign language learning, information and communications technologies, mathematical reasoning, and citizenship competence), specific and discipline component, pedagogic component, and the didactics of the discipline (Resolución 18583, 2017). Although undergraduate students are provided with standard general education foundations and the specialized knowledge and skills to teach foreign languages, "some teacher education and teacher-training programs in Colombia do not offer extensive training in language assessment" (López & Bernal, 2009, p. 55). In most of these programs, "language assessment preparation from theoretical and practical perspectives appears to be limited to one or two units in the methods courses" (Herrera & Macías, 2015, p. 305). For example, in the foreign languages program where this research took place, assessment represented a single unit in the didactics course. However, two more didactics courses and one assessment course were added due to the latest curricular reform. Hence, future in-service teachers are expected to be better prepared regarding foreign language assessment's theoretical foundations, skills, and principles.

This paper reports one part of a more extensive mixed-method study on language assessment literacy (LAL). It attempts to describe the perceived experiences of novice foreign language teachers' assessment practices and challenges. The participants graduated recently from a foreign language program at a public university in Colombia and reported having two to five years of teaching experience.[1]

This study aimed to examine the current assessment practices of novice foreign language teachers in their first five years of teaching. In addition, this study also examined the challenges novice foreign language teachers face when assessing their students in the language classroom. Thus, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. What characterizes the classroom assessment practices of novice foreign language teachers?
2. What challenges do novice foreign language teachers face when assessing students in the classroom?

Literature Review

Classroom Assessment Practices

Classroom assessment is integral to language instruction (Butler, 2022). According to Leung (2005), classroom assessment means assessing student learning within a classroom setting. It is important to note that classroom assessment includes assessments used for either summative or formative purposes (Brookhart, 2004). Teachers are vital in planning what, how, and when to assess and interpret classroom assessment to guide teaching and learning (Cheng et al., 2004; Leung, 2005; López, 2010; Rea-Dickins, 2001). Rea-Dickens (2004) refers to teachers as "agents" of assessment responsible for observing, evaluating, and interpreting their students' progress. Although teachers play a critical role in classroom assessment, students must be actively involved to enhance their understanding of how assessment works (Butler, 2022; Inbar-Lourie, 2008).

Classroom assessment generally includes three basic steps: (a) collecting evidence of student learning, (b) interpreting or judging the evidence, and (c) making use of the evidence (Leung, 2005). To make use of classroom assessment, teachers engage in different practices to determine the purpose of the assessment; plan the assessment; select methods and instruments; implement, score, and report the assessment, and make use of the assessment information (Hill & McNamara,

1 Several authors have defined the term "novice teacher" differently. For instance, this term has been used interchangeably with others, such as beginning teachers, neophytes, and preservice teachers (Kim & Roth, 2011), newly qualified teachers (Hayes & Chang, 2017), and novice-service teachers (Farrell, 2012). However, for this study, novice teacher refers to a teacher with less than five years of teaching experience after graduation.

2011; Leung, 2005; Wolf & López, 2022). However, the classroom assessment practices of language teachers vary greatly (Rea-Dickins, 2001; Yin, 2010).

Among some of the factors that influence the classroom assessment practices of language teachers, we find teachers' beliefs, professional training and development, teaching experiences, and LAL (Cheng et al., 2004; Yin, 2010). Several scholars have highlighted the importance of professional development to help teachers develop their LAL and acquire the skills needed to assess and enhance students' learning (e.g., Giraldo, 2018; Inbar-Lourie, 2008; Mohammadkhah et al., 2022; Tajeddin et al., 2022). Other factors that influence the classroom assessment practices of language teachers include the school's curriculum, culture, and climate (Rogers et al., 2020). In addition, teachers' workload, time constraints, and available resources also impact their classroom assessment practices (Wolf & López, 2022).

Although many scholars agree on the importance of classroom assessment, not many studies have examined the classroom assessment practices of foreign language teachers, particularly novice teachers (Cheng et al., 2004; Hill & McNamara, 2011; Wang, 2017). Thus, it is critical to examine novice teachers' classroom assessment practices to effectively determine the best way to support them in their assessment duties.

Language Assessment in Colombia

There has been an increased interest in language assessment in Colombia in recent years, as indicated by the number of studies published in research journals. These studies have focused on different aspects of language assessment. For example, many have examined LAL, including describing the implications of LAL for language teachers (Giraldo, 2018), evaluating research constructs and methodologies on LAL (Herrera & Macías, 2015), investigating LAL initiatives and professional development (Giraldo, 2021), and examining the training preservice and in-service teachers receive in different assessment-related areas (Giraldo & Murcia, 2018).

Other studies have focused on issues related to large-scale tests, such as examining the validity of a Colombian national English language proficiency exam (López & Janssen, 2010) and the washback or impact of large-scale language tests on teaching and learning (Muñoz & Álvarez, 2010). Moreover, a few research-based papers describe the assessment of specific skills and competencies such as students' speaking skills (Duque-Aguilar, 2021), self-evaluation of the grammatical range and grammar accuracy (Caicedo Pereira et al., 2018), teachers' and students' perceptions on language assessment (Herrera Mosquera & Zambrano Castillo, 2019), and understanding effective ways to assess speaking skills (Duque-Aguilar, 2021).

Finally, a few studies have focused on classroom assessment in English language teaching. For example, exploring how language teachers use formative assessment to inform teaching and learning (López, 2010), investigating the influence of peer assessment (Gomez Sará, 2016), examining the challenges of designing and administrating tests (Ramírez, 2020), and understanding the effects of classroom (face-to-face) assessment practices (Lopera Medina, 2015). More recently, Hernández-Ocampo's (2022) review of five studies on assessment highlights that teachers observed "fair and democratic assessment practices" and learners' autonomy is fostered through "peer- and self-assessment practices." However, according to the author, "more teacher education in language assessment" is needed (p. 231).

Although the abovementioned studies describe language assessment in Colombia, they are not explicitly centered on novice teachers. Therefore, more studies are needed to examine language teachers' classroom assessment practices, particularly the assessment practices of novice teachers. These studies can inform preservice and in-service training programs to support language teachers using classroom assessment more effectively.

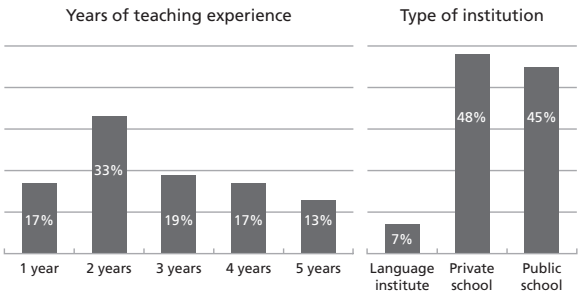
Method

We adopted a sequential explanatory design (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) that allowed us to collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data. Although this design prioritizes the quantitative data, we uniformly integrated both while analyzing and interpreting the data.

Participants

The target sample for this study were novice English and French foreign language teachers who had recently graduated from a foreign language program at a public university in Colombia and had two to five years of teaching experience. The sampling plan for this study included teachers who graduated from this program between 2013 and 2018. After inviting 190 novice foreign language teachers to respond to an online survey, 75 agreed to participate and completed an online survey (a response rate of 39.47%). These teachers varied in terms of years of teaching experience and the type of institution they worked in (private school, public school, language institute; see Figure 1). The average age of the participants was 28; 52% of the teachers were women, and 48% were men.

Figure 1. Survey Participants' Background Information (*N* = 75)



Of those 75 teachers, we selected 11 to participate in one-on-one online interviews following a maximal variation sampling (Creswell, 2002). These 11 teachers displayed different dimensions of four characteristics we thought critical in examining novice teachers' assessment practices and challenges: (a) year of graduation (between 2013 and 2018); (b) different workplaces (private and public sector); (c) type of institution (school and language institute); and (d) location (rural and urban schools). Table 1 provides additional information about the novice teachers who participated in the interviews.

Table 1. Interviewees' Additional Background Information

Participant	Degree completion	Years of teaching experience	Type of school	Location
Teacher 1	2017	2	Language institute	Urban
Teacher 2	2017	2	Private primary school	Semi-urban
Teacher 3	2018	1	Private high school	Semi-urban
Teacher 4	2016	3	Public high school	Semi-urban
Teacher 5	2016	3	Public high school	Semi-urban
Teacher 6	2016	3	Public university	Semi-urban
Teacher 7	2014	5	Public high school	Rural
Teacher 8	2017	2	Language institute/Private school	Urban
Teacher 9	2017	2	Language institute	Urban
Teacher 10	2014	5	Public high school	Urban
Teacher 11	2015	4	Language institute	Urban

Procedures

We employed an online survey to gather information about how teachers used assessment and their challenges in assessing their students in the classroom (see Appendix A). The survey was based on the instrument used by Cheng et al. (2004). However, we made some modifications to reflect the Colombian context. We piloted the online survey with ten last-year students in the foreign language program to check the questions' clarity of direction and relevance. The survey consisted of 29 items organized into three sections: background information (8 items), current assessment practices (8 items), and challenges in using classroom assessment (13 items). On average, it took participants 20 minutes to complete the online survey.

Eleven of the 75 teachers also participated in a one-on-one online semi-structured interview. Each interview lasted approximately 60 minutes. All the interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed verbatim. We used an interview protocol to discuss the respondents' instructional context, current classroom assessment practices, and challenges when assessing their students in the classroom (see Appendix B).

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (e.g., frequencies, percentages) were calculated on SPSS for each item in the three sections of the online survey. We coded each interview transcript manually and independently. We first used structural coding (Saldaña, 2009) to identify categories that indicated the assessment practices of novice foreign language teachers, how they developed their classroom assessment practices, and the challenges they faced. Then, we used descriptive coding for each structural code we identified (Saldaña, 2009) to help establish recurring themes. Descriptive coding refers to assigning labels to data to inventory critical issues within each structural code. After completing the coding, we met to compare our ideas and codes to determine if we had arrived at similar data interpretations. All the disagreements in the coding were resolved through discussion to reach a consensus, as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990).

Findings

The findings are organized into two themes related to the research questions. First, we discuss the main characteristics of novice teachers' classroom assessment practices. Then, we present the main challenges they faced when assessing their students in the classroom.

Novice Teachers' Classroom Assessment Practices

The survey and interviews revealed three main features that characterized novice teachers' assessment practices. First, all participating teachers mainly used classroom assessment for summative purposes, meaning that classroom assessment was used primarily for accountability (i.e., to assign grades or to determine who passed or failed a course). This classroom assessment practice is evident in the following comments. Teacher 3 explained how she typically assessed her students in the classroom: "It would be through the bimonthly exam that is done at the end, in which 25% is assigned to each skill: listening, reading, speaking, and reading competence." Although teachers assess multiple skills in their tests, each skill is considered separately.

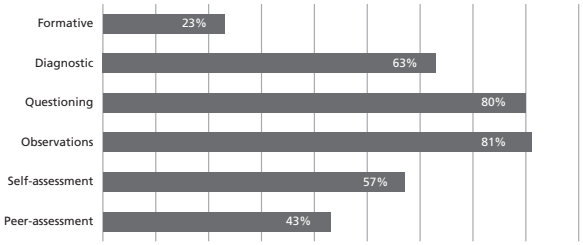
Similarly, Teacher 4 discussed what is usually included in his classroom assessments: "At the end of the period, a summative test is also done. It includes all the themes that were covered in the period." Furthermore, Teacher 8 talked about how teachers in her school used summative assessment: "We use end-of-module exams at the [institution]. They are the most important exams because they decide if the students fail or pass the module."

The second main feature is that all the teachers used traditional paper-and-pencil tests in the classroom, generally based on multiple-choice, true and false, and open-ended questions. Finally, most assessment practices were teacher-centered; that is, the assessment is done exclusively by the teacher with little to no active

student participation. This usually serves to monitor learning rather than promote learning. According to the teachers, they either designed their assessments, adapted existing assessments, or used assessments provided by their institutions.

Conversely, this study also found that novice teachers sometimes used other classroom assessment practices (see Figure 2). A few teachers (23%) used assessment for formative purposes to inform teaching and learning, and many teachers (63%) used assessment for diagnostic purposes at the beginning of the instructional process. For instance, Teacher 2 commented about using other types of assessments in his classroom: "We also use a diagnostic assessment at the beginning of the school year." In the interviews, a few teachers reported using alternative assessments such as projects, role-plays, and games to assess their students. To highlight using alternative assessment, Teacher 4 explained the following: "We also use project-based assessment, such as theater. For the past two years, our project has been a municipal theater meeting for various schools, both public and private." Although these alternative assessment practices allowed novice teachers to assess their learners differently using meaningful interactive tasks, they were used sparingly.

Figure 2. Other Classroom Assessment Practices (*N* = 75)



Moreover, most teachers reported using informal assessments in the classroom. For example, approximately 80% of the teachers who completed the survey indicated that they asked students many questions during instruction and observed them while they engaged in classroom activities and discussions. Asking and monitoring students' questions helps teachers determine how much their students have developed their language skills. The survey also revealed that many teachers incorporated student-centered assessments in their classrooms, such as self-assessment (57%) and peer assessment (43%), which are used sporadically.

We also found that the schools' policies and assessment systems determined the classroom assessment practices of novice teachers. For example, Teacher 1, who works at a language institute, explained, "When I started teaching, I realized it doesn't matter how much assessment training you have. Your assessment system has to be governed by some guidelines or approaches that the institute already has established." Similarly, Teacher 10 (public school teacher) stated: "The school already had a series of criteria for assessment. So, they asked me to assess my students according to those criteria."

Similarly, the teachers commented that they did not have complete autonomy to create their assessments because they needed to align them to large-scale language proficiency national (e.g., SABER 11 test[2]) or international tests (e.g., Cambridge tests). Aligning their classroom assessment to large-scale tests implied having the same format (test structure), using the same item types (types of questions), and assessing similar language skills. This also limited the teachers' autonomy to teach and assess their learners. Teachers 5 and 7 described how the SABER 11 test considerably shaped their assessment practices. The school where Teacher 7 worked had been ranked number one among rural high schools the previous year and number three in

2 The SABER 11 test—the national standardized test in Colombia—serves the twofold purpose of exit requirements for high school students and entry requirements for higher education. The test consists of two sections of 131 and 137 questions, respectively, which include the core subjects of critical reading, math and quantitative reasoning, sciences, social studies and citizenship competencies, and English. The English section only assesses reading and language use. It does not include writing or speaking. In addition, it ranks students from A- to B+ levels of proficiency (according to the Common European Framework of Reference).

the SABER 11 test in Arauca.[3] As a result, the board of directors required teachers to focus on preparing students to take this test. Teacher 7 explained how the SABER 11 test impacts her classroom assessment practices:

> Part of the vision of our institution is to show the government how much the students are learning based on the results of the SABER tests, especially in ninth and eleventh grade. So, it started as a guideline for the institution, where most of the assessments are done in this way so that the student becomes familiar, from sixth grade until he reaches eleventh, with the SABER tests.

As a result, Teacher 7 designed SABER-test-item types[4] in an attempt "to continue showing these good results." Although this participant acknowledged that she must always be mindful of the SABER 11 test while teaching and assessing her students, she felt these high-stakes tests constrained her teaching autonomy. Her assessment practices involved familiarizing learners with the test structure and item types.

Likewise, Teacher 5 was required to focus her class activities on the language skills measured on the SABER 11 test. She explained that her school "aimed at improving the test scores of its students on the national test. Then, my goal was to improve their reading comprehension skills." She reported having adapted assessment to this teaching reality. She used the textbook activities to assess her students' reading, grammar, and vocabulary skills and helped them better prepare for the national test.

Similarly, Teacher 2's assessment practices were influenced by international high-stakes tests. Teacher 2 worked at a private school where learners must take the Cambridge Flyers exam to determine their English language proficiency levels. Thus, teachers at this school are compelled to prepare their students to perform well on that exam. One way to accomplish this is by aligning classroom assessments with external tests. As Teacher 2 explained:

> I used the same types of questions as in the Cambridge exam, the exam they take, but I used content from the textbook we used in class. So, I always designed the vocabulary with a Flyers-type structure, one or two grammar points, and a reading text like the ones in the Flyers exam.

Another classroom assessment practice reported by novice teachers was the modification of existing assessments from textbooks and the Internet or the ones provided by their institutions. Typical changes involved shortening the length of the assessments, adding other types of questions, and adapting the assessment to meet the institutions' parameters.

Regarding shortening the assessment length, Teacher 9 explained that he did this by reducing the number of questions to adjust to the limited time allocated to complete the assessment (i.e., one class period). Another change involved adding different questions (e.g., matching or unscrambling). For example, Teacher 9 required his students to support one or two answers with their points of view. Other changes were made because of the pace of the course and the students' progress. For instance, Teacher 6, who taught English to forestry, oil, electronics, and industrial engineering students at a public university, modified the coursebook tests depending on the importance he gave to specific skills. These two novice teachers needed to make critical decisions to adapt existing language assessments so they could be aligned with their instruction. In other words, they did so because they sensed a mismatch between the assessment and their instruction.

A further change involved adapting the assessment to meet the institutions' parameters. Teacher 8 stated that her school's curriculum is aligned with a Cambridge curriculum. Consequently, she needed to adapt what she taught in French to the Cambridge learning objectives.

3 One of the 32 departments in Colombia.
4 Mostly related to multiple-choice items.

She said the following about how she modified her assessments:

> I had to adapt the assessments because the school worked with a Cambridge curriculum, so everything was focused on Cambridge content. So, I had to seek some Cambridge tests and then make some changes to fit the courses I was teaching.

The teachers explained that they have to fully comply with the school assessment system to meet the specified assessment standards of the school. In doing so, novice teachers needed to design the assessments according to the guidelines provided by their institutions. Generally speaking, how these three participants changed the original assessments did not compromise the essence of what the predesigned tests were supposed to measure. As the participants expressed, these changes were introduced to keep a more balanced assessment of their students' language skills.

Challenges Assessing Students in the Classroom

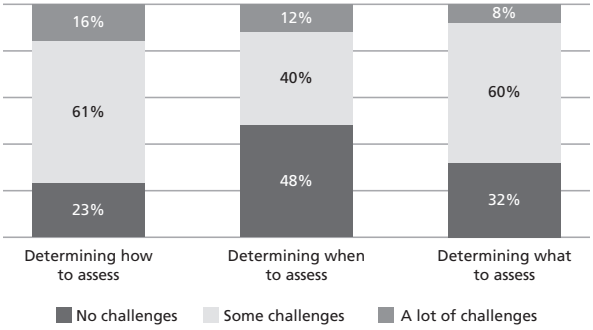
The participants also reported facing many challenges when assessing their students in the classroom. To discuss these challenges, we present them based on the following five categories: (a) conceptualizing assessments, (b) designing assessments, (c) implementing assessments, (d) scoring assessments, and (e) interpreting and using assessments.

Challenges Conceptualizing Classroom Assessments

Survey results revealed that most novice teachers had challenges determining what, when, and how to assess their students in the classroom (see Figure 3). According to the interviews, novice teachers' main challenges in conceptualizing assessments were determining which skills to assess, which assessment strategy to use (e.g., type of question or task), and aligning assessment and instruction. For example, Teacher 2 discussed his difficulties in determining what to include in the assessments he designed:

> We have a textbook, and I feel that sometimes there is a lot of content. I try to select a few questions from each content, but I don't know if this is appropriate. So, I need to learn how to select the content for the assessment.

Figure 3. Novice Teachers' Challenges Conceptualizing Classroom Assessments (*N* = 75)



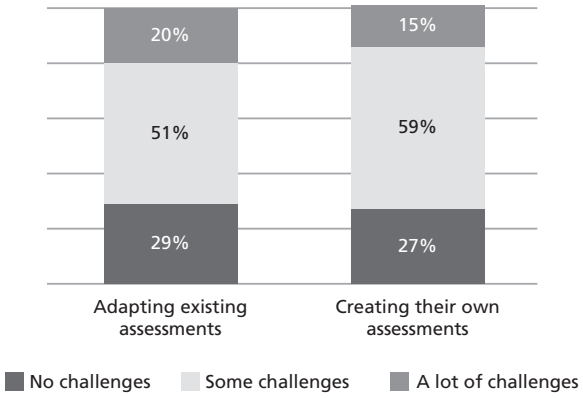
Challenges Designing Classroom Assessments

Some novice teachers are tasked with creating their assessments or adapting existing assessments to use in their classrooms. Teachers reported having difficulties fulfilling these two tasks (see Figure 4). In terms of creating their classroom assessments, selecting the content of the assessment was very challenging for novice teachers. They expressed that it was daunting to rank the level of importance among the contents taught in class. Teachers also pointed out that their students' low proficiency level was an additional problem when designing the assessments. Teachers struggled to find appropriate texts or adapt these texts and questions to the level of their students. Teacher 8 talked about the difficulties of finding level-appropriate assessment materials for her students:

> My assessment practices were a bit hectic because I had to adapt them depending on my students' proficiency levels and the group's needs. It was initially challenging because I had just graduated, and putting all my knowledge into practice was not easy.

Other challenges include writing multiple-choice questions and determining how many questions to have in the assessment.

Figure 4. Novice Teachers' Challenges Designing Classroom Assessments (*N* = 75)



Regarding the challenges novice teachers face when modifying existing assessments, they reported it was problematic to identify what and how to adapt them. For example, Teacher 7 adapted the assessment in the best way possible. However, her coordinator advised her to ask more specific questions, adjust the difficulty level of the assessment to the students' level of proficiency, improve the clarity of instructions, and select the type of audio recordings used more carefully. In addition to the test construction flaws this participant experienced, she was advised to use a better page layout to facilitate the learners' completion of the assessment.

Challenges Implementing Classroom Assessments

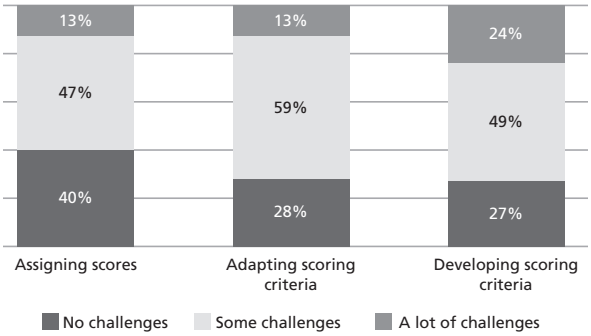
According to the survey, novice teachers also have challenges implementing classroom assessments. We found that 63% of the teachers had some challenges administering their assessments in the classroom. Their main challenge is determining how much time students need to complete an assessment. Other challenges include having little time to assess their students because their classes are relatively short (e.g., less than 50 minutes) and assessing large classrooms (e.g., more than 30 students). Teacher 10 highlighted some of these difficulties: "Today I had three class blocks, but they are classes of 45 students. It is very complicated to develop an optimal assessment process with such large groups; however, that is our reality."

Challenges Scoring Classroom Assessments

The survey also indicated that novice teachers had difficulty scoring classroom assessments (see Figure 5). Over 70% of participants reported problems establishing or adapting existing scoring criteria (e.g., rubrics) to score their assessments. Likewise, 60% of participants indicated difficulty assigning scores. All the interview participants stated that they faced challenges establishing clear scoring criteria, setting scores for each question on the assessment, applying scoring criteria consistently, and needing more time to score the assessments. Teacher 3 exemplifies these challenges when discussing what areas she needs to improve:

> I would like to learn some strategies to make assessments easier to understand and easier to score. In the beginning, it took me a long time to score all the assessments. You know that there is little time to score them in school.

Figure 5. Novice Teachers' Challenges Scoring Classroom Assessments (*N* = 75)

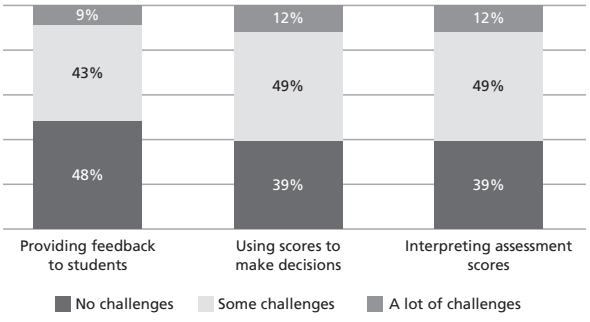


Challenges Interpreting and Using Classroom Assessments

The survey revealed that 61% of the novice teachers had difficulties making sense of the assessment scores and what the scores mean (see Figure 6). The interview participants reiterated that their main challenge is understanding how the assessment scores relate to learning. Furthermore, 61% of the participants also reported difficulties using scores to make instructional decisions. The interviewed participants indicated that it is challenging to use the assessment scores to understand what they need to do next and to use the assessment scores to improve teaching and learning. Finally, 50% of the participants indicated difficulties providing valuable and relevant feedback to their students (e.g., how they performed and what they needed to improve). The novice teachers said they would like to provide more descriptive feedback to their students (i.e., more than just a grade). Teacher 5 summarized the challenges of interpreting and using classroom assessment scores when reflecting on what areas she needs to improve:

> I really need to work on using formative assessment, providing feedback, and understanding how significant these assessments can be for our students. So, I need to improve how I can use assessment to help my students and focus more on that.

Figure 6. Novice Teachers' Challenges Scoring Classroom Assessments (*N* = 75)



Discussion

We examined the classroom assessment practices of novice foreign language teachers who had graduated from a foreign language program at a Colombian public university. Regarding what characterizes the assessment practices, we learned that most assessments are teacher-centered and used for summative purposes. For example, all teachers mainly used end-of-unit assessments, final exams, midterms, and quizzes to assess their students in the classroom. However, some novice teachers reported other classroom assessment practices, such as using assessments for formative and diagnostic purposes. They also indicated using informal assessment practices such as asking students questions during instruction or observing their students as they engage in classroom activities. Moreover, a few novice teachers also incorporated active participation of students in their classroom assessment process through self-assessment and peer assessment.

The focus on using summative assessment for accountability purposes in the classroom might indicate that novice teachers need additional training, as López and Bernal (2009) suggested. It is imperative to support novice language teachers using formative assessment to guide teaching and learning (Hill & McNamara, 2011; Leung, 2005; López, 2010; Wolf & López, 2022). Nonetheless, we found evidence that some novice teachers attempted to use other types of assessment in the classroom, albeit sparingly.

Novice teachers' classroom assessment practices also highlight how national and international tests shaped how they assessed their students' learning. These practices also indicate a solid washback effect on instruction. Previous research concerning the washback of large-scale assessments has yielded positive and sometimes unintended negative impacts (e.g., Green, 2007; Menken, 2017; Wall & Horák, 2011). This study did not examine whether the washback of national and international English language proficiency exams was positive or negative. However, novice teachers indicated

they felt forced to narrow the curriculum by focusing only on the language skills measured in the exams and spending instructional time to familiarize students with the format and item types in these large-scale exams.

Many factors influence language teachers' classroom assessment practices, including teaching beliefs, professional development opportunities, experience, and LAL (Cheng et al., 2004; Rea-Dickins, 2001; Yin, 2010). However, for the novice teachers who participated in this study, the main factor influencing their classroom assessment practices was their schools' policies and assessment systems, as Rogers et al. (2020) found. It is essential to emphasize that the primary goal of classroom assessment is to gather evidence of student learning to make informed instructional decisions to enhance the teaching and learning process (Leung, 2005; López, 2010). Therefore, institutions must ensure that their assessment systems and policies are aligned with their curriculum and instruction (Menken, 2017).

Finally, we also investigated novice foreign language teachers' challenges when assessing their students in the classroom. This study found that novice teachers' main challenge is making sense of classroom assessment scores and using this information to inform their decision-making process to support teaching and learning. However, novice teachers also reported needing help designing or adapting sound classroom assessment tasks. These difficulties include determining appropriate assessment approaches (e.g., question types, assessment activity), the assessment content (e.g., language skills), and selecting linguistically appropriate texts for their students. Moreover, novice teachers need some help establishing clear scoring criteria and using the scoring criteria consistently.

Several contextual factors impacted novice teachers' ability to assess their students in the classroom effectively. For example, we found that novice teachers' workload (e.g., number of classes they teach, number of students), time constraints, and available resources made classroom assessment more challenging, similar to what Wolf and López (2022) reported. Equally problematic is selecting assessment materials (e.g., reading and listening passages) that are appropriate for students to ensure that the assessment is more responsive to students' characteristics and needs (e.g., their foreign language proficiency levels).

Limitations of the Study

This study had several limitations. For example, the sample only included novice teachers who had all graduated from the same foreign language program. Furthermore, we only gathered reported data, did not observe the novice teachers assessing their students in the classroom, and did not collect sample classroom assessment materials from the novice teachers. Finally, we used a convenience sample for the online survey that only included novice teachers willing to participate. To support the findings from the online survey, we interviewed a subsample of the survey participants using a maximum variation sampling approach to examine a diverse range of cases. Despite the limitations, the study's findings yielded evidence about novice foreign language teachers' classroom assessment practices and challenges when assessing their students. This study is expected to contribute to a better understanding of novice teachers' classroom assessment needs and challenges and inform how to provide better support so they can use assessment to enhance teaching and learning.

Implications for Practice and Future Research

The overall findings of this study suggest that novice teachers need more knowledge, skills, and support to handle their daily assessment-related tasks. One thing that needs to happen is for novice foreign language teachers to shift the focus of classroom assessment from summative to formative (Earl, 2003; Mohamad Hanefar et al., 2022); that is, for novice teachers to focus more on using classroom assessment to inform their instructional practices and students' learning processes. Nevertheless,

to make this shift, novice foreign language teachers need much support (Karataş & Karaman, 2013). First, educational institutions must create optimal learning environments to foster language learning and facilitate classroom assessment; for example, smaller classrooms, more extended class periods, appropriate resources, and less workload for the teachers to ensure they have ideal conditions to implement and use classroom assessments successfully. Second, educational institutions must review their assessment policies and systems to provide an adequate alignment between assessment and instruction in terms of content (language skills) and the language proficiency level of the students.

Moreover, it is imperative to continue providing professional development opportunities for novice teachers to increase their knowledge and skills (Heritage & Wylie, 2020). Professional development is crucial in the early stages of the teaching career (Rogers et al., 2020). Some topics of particular interest include adapting texts, designing tasks, scoring, interpreting, and using assessments. The foreign language program could provide these training opportunities to support novice teachers at the beginning of their teaching journey or by the institutions based on their unique needs and challenges. However, novice teachers must be proactive and look for other opportunities to continue enhancing their knowledge and skills by accessing information in printed materials or the Internet and attending conferences, webinars, or other sharing-knowledge sessions. In addition to all these training opportunities, teachers need to continue self-monitoring and self-regulating their classroom assessment practices.

We also suggest creating communities of practice where novice teachers can interact and collaborate with their colleagues at school or elsewhere (e.g., other graduates from the foreign language program). In communities of practice, participants unite in a continued effort to enhance their knowledge and skills (Wenger, 1998). These communities of practice can help novice teachers discuss common interests regarding classroom assessment and share their assessment concerns or challenges to deepen their skills, knowledge, and expertise in classroom assessment. We also encourage language coordinators or experienced teachers to mentor novice teachers. This mentorship includes working closely with novice teachers, reviewing their assessment instruments, and providing feedback to improve them.

Finally, this study also has some implications for future research. Large-scale exams strongly influenced novice teachers' instructional and assessment practices. Thus, we suggest future research to examine the impact of these large-scale exams on teaching and learning. Moreover, we found that novice teachers used different types of assessment (e.g., formal, informal, and student-centered). Future research should also investigate how novice teachers use all these assessments, their benefits, and their challenges.

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Appendix A: The Online Survey

Table A1. Classroom Assessment Practices

Assessment method	Never	Occasionally	Frequently
Summative assessment			
Formative assessment			
Diagnostic assessment			
Questioning			
Observations			
Self-assessment			
Peer-assessment			
Other			

Table A2. Challenges Implementing Classroom Assessment

Challenge	No challenges	Some challenges	A lot of challenges
Determining how to assess			
Determining what to assess			
Determining when to assess			
Creating their assessments			
Adapting existing assessments			
Administering the assessments			
Setting scoring criteria			
Adapting existing scoring criteria			
Assigning scores			
Interpreting assessment scores			
Using assessment information			
Providing feedback to students			
Other			

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

1. What role does classroom assessment play in instruction or your teaching practices?
2. How do you assess your students in the classroom? What types of assessments or instruments do you use?
3. Who designs the assessments you use in your classroom?
4. How often do you assess your students?
5. How do you score your assessments? How do you set your scoring criteria?
6. How do you interpret the assessment scores?
7. What kinds of decisions do you make based on the evaluations you make?
8. How do you provide feedback to your students?
9. What kind of difficulties do you have or have you had when assessing your students?
10. Why do you think you have had these difficulties in adequately assessing your students? To what factors do you attribute these difficulties?

P R O F I L E

Issues from Novice Teacher Researchers

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Discriminatory Practices Against Non-Native English Speaker Teachers in Colombia's Language Centers: A Multimodal Study

Prácticas discriminatorias contra profesores no nativos de inglés en centros de lenguas de Colombia: un estudio multimodal

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This multimodal/multimedia discourse analysis explored institutional practices regarding native and non-native English speaker teachers in five language centers in Medellín, Colombia, as reflected in interviews with coordinators and teachers, language centers' websites, social media, and recruitment materials. Data were analyzed using content and multimodal discourse analysis. Findings unveiled that, in general, these language centers favor native English speaker teachers and discriminate against non-native English speaker teachers in multiple ways, as the former are privileged in job searches, are asked fewer hiring requirements, have more room for negotiation, earn higher salaries, and enjoy more perks.

Keywords: discriminatory practices, language centers, native speakers of English, non-native speakers of English

El propósito de este análisis del discurso multimodal/multimedial fue explorar las prácticas institucionales hacia los profesores nativos y no nativos de inglés en cinco centros de idiomas en Medellín, Colombia, mediante entrevistas a coordinadores y profesores y el análisis del discurso de las páginas web, redes sociales y materiales de reclutamiento de estos centros. Los hallazgos revelaron que, en general, estos centros de idiomas favorecen a los profesores de inglés nativos y discriminan a los profesores de inglés no nativos de múltiples maneras, pues los primeros son privilegiados en la búsqueda de empleo, se les piden menos requisitos de contratación, tienen más margen de negociación, reciben salarios más altos y disfrutan de más beneficios.

Palabras clave: centros de idiomas, prácticas discriminatorias, profesores de inglés nativos, profesores de inglés no nativos

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Introduction

As a result of the increasing worldwide influence of English, some Latin American countries—such as Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, and Mexico (González & Llurda, 2016)—have promoted the teaching and learning of this language among their citizens through nationwide government programs. In Colombia, the most recent version of the Ministry of Education's (MEN) bilingual program is called *Colombia Bilingüe* 2018–2022 (MEN, n.d.-a). The initial purpose of this program was to have, by 2019, "citizens capable of communicating in English, so that they can insert the country in universal communication processes, the global economy, and cultural openness, with internationally comparable standards" (MEN, 2006, p. 6).

As part of this program, the MEN has taken some measures, including importing the so-called "native English speaker teachers" (NESTs)[1] to work in local secondary and vocational schools and universities.

Such importation has been very controversial for two reasons: First, it has put these NESTs where they are least needed since primary schools lack licensed English teachers in their staff; vocational schools and universities already count on these. Second, the practice seems to correspond to what Phillipson (1992) calls the "native speaker fallacy" (p. 193). This fallacy consists of importing NESTs to replace non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs) in some classes but also portraying them as better teachers than their counterparts (Ma, 2012). It also consists of representing them as (a) the owners of the language that "rightfully" belongs to them (Yoo, 2014, p. 86), (b) as Caucasian, white individuals who are "born in inner-circle countries, use English as their mother tongue, . . . and have deep knowledge of English Western Culture" (Manara, 2018, p. 127), and (c) as people who are automatically "superior" to their local counterparts (Mackenzie, 2021, p. 5) due to their "linguistic authority" (Huang, 2018, p. 54). Although the NESTs that have arrived in Colombia do not necessarily meet the native criterion, their importation is still seen as a product of buying into this fallacy since the government presents them as NESTs and promotes the belief that they can perform much better than NNESTs.

Despite this, the MEN's official website suggests that, by 2018, the government had brought a total of 1,400 NESTs (MEN, 2017, 2018) from countries as varied as Serbia, Ghana, and the Czech Republic (Correa & Flórez, 2022). Several scholars have documented this phenomenon and have reported discriminatory practices that are occurring in public schools, such as not requiring NESTs to have any teaching credentials (González & Llurda, 2016), paying them higher salaries, assigning them less workload and responsibilities (Gómez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018), and not requiring them to have any teaching experience for job applications (Mackenzie, 2021). Nonetheless, only one study describes discriminatory practices in language centers (LCs), which consist of assigning NESTs to higher language levels (Ramírez Ospina, 2015). Therefore, it is unclear what institutional practices regarding NESTs and NNESTs are happening in LCs in Medellín, and if they are, how they are reflected in these centers' websites, social media, and recruitment materials.

Investigating this is essential for at least two reasons: First, the number of LCs has increased exponentially worldwide (Alarcon, 2017), particularly in Colombia in the last 20 years. Indeed, currently, in Colombia, there are 757 LCs (MEN, 2019), also called language academies, institutes, schools, and Educational Institutions for Work and Human Development (IETDHs for their name in Spanish).[2] Second, as Kellner and Share (2019) remind us, media, such as those mentioned above, "construct meanings, influence and educate audiences, and impose their messages and values" (p. 5). Also, they significantly

1 So-called because they are perceived as NESTs and addressed that way in all government documents even though they come from all corners of the world, including many non-English speaking countries.

2 The latter are public and private profit-making organizations that offer and develop work or academic training programs and provide occupational aptitude certifications (MEN, n.d.-b).

affect people's minds and decisions regarding a myriad of aspects, including where to learn a language, whom to hire, or how much to pay. Thus, when LCs display information about NESTs and NNESTs on their websites, social media, and recruitment materials, they are simultaneously promoting discourses about both groups of instructors that people are likely to believe and buy.

Given this situation, we designed a research study which was guided by the following research question: What are the institutional practices regarding NESTs and NNESTs in the five most prominent LCs in Medellín, Colombia, and how are these reflected in interviews with teachers and coordinators, and the LCs' websites, social media, and recruitment materials?

Theoretical Framework

This study draws on Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL) views of LCs, NESTs, and NNESTs and Critical Discourse Studies (CDS) views of media representations and institutional practices.

Critical Applied Linguistics Views of LCs

LCs, in general, have been regarded as institutions that serve language learning (Mohammadian Haghighi & Norton, 2017). To CAL scholars, however, LCs are more than mere educational institutions. First, they are commercial enterprises since they "provide lessons in English or other foreign languages for a fee" (Alarcon, 2017, p. 25) and use the spread of English to open more schools and maintain themselves in the market (Phillipson, 2008). Following market practices, LCs see learners as consumers and use strategies to attract them (Ramjattan, 2015). For example, they may use their consumers' preferences to promote NESTs' hiring only (Ramjattan, 2015), which simultaneously discriminates against NNESTs.

Second, as Ramjattan (2019) argues, LCs are multilingual spaces that serve to reproduce "students' racist preferences for teachers" and enhance the existing inequality between NESTs and NNESTs (p. 129). Indeed, "these schools may strangely believe that the language is best taught by white native speakers" (Ramjattan, 2019, p. 126) and assign them a higher status. LCs may also have NESTs act as "the models for the acquisition of English" (Chang, 2017, pp. 32–33). Finally, they may follow "imperialistic standards of English and Anglophone culture" (Khan, 2019, p. 124) by reproducing stereotypes and exotification and by privileging some cultural and linguistic aspects over others.

NESTs and NNESTs

CAL theorists also question the "specific conception of the native English speakers . . . as the ideal model for learning English" (Khan, 2019, p. 133). To these scholars, NESTs, whose only qualification is having a high level of English, are not necessarily ideal speakers or "perfect teachers" of the language (Manara, 2018, p. 127). For example, some NESTs are reported to have poor classroom management (Tatar, 2019), show difficulty in explaining lessons (Alseweed, 2012; Ma, 2012), be less familiar with their students' learning styles and needs (Alseweed, 2012), create anxiety among learners (Ma, 2012; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012), face difficulties to establish a close relationship with their learners (Ma, 2012; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012), have little knowledge of teaching (Coşkun, 2013; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012), have problems to communicate with students (Ma, 2012), and hold a low ability to explain grammar (Tatar, 2019). Thus, to be a competent teacher, it is not necessary to be a native speaker of English (Huang, 2018; Mahboob & Golden, 2013).

Similarly, NNESTs are believed to have a "greater linguistic capital . . . over many of their counterparts" (Mackenzie, 2021, p. 17) and to be able to teach the language more effectively as they are aware of the possible challenges that students are likely to face (Coşkun, 2013). Besides, they are perceived by students as understanding their learning difficulties more easily (Viáfara González, 2016; Zhang & Zhan, 2014), having

more knowledge of their cultural background (Alseweed, 2012; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012), explaining lessons more clearly (Alseweed, 2012; Ma, 2012), devising better strategies to tackle their needs (Zhang & Zhan, 2014) and foster their reading skills (Gutiérrez Arvizu, 2014), having better classroom management (Tatar, 2019), building closer relationships with them (Ma, 2012), and having a better knowledge of grammar (Díaz, 2015; Zhang & Zhan, 2014).

Media Representations

To CDS scholars, media—which include "television, cell phones, popular music, film, video games, digital platforms, and advertising" (Kellner & Share, 2019, p. 5)—are not just neutral tools used to sell products but powerful ideological apparatuses (Fairclough, 1995). They have "the power to influence knowledge, beliefs, values, social relations, [and] social identities" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 2). They "function ideologically in social control and social reproduction" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 47), and as such, they can shape people's minds. Moreover, media "do not merely 'mirror realities' as is sometimes naively assumed. They constitute versions of reality in ways which depend on the social positions and interests and objectives of those who produce them" (Fairclough, 1995, pp. 103–104).

Similarly, media texts "are neither neutral nor transparent" (Kellner & Share, 2019, p. 56). They naturalize messages in the eyes of the viewer and prevent audiences from inquiring about their actual purposes. They do this through media representations, which are "particular ways of representing the world . . . particular constructions of social identities . . . and particular constructions of social relations" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 12). Media texts are characterized by rarely having explicit messages and having an ideological objective (Fairclough, 1995). As such, they contribute to the reproduction of dominating and exploiting social relations, which means that in them and through them dominant groups often appear superior. In contrast, subordinate and marginalized groups appear as "the other" and "inferior" (Kellner & Share, 2019, p. 22).

Institutional Practices

For CDS scholars, there are institutional practices such as (a) hiring practices—recruitment policies and recruitment programs (Wang & Lin, 2013), job advertisements (Selvi, 2010), and professional and biographical criteria (Mackenzie, 2021; Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Tatar, 2019)—, and (b) working conditions practices—salaries, allowances, and distribution of tasks such as class planning and extracurricular activities (García-Ponce, 2020; Gómez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018; Kiczkowiak & Wu, 2018; Tatar, 2019)—that need to be looked at when examining LCs since many of them have been found to discriminate against NNESTs.

To Fithriani (2018), discriminatory practices are defined as "the act of inequitable treatment to a group of people, in this case is the NNESTs, because of their non-nativeness" (p. 742). Among these discriminatory practices, CDS scholars cite the following: (a) preference for NESTs in recruitment policies, programs, and job advertisements (Mackenzie, 2021; Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Selvi, 2010; Tatar, 2019; Wang & Lin, 2013); (b) unequal working conditions in terms of salaries, distribution of tasks, and allowances favoring NESTs (García-Ponce, 2020; Gómez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018; Kiczkowiak & Wu, 2018; Mackenzie, 2021; Ramjattan, 2019; Tatar, 2019; Wang & Lin, 2013); (c) rejection of NNESTs despite their pedagogical training and teaching experience (Mackenzie, 2021; Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Wang & Lin, 2013; Tatar, 2019); and (d) preference for NESTs based on biographical factors such as age, race, gender, and nationality (Mackenzie, 2021; Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Kiczkowiak & Wu, 2018; Selvi, 2010; Tatar, 2019).

Method

This research uses a multiple case study methodology since it takes several cases, collects information from

each (Yin, 2018), and analyzes them individually and across centers. Besides, it aims to "build a general explanation that fits each case, even though the cases will vary in detail" (Yin, 2018, p. 229).

The Language Centers

The cases are represented in five LCs from Medellín, Colombia. The criteria used to select those LCs were: (a) not belonging to a university because, in a previous study conducted by the authors, they were deemed to behave differently from other private LCs in Colombia, due most likely to the fact that the latter are for profit while they former are not; (b) having several branches, offering several languages, and having a significant amount of students, which would indicate that they were prominent and recognized institutions; (c) having a significant number of followers on their social media, which would speak of their popularity; and (d) having been in the market for several years, which would indicate that the community has accepted them. To preserve the anonymity of the participants, we assigned numbers to the LCs (e.g., LC1), and the participants were named according to their role in the LCs. Table 1 summarizes the most relevant characteristics of the five LCs.

Table 1. Characteristics of the Chosen Language Centers (*N* = 5)

Total No. of branches	Type of institution	Languages offered	Status
Between 3 and 30 branches	2 language centers 2 academies 1 institute	3 only English 2 English and other languages	1 international 2 national 2 local

The LCs self-describe as either language centers, language academies, or institutes, which seems to correspond more to a particular preference than to any specific feature since they are all considered IETDHs (MEN, 2019). Of the five centers, one is cataloged as international since it is a Colombian LC with some branches in other Latin American countries; two are described as national because they have branches in different cities of the country; and the other two are marked as local because they only have branches in the city of Medellín.

Data Collection

This study used three sources of data: interviews with selected participants, recruitment materials, and the websites and social media of the selected LCs. The interviews, conducted in Spanish, aimed to find the participants' views regarding their LC's institutional practices concerning NESTs and NNESTs. They were conducted with one local academic coordinator and one local English instructor from each LC who were chosen following an opportunistic sampling technique (Creswell, 2012), that is, those people willing to form part of the study after being contacted by the research group coordinator. The participants were contacted either because someone in the research group knew them, they were recommended to us by earlier contacts, or they appeared on the contact tab of the LC website. No NESTs were interviewed because, when establishing contact with the LCs, the available instructors were all NNESTs, and there was no reply from any NEST. Besides, as this was in the middle of the pandemic lockdown, it was difficult to go to the LCs' main branches to search for them. Interviews were semi-structured (Adams, 2015), with most questions focusing on the recruitment process, hiring requirements, working conditions, and differences between NESTs and NNESTs regarding workload, schedules, and salaries, among others.

Recruitment materials were found only for LC1 and LC3. For LC1, the information was obtained from

an associated website they exclusively used to recruit NESTs, which one of the participants mentioned in one of the interviews. For LC3, the information was retrieved from its official website. This data was collected to find the specific institutional practices regarding recruitment at these centers.

Website information was collected through 14 screenshots of each webpage tab. Finally, 11 images of the LCs' social media (Facebook and Instagram) referring to or portraying NESTs and NNESTs were also collected. Only one was stored when images on one of the media were repeated. The purpose of collecting these screenshots was to explore how institutional practices regarding NESTs and NNESTs were reflected in these media outlets. Table 2 shows the data collection summary.

Table 2. Data Collection Summary

	Interviews	Recruitment materials	Images		
			Website	Facebook	Instagram
LC1	2	8 images	7	7	1
LC2	3	0	0	0	0
LC3	2	1 PDF	2	0	0
LC4	2	0	4	3	0
LC5	2	0	1	0	0

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed differently depending on the source. For instance, for multimodal and multimedia resources—such as images from LCs' recruitment materials, websites, and social media—Kress and van Leeuwen's (2001) framework was used. This framework analyzes four elements: discourse, design, production, and distribution. However, for this study, emphasis was placed on the discourse and design domains. By analyzing design, it was possible to delve into image aspects such as gaze, the size of the frame, social distance, perspective, type of involvement, and angle (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006); and by analyzing discourse, it was possible to delve into the words and phrases used to describe and refer to NNESTs and NESTs, and the "characteristics of specific discourses" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001, p. 24) such as the font color and size and the use of upper and lower case, among others.

The analysis of interviews and text data was inductive, which, as Phillips (2014) explains, consists of creating themes and categories as they emerge from the data. Once the data were uploaded into NVivo, at least eight categories emerged, which were then refined into five: (a) NESTs as privileged in job searches, (b) NESTs as being asked fewer hiring requirements, (c) NESTs as having more room for negotiation, (d) NESTs as earning higher salaries, and (e) NESTs as enjoying more perks. The latter was subdivided into subcategories such as additional stipends and allowances, less workload, and allocation of intermediate and advanced levels.

Approval from the Institutional Review Board was obtained to follow ethical regulations, and the participants signed consent forms. As mentioned above, the participants' real names were not used, and the images found on the LCs' websites and social media were edited to remove any logos or proper names.

Findings

The data analysis suggests that, in general, in these LCs, NESTs are often privileged in job searches, are asked fewer hiring requirements, are given more room

for negotiation of time and class allocation, earn higher salaries, and enjoy more perks.

NESTs as Privileged in Job Searches

In terms of NESTs being privileged in job searches, this situation was evidenced in images from the official website and Facebook account from three LCs (LC1, LC3, and LC4) and in recruitment materials from LC1, where NESTs are either more visible or the only ones being addressed.

Concerning NESTs being more visible than NNESTs, the analysis reveals that LC1, LC3, and LC4 promote this practice. This situation was noted in images found on the official website and Facebook and Instagram accounts of these LCs. An example of this situation was found on the LC3 official website, on the "Contact" tab, in the option "Work with us." On the right, the image had the title "Work with us as a teacher" in blue capital letters and a screenshot of a video showing a white, green-eyed woman, whose name suggests she is a foreigner and who was portrayed as having the roles of "Teacher and Academic Support." On the left, there was a short text with the title "Apply for a Job at LC3", where they invited people to "send [their] current curriculum vitae along with three work and/or professional references to the Human Resources Department [e-mail address provided]" (Image from LC3 website). Although the short text and little information in the image do not have an explicit call for NESTs only, the fact that a foreign instructor is the one who appears makes NESTs more visible in those job searches and sends the message that the LCs may be looking for NESTs, not NNESTs.

Regarding NESTs being the only ones addressed, evidence was found in recruitment materials and the official website and Facebook account of LC1. An example comes from recruitment material explaining the conditions and requirements to apply for the job. LC1 requested candidates to be foreigners or to be able to prove a C1 level based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The material stated that "applicants must be from a foreign country where English is either the first language or an official language or have the capacity to show they have a C1 level of English according to the [CEFR] standards." Moreover, they claimed that "applicants with dual citizenship can apply when they are able to present proof that they have lived the majority of their life in another country (not Colombia) and currently live abroad" (Recruitment material, LC1).

Through these explicit conditions and requirements, it is visible that these LCs are eager to hire foreign instructors. Even though they accept Colombians, they must have dual citizenship or live abroad, which is discriminatory to those Colombians who do not meet these requirements.

NESTs as Being Asked Fewer Hiring Requirements

Regarding NESTs being asked fewer requirements than NNESTs when hired, evidence was found in LC1, LC2, LC3, and LC4. For instance, in recruitment material found on the "Home" section of the LC3 website showing the English courses on offer, there was a statement that require all instructors to certify their pedagogical and methodological skills. Additionally, NNESTs were asked to pass a language proficiency test.

> Our institution has highly qualified teaching personnel; some of them are from the United States, England, Canada, and Australia, also Colombian instructors who are fully certified for language teaching with a C2 or C1 level (CEFR). Additionally, the instructors who are not licenciados have certified their pedagogical and methodological skills through a CELTA, DELTA or TKT exam (Recruitment material, LC3).

As shown, NNESTs with an English teaching degree are also required to demonstrate a "fully certified" C2 or C1 level, and NNESTs who do not hold a teaching degree are asked to take methodological courses such as the TKT. The requirement is absurd since in Colombia,

although there is no required level of English for entrance to an English teaching preparation program, there is a required exit level, C1 (Resolución 18583, 2017). NESTs, on the other hand, are only required to be foreign. They do not need to certify their language level or take methodological courses.

Another example of NESTs having to meet fewer requirements than NNESTs was found in the interview with the current academic director from LC4, who confessed that NESTs working in that institution mainly were passers-by who did not have any teaching preparation.

> Throughout time, we realized that [NESTs] did not even have any pedagogical concepts clear, but they simply were people who came for a trip or to visit the country and who then stayed, working in these kinds of institutions, without any pedagogical or academic concept.[3]

Thus, because NESTs come from inner-circle countries (Kachru, 1985), some LCs automatically consider them qualified, prepared instructors who need to prove neither their language proficiency level nor their teaching skills. Conversely, NNESTs are sometimes asked for additional tests to prove their pedagogical and linguistic competence.

NESTs as Having More Room for Negotiation

Concerning NESTs having more room for negotiation of time and class allocation, this was seen in LC1 and LC3. For instance, in an interview with a former instructor from LC3, she stated that the LC was flexible with NESTs and respected their schedule, which usually included later classes. At the same time, NNESTs were assigned 6 a.m. courses without being asked.

> NESTs have a different recruitment process, requirements, and some privileges regarding the schedule. For instance, at LC3, there is the impression that NESTs do not like getting up early; therefore, those instructors were rarely given a class at 6 a.m. However, the Colombian instructor was not even asked and was simply given the course.

As can be seen, NNESTs have little room for negotiation. Regardless of the circumstances, they must comply with working shifts, class schedules, last-minute class allocations, and course levels. Meanwhile, NESTs have some benefits for which they do not have to ask.

NESTs as Earning Higher Salaries

Regarding NESTs' higher salaries, this situation was noticeable in the interviews with two academic coordinators and three instructors from LC1, LC2, and LC4. For example, in an interview with a former instructor from LC2, he noted that NNESTs earned less than NESTs.

> There was very much difference in salary, so to speak; instructors from here, from Medellín, or other places in Colombia had an hourly salary, but it was a lower salary than it was for a native instructor.

This example unveils how some LCs overvalue NESTs or believe they are better than NNESTs and, therefore, deserve different and better working conditions (in this case, a higher salary).

NESTs as Enjoying More Perks

The data analysis unveils that NESTs are given more perks: additional stipends and allowances, less workload, and allocation of intermediate and advanced classes. However, this practice has an exception: NESTs have fewer opportunities to get a promotion than NNESTs.

Additional Stipends and Allowances

LC1 and LC3 promote this practice. An example of this situation was found in some of the recruitment materials from LC1, where they explicitly offered "local

3 All interview excerpts have been translated as interviews were conducted in Spanish.

transport expenses for business days, international and national flight tickets, housing, tourist travel pack within the country, help with the visa process and also the visa cost, and a monthly stipend of 300 US dollars" (Recruitment material).

The practice was confirmed by a former coordinator from that LC, who explained that the institution did everything possible to have NESTs working for them.

> There was a program that LC1 tried to carry out to attract NESTs; it was called "Be an Ambassador," in which they were given the chance to travel, to have some trips every two months . . . to Cartagena, Eje Cafetero. I mean, the LC did everything so that NESTs would not leave. (Interview)

This demonstrates that NESTs receive more perks than NNESTs, even when these share similar circumstances with NESTs, such as migrating to the city where the LC is located. In other words, the LCs discriminate against NNESTs by depriving them of the same benefits their NEST counterparts have. Although NNESTs would not need some perks, they would benefit from local transportation expenses, travel packs, and trips to other places in Colombia.

Less Workload

In terms of workload, the data analysis unveils that these same two LCs (LC1 and LC3) assign less workload to NESTs, representing another benefit for them. This unfair distribution of instructors' workload is suggested by a former instructor from LC3 when she stated that NNESTs had to work all day on Saturdays, whereas NESTs had fewer class hours, meaning they worked half or less time than NNESTs.

> On Saturdays, the schedule is from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m.; however, many NESTs only worked until noon, whereas NNESTs had to work the whole working day, around 8 to 10 class hours. There were even some cases in which NESTs did not have a workload for the whole day; I mean, they could have just one two-hour course, and then they were "available" up to midday. (Interview)

This excerpt reveals how, besides being paid less and getting fewer or no allowances, NNESTs must work longer or more working days. It also shows how LCs are more concerned with the well-being of NESTs: These are effectively given less work and more free time compared to their NNEST counterparts.

Allocation of Intermediate and Advanced Levels

The last perk NESTs have is related to them being mostly or only assigned to teach intermediate and advanced levels. This is a perk because advanced courses require less preparation and planning, so much so that NNESTs want to be assigned advanced courses and complain when they are assigned only basic levels. The data analysis reveals that this practice is promoted in LC1, LC2, LC3, and LC4. For instance, in the interview with the current academic coordinator from LC2, he expressed that the LC hired NESTs to teach in intermediate and advanced levels (B2 and C1) because, for basic levels, they had *licenciados*.

> The recruitment of [NESTs] is primarily done for levels B2 and C1 where people can already produce more in the language. Nevertheless, at basic levels, the LC does not recommend it. At basic levels, we also have instructors who hold a bachelor's degree in education, people who have their international language proficiency tests, pedagogical knowledge, and tests that can prove their teaching skills.

This practice was also evidenced in one recruitment material from LC1, where they explained some characteristics of the job NESTs would do in the institution, such as the classes these instructors would be in charge of. The LC explicitly assured: "You will deliver regular classes to advanced level students and in speaking rooms."

The examples in this section demonstrate that NESTs have more perks as they are given additional benefits NNESTs lack, including extra stipends and

allowances, less workload, and allocation of intermediate and advanced levels. The only exception to this is found when it comes to getting promotions. The data analysis reveals that this is the only practice favoring NNESTs more than NESTs. This situation was verified in interviews with four coordinators and three instructors from LC1, LC3, LC4, and LC5.

For instance, the academic coordinator from LC5, the only LC that does not promote any of the practices described above that favor NESTs and disfavor NNESTs, claimed that he started to work as an instructor in the LC and that some months later, he was given the possibility to become one of the coordinators, being in charge of administrative tasks, which required other sorts of abilities apart from those for teaching. Similar examples were found in the interviews with the other coordinators and instructors.

> At LC5, I started working as an instructor in 2016. I had that role for a year, and then I started to get promoted to more administrative-academic posts. In the beginning, I was an administrative coordinator for two months, which is a kind of first step to getting ready for handling administrative issues; one can stay a long time in that post. However, when my probationary period was over, some academic coordinators quit. Thus, I got promoted to academic coordinator. (Interview, LC5 former academic coordinator)

This practice of giving NNESTs the possibility of getting a promotion may happen because they tend to work in the LCs for a long time. In contrast, NESTs are temporary instructors who need or desire to return to their hometown countries after some time in Colombia.

Discussion and Conclusions

The findings revealed that, in general, NESTs are favored through the institutional practices these LCs hold, and NNESTs are discriminated against. These findings are similar to those obtained by García-Ponce (2020), Gómez-Vásquez and Guerrero Nieto (2018), Mahboob and Golden (2013), Ruecker and Ives (2015), Tatar (2019), and Wang and Lin (2013). Indeed, although none of these studies was conducted in LCs, all these scholars found that NESTs are privileged in job searches and teaching positions and have to fulfill fewer hiring requirements by not proving their training in language teaching.

The study also corroborates the findings of many other scholars. For example, it confirms those obtained by Mackenzie (2021), which revealed that NESTs are preferred for teaching positions over NNESTs and that, sometimes, NESTs were only asked to have an alternative teaching certification. It also backs up Gómez-Vásquez and Guerrero Nieto's (2018), Mackenzie's (2021), and Wang and Lin's (2013) findings that NESTs are paid higher salaries. Next, the study verifies the findings by Ruecker and Ives (2015), Senom and Othman, 2014, and Tatar (2019), who uncovered that NESTs receive more perks than NNESTs and these were reflected in additional benefits, including airfare, transportation, free stipends, free accommodation, less workload, reduced working hours, and a different division of tasks which puts NESTs in an advantaged position over NNESTs. Finally, this study corroborates the work done by Ramírez Ospina (2015) in LCs in the sense that it also revealed that NNESTs are usually confined to the teaching of basic levels, possibly because their language awareness (i.e., knowledge *about* the language) is taken for granted due to their pedagogical training, while their language proficiency (i.e., knowledge *of* the language) keeps on being a concern (Andrews, 2003). Conversely, instructors holding an alternative certification (in this case, NESTs) may be mostly given intermediate and advanced levels, mainly based on conversation, since these courses do not require NESTs to have language awareness but language proficiency (Andrews, 2003).

However, the findings of this study differ from those of at least two studies. First, Selvi (2010), whose study was not carried out in LCs, found that, although NESTs were privileged in job searches and sometimes

were not asked for any teaching credentials, on some occasions, they were required to have a bachelor's degree, a master's in TESL/TEFL, or even a doctorate. Second, García-Ponce (2020) found that not only did NESTs earn higher salaries and have extra benefits (such as more holidays), but also enjoyed more promotions. This aspect is different in our research, as we found that the only exception to the additional perks NESTs received in LCs was not having many opportunities to get a promotion.

Besides confirming and differing from some of the studies mentioned above, this study is significant in five ways: First, it reveals that the discriminatory practices against NNESTs that happen at school and other settings and that have been uncovered by scholars (García-Ponce, 2020; Gómez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018; Senom & Othman, 2014; Tatar, 2019; Wang & Lin, 2013) also happen in LCs. This is important because, thus far, few studies have suggested that LCs discriminate against NNESTs (Mackenzie, 2021; Ramírez Ospina, 2015).

Second, it is significant in that it unveils an important fact that had not been reported in the NESTs and NNESTs' literature before regarding both NESTs and NNESTs in LCs or any other type of setting. This fact is related to NESTs having more room for time and class allocation negotiation based on their preferences and requests for the LCs. In contrast, NNESTs cannot negotiate the schedules and course levels they are assigned to teach.

Third, this study demonstrates that, just as other institutions around the world and in Colombia, these LCs have bought into the idea that English belongs to specific groups (Yoo, 2014), that NESTs are "the experts" in the language (Senom & Othman, 2014), whose "nativeness" is enough (Mackenzie, 2021), and that, regardless of NNESTs' pedagogical training and linguistic skills, they are not a model to follow (García-Ponce, 2020; Gómez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018; Ruecker & Ives, 2015), despite the literature that speaks to the contrary (Huang, 2018). Consequently, these LCs have bought into the idea that NESTs are better prepared to teach the language (Ramjattan, 2019), which creates inequality in how both groups of instructors are treated (Tatar, 2019) in LCs.

Fourth, this study suggests that, just as many LCs around the world, the LCs in this research are driven by market forces (Ramjattan, 2015), and therefore, they use media (recruitment materials, websites, and social media) as a tool to attract consumers (Ramjattan, 2015) and send particular messages which seem to be neutral and devoid of hidden intentions (Kellner & Share, 2019). Nonetheless, these messages promote the discrimination, disempowerment, and marginalization of NNESTs (Aneja, 2016) since they render invisible or overlook this type of instructor. Conversely, these same messages reinforce the existing hierarchy between NNESTs and NESTs (Huang, 2018), showing the latter as an idealized figure (Khan, 2019) and assigning them a superior status (Mackenzie, 2021) by making them more visible and giving them credibility. They are also going against the tenets proposed by critical scholars, who challenge the wide acceptance and naturalization of NESTs' superiority in English language teaching and who argue that it is not necessary to be a native speaker of the language to be a competent teacher (Huang, 2018; Mahboob & Golden, 2013), so NNESTs' linguistic capital can be seen as a strength (Mackenzie, 2021).

Finally, this study demonstrates that the ideologies that LCs have bought into about English, LCs, and NESTs, among others, cannot only be seen through an analysis of the LCs' practices but also through their websites and social media, which are powerful ideological apparatuses (Fairclough, 1995) through which LCs promote discriminatory institutional practices as "neutral or objective" (Kellner & Share, 2019, p. 100). Thus, LCs should be a research focus due to their exponential growth in the country and their impact on English teaching and learning.

The findings have implications for language policy and LCs' administration. Regarding the first aspect, the

results suggest that the government, specifically the MEN, should regulate LCs more strictly so that all LCs, not merely the ones that choose to do it, have the same regulations for NESTs regarding language proficiency and pedagogical skills. By doing so, the LCs create equal working conditions for both groups of instructors. As a result, through these regulations, the LCs would have to guarantee NNESTs the same rights and benefits NESTs receive, which, simultaneously, would lead to a more equitable hiring approach. Regarding the second aspect, the findings suggest the need for LCs to educate themselves by reviewing the literature regarding both NESTs and NNESTs. This way, they can demystify the former's perceived superiority and the latter's inferiority, allowing them to use their media more favorable to NNESTs and organize NESTs and NNESTs' workload, among other things.

Further research could delve into what institutional practices are reflected through the flyers, posters, and advertisements the LCs produce and how NESTs and NNESTs are represented in those media artifacts. Another avenue for future research is to explore, from the perspective of NESTs, what institutional practices the LCs promote and how they feel about those practices that privilege and favor them. Lastly, further research could be conducted to unveil to what extent these representations influence different stakeholders' perceptions about the language and the instructors teaching it, mainly parents and students.

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Analysing the Functionality of Twitter for Science Dissemination in EFL Teaching and Learning

Análisis de la utilidad de Twitter para la divulgación científica en la enseñanza y aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera

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Communication through social media is a phenomenon whose relevance has involved the consideration of online discourse in the language teaching context. This article explores the functionality of Twitter (now called "X") for science dissemination within the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. To do this, 100 tweets from the accounts @WWF and @Greenpeace were gathered and analysed from the perspective of digital discourse analysis and communicative language teaching. I argue that using these tweets encourages the development of key competencies, provides room for the practice of integrated skills, and enhances the application of 21st-century skills. Conclusively, science dissemination tweets may be considered adequate for teaching and learning English.

Keywords: English as a foreign language, language teaching, multimodality, online discourse, Twitter

La comunicación en redes sociales es un fenómeno cuya relevancia ha supuesto la irrupción del discurso en línea en la enseñanza de idiomas. Este artículo explora la funcionalidad de Twitter (ahora conocida como "X") como medio de divulgación científica en el contexto de la enseñanza y aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera. Para ello, se seleccionaron y analizaron 100 tuits de las cuentas @WWF y @Greenpeace desde la perspectiva del análisis del discurso digital y del método comunicativo. Así, se argumenta que este tipo de textos puede favorecer el desarrollo de competencias clave del siglo XXI y el trabajo de destrezas lingüísticas. Se concluye que los tuits de divulgación científica pueden constituir una herramienta adecuada para la enseñanza y aprendizaje del inglés.

Palabras clave: enseñanza de idiomas, discurso en línea, inglés como lengua extranjera, multimodalidad, Twitter

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Introduction

The English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and learning scenario has been subject to many changes in the last decades as regards the type of materials, methods, or competencies used and promoted in the classroom. One of the most significant variations in this context has been the establishment of communicative competence as the aim of learning English (Richards, 2006). There have been several attempts to incorporate diverse means and methods that could facilitate the acquisition process (Lightbown, 2003), within which the introduction of digital technologies and the promotion of students' information and communication technology (ICT) competence constitute a perfect example of such an innovative tendency (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007). This tendency to foster technological practices in the EFL context has resulted in an increasing need for further in-depth analyses concerning the educational use of technology, for example, the possible applications of social media as teaching and learning tools. To contribute to this study gap, this paper delves into the potential of Twitter—a microblogging digital platform—as an EFL teaching and learning tool, focusing on the functionality of science dissemination tweets and the applicability of its main affordances (e.g., multimodality and hyperlinking) for this purpose. To carry out this analysis, the present study is framed within the normative context of Spanish secondary education, specifically of the autonomous community of Aragón.[1]

What Characterises EFL Teaching and Learning Today?

The character of English as an indispensable vehicle for global communication has meant the consolidation of this language as a basic learning area in most educational curricula worldwide. Such educational perspective is rooted in the belief that second/foreign language (L2) learners need to develop what Hymes (1972) termed "communicative competence," that is, the ability to use the L2 as it is done in real-life communication. This interest in communication skills led, in the 1970s, to the development of communicative language teaching (CLT), an approach to language teaching aimed at fostering learners' communicative competence, which ousted traditional grammatical approaches (Spada, 2007).

Adopting a communicative approach resulted from the rising importance of communication in second language acquisition (SLA) studies (Dörnyei, 2009; Lightbown, 2003). This explains the alignment of CLT with the eleven principles of instructed SLA proposed by Ellis and Shintani (2014).[2] Out of these principles, scholars have widely considered Principle 6 (the need for input exposure), analysing whether L2 input should come from interaction (Gass, 2013) or authentic materials (Guo, 2012).

With the importance of input, scholars (Kaur, 2019; Luís, 2017) have also considered the digitalisation of teaching materials and its connection with the rapid expansion of technologies in society and education (Hashim, 2018; Selwyn, 2012). In this sense, teenagers' familiarity with Web 2.0 and their tendency to use social media to communicate (Lenhart et al., 2010) suggests that these platforms could be appropriate teaching tools, especially when dealing with secondary school students (Faizi et al., 2013; Greenhow & Lewin,

1 The legal framework considered in this study is (a) the Spanish national educational law, i.e., the LOMLOE (Ley Orgánica 3, 2020)—which stands for the organic law which modifies previous law, LOE—and (b) its Aragonese adaptation in the autonomic legislation (Orden ECD/1172, 2022) and *Curriculum for English as Foreign Language* (Anexo II, Orden ECD/1172, 2022).

2 These principles state that SLA instruction needs to ensure that learners (1) develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence and focus on (2) meaning and (3) form; that it should (4) be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge, and (5) take into account the order and sequence of acquisition; that it requires (6) extensive L2 input and (7) opportunities for output; that (8) interaction in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency; that instruction needs to take account of (9) individual differences in learners and (10) the fact that there is a subjective aspect to learning a new language; and that (11) in assessing learners' L2 proficiency, it is important to examine both free and controlled production.

2016). In the case of Spanish higher education, such a hypothesis relates to the emphasis of the Spanish curriculum on promoting students' digital competence and ICT literacy (Spante et al., 2018). This emphasis results from global concerns to guide young Internet users in their use of digital platforms, which materialised in the establishment of digital competence as one of the key competencies recognised by the Council of the European Union in May 2018.

The extended digitalisation of society has required schools to develop "strategies to support the digital competences needed for providing high quality teaching and learning" (Pettersson, 2018, p. 1006). In this sense, language teaching seems to be an educational area considerably inclined towards computer-mediated communication or CMC (Ihnatova et al., 2021). Because of this, introducing digital platforms in the EFL classroom would require educators to become digitally competent to choose digital teaching materials appropriately (Johannesen et al., 2014). Therefore, in the understanding of digital competence as "the set of knowledge, skills, attitudes, abilities, strategies and awareness that are required when using ICT . . . and digital media" (Ferrari et al., 2012, p. 84), both teachers and students need to become acquainted with the theoretical perspectives related to CMC, such as digital discourse (Barton & Lee, 2013; Herring, 2019), multimodality (Page, 2009; Jewitt et al., 2016), or hyperlinks (Vaughan, 2016; Wood & Smith, 2004).

Because of students' recurrent use of digital platforms, some studies have examined social media applications within the classroom context (Lambton-Howard et al., 2021; Selwyn & Stirling, 2016). One of the platforms considered in this sense is Twitter,[3] a microblogging service launched in 2006 in which users interact with each other by posting 280-maximum-character messages called *tweets*. Apart from its educational potential (Denker et al., 2018), Twitter "has integrated itself into [other] important domains of social life such as journalism, public communication, politics and activism" (Zappavigna, 2017, p. 206). One of these specific domains is that of science dissemination: the process of distributing scientific specialised knowledge within a non-specialised context, for which Twitter has recently functioned as a means for the global transfer of information and the sharing of academic publications and papers via hyperlinks (Ortega, 2017; Paradis et al., 2020). Within science dissemination, there exists a plethora of research concerned with the diffusion of findings related to biological and environmental issues (Giannarakis et al., 2016; Scott, 2000), a field in which social media play a crucial role in "alerting people about environmental damages, corporate failure to meet its legal obligations, truthful analysis of new legislations and steps for protection and preservation of environments" (Kushwaha, 2015, p. 1). Such awareness constitutes a crucial element in present-day educational policies, given their alignment with the Sustainable Development Goals of the Agenda 2030 (2015) proposed in the UN 2015 New York Summit in which a world of equality, justice, and non-discrimination was envisaged (Agirreazkuenaga, 2020).

Within this scenario of teaching and learning English, two research questions guide this inquiry:

- RQ1: How do Twitter features and affordances in the context of science dissemination relate to curricular requirements regarding EFL teaching?
- RQ2: How could the Twitter features used for science dissemination be applied in an EFL context to promote students' communicative competence and L2 acquisition while

3 In October 2022, the microblogging platform was purchased by the South African entrepreneur Elon Musk, under whose ownership the platform has been subject to several functional and layout changes. One of the most significant modifications is renaming the platform into "X"; thus, tweets are now called "posts". However, I decided to keep the terms "Twitter" and "tweet(s)" in this paper, considering that both the corpus gathered and analyses carried out date back to the first semester of 2022, that is, before any relevant change in the platform had been implemented.

responding to curricular demands on integral development?

To answer these research questions, this paper first explores the connection between using science dissemination tweets for EFL teaching and learning and fostering students' integral development. After this, it examines the potential the tweets have to foster reading and writing skills, specifically focusing on vocabulary and grammar. Finally, it studies their functionality to foster students' multimodal awareness and the integrated practice of linguistic skills.

Method

This paper is the second part of a two-fold analysis. In the first part of such analysis, a closed number of science dissemination tweets was set as the object of a generic analysis identifying the characteristics of science dissemination tweets. In the second part, which is the object of the present study, an analysis of the potential of tweets from a pedagogical point of view is undertaken following two criteria. First, I analysed the connection between the content in the tweets and the key competencies for lifelong learning established by the European Council and adopted in the Aragonese curriculum. It was considered whether the topics addressed and the (verbal or visual) form in which they were presented could be used to practice any key competencies. Second, the hyperlinks and linguistic and multimodal features identified in the generic analysis contrasted with the compulsory content items that, according to the Aragonese curriculum, must be taught each academic year to develop each language skill (listening, reading, speaking, and writing). Thus, I manually checked whether each generic feature identified fell into one or many curricular content items for the four secondary school years.

The choice of tweets as the object of analysis was motivated by the fact that, nowadays, younger generations are often qualified as digital natives (Palfrey & Gasser, 2011). The focus on science dissemination within Twitter was due to the primal importance given in the European educational field to scientific topics, in general, and environmental issues, in particular, given the connection of educational plans with Sustainable Development Goals 11, 13, 14, 15, and 17 of the Agenda 2030 promoted by the United Nations. In this line, to explore the use of Twitter in the EFL classroom, I selected two international accounts that address environmental issues and use English as the primary language for their international publications: the accounts of the international non-governmental organisation World Wildlife Fund (@WWF) and the global campaigning corporation network Greenpeace (@Greenpeace). Despite their thematic similarities, these organisations implement considerably different tactics to address environmental issues. While Greenpeace—founded in 1971—primarily operates as a denouncing campaigner independent from companies' actions, WWF—founded in 1961—tends to work alongside companies to fight the environmental crisis.

Selection of the Corpus

Regarding selection methodology, 100 tweets were manually gathered by taking screenshots from a computer. As my interest was to focus on two specific Twitter accounts in a certain period, I manually selected 50 tweets per account following numerical and chronological criteria. The compilation of tweets started on February 16th, 2022, and the tweets were collected, going backwards in time until the set number was reached. The combination of chronological and numerical criteria catered for the significant difference in publication frequency between both accounts: While the timespan of WWF's selected tweets goes from January 1st to February 16th, Greenpeace's only covers from February 11th to February 16th. All tweets were extracted from the section "Tweets and replies," excluding retweets to focus on Twitter content specifically produced by the accounts.

Results and Discussion

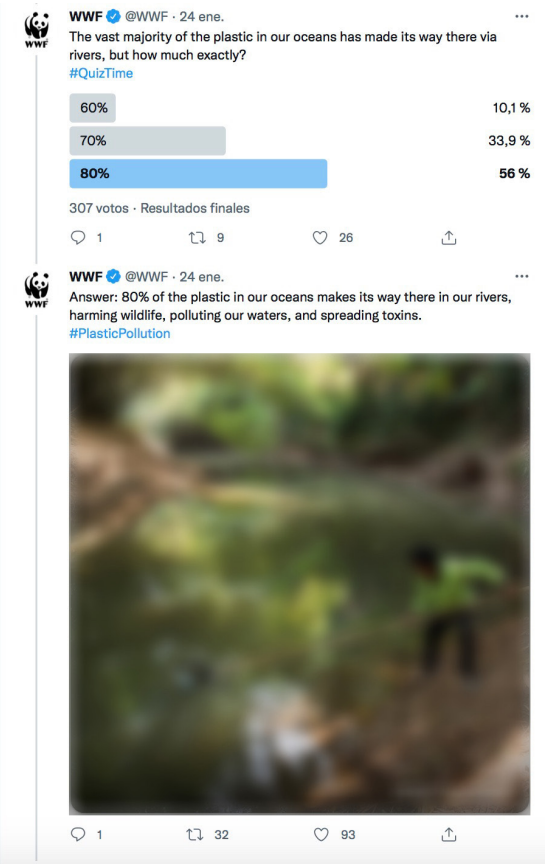
The findings gathered in the previous generic analysis of tweets for science dissemination led to insights regarding the exploitation of the corpus for EFL teaching and learning in the context of Spanish secondary education. Such insights and their implications conform to this section, divided into four subsections that present four possible ways of exploiting the corpus: (a) to foster students' integral development, (b) to teach written comprehension and production, (c) to teach vocabulary and grammar, and (d) to practice integrated skills using multimodality.

Fostering Students' Integral Development

The generic analysis of the corpus (Sancho-Ortiz, 2022) resulted in this paper by opening up the possibility of exploring the potential applications of science dissemination tweets in EFL teaching and learning. One of the critical aspects identified in that generic analysis is the constant address of environmental and social issues. This somehow relates to a growing interest in the European context in renovating environmental policies and the resulting effort in the educational community to make students aware of the importance of their role in the environmental crisis (Bayrhuber & Mayer, 2000). The promotion of students' awareness as regards globally relevant issues can also be linked with another policy change experienced in the educational field: the formulation of the key competencies recognised by the European Council in May 2018 and the 21st-century skills established in the KSAVE (Knowledge, Skills, Attitudes, Values, and Ethics) model (Binkley et al., 2012). The key competencies and students' awareness of global responsibility are fundamental to their development as competent human beings. Under this premise, and considering the topics addressed in the tweets gathered, the first insight in this paper shows that EFL teachers can take the corpus as a productive source of material through which to promote students' development of 21st-century skills and key competencies advocated for in new European educational policies—also considered as crucial educational requirements in the Aragonese curriculum within the Spanish framework.

Among the different competencies to foster, the most apparent connection in content comes with developing mathematical and scientific competence, as students may need to interpret scientific data and terminology from environmental issues. For such interpretation, students must uphold a critical analytical position, believed to be the essence of critical thinking, one of the skills included in the KSAVE model. See, for instance, Figure 1. Based on this image, students could be asked to reflect on the tweet's statistical data (percentages) and hypothesise the reasons behind the amount of plastic reaching the ocean through rivers.

Figure 1. WWF's Tweet about Plastic Pollution



Apart from the mathematical competence, reflecting on the origin of a specific environmental problem—such as plastic pollution in Figure 1—could enhance students' entrepreneurship competence, as they could be asked to devise solutions for such issues. This would require them to be creative and innovative, two skills of the KSAVE model that constitute entrepreneurship competence. Another connection is that to achieve their science dissemination purposes and promote active participation in their causes; the two accounts emphasise the sense of belonging to a global community, which establishes links with socio-civic competence and the sense of citizenship and social responsibility of the KSAVE model. Moreover, all these reflective tasks would become efficient means to both promote the linguistic communication competence—inherent in any English course—and introduce a communicative approach to English teaching, as students would be focusing on negotiating meaning rather than on merely learning grammatical aspects (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). Similarly, using authentic data in a digital format (tweets) in a classroom context entails that students would work on their digital competence and the use of ICTs by learning to find, critically analyse, and process information through a digital platform such as Twitter—all of which is given considerable relevance within the KSAVE model (Binkley et al., 2012).

In addition to connecting with key curricular competencies and 21st-century skills, science dissemination tweets may have further applications, such as addressing identity issues related to the social and personal development of the learner. The generic analysis of the corpus (Sancho-Ortiz, 2022) demonstrates that, despite their scientific and, therefore, theoretically neutral nature, the WWF and Greenpeace accounts sacrifice scientific objectivity in their tweets to embody their corporative principles and raise environmental issues to public knowledge. In this way, they gain support and active participation from their audience. By pointing to these objectivity alterations in the classroom, teachers could make students face biased or intentionally charged texts so that they understand, first, that not everything they read online is necessarily true and, second, how the stance of the author determines the way readers perceive information, that is, understand the pragmatic dimension of the communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Similarly, science dissemination tweets could promote students' reflection on their use of social media, including creating an online identity and the reliability of information. This would entail designing teacher-guided activities considering the age limitation of the platform—above 13 years old—to gradually introduce students to the dynamics of online communication while highlighting the risks of consuming biased content, contacting malicious users, or posting personal content to an audience of millions. The issue of beyond-the-text meaning found in online discourse relates to this paper's second insight: the potential of science dissemination tweets to teach written comprehension and production.

Teaching Written Comprehension and Production

The second insight derives from the connection between the processes undergone by EFL students and Twitter users when consuming and producing texts. Concerning text consumption, a similarity has been found regarding the pre-reading requirements faced by students and Twitter users and the resulting impact that these have in choosing specific reading skills to decode texts. In the same way that Twitter users have a clear purpose before they choose a tweet to read—seeking specific information, acquiring general knowledge, or being entertained (Zhang & Duke, 2008) —EFL learners need a clearly stated purpose to succeed in reading tasks (Knutson, 1997). Having been shown that "purpose affects the reader's motivation, interest, and manner of reading" (Knutson, 1997, p. 49), bringing Twitter into the classroom context could make students realise that the goal-oriented selecting process they go through as

social media users is precisely the same procedure they need to follow as L2 learners in their reading tasks. Another aspect in which Twitter users and L2 students coincide is their need to identify the author's stance to avoid biased content—in the case of Twitter users—and successfully understand a text—as for L2 learners. In this context, science dissemination tweets could be handy tools to evidence the importance of an authorial stance. This results from the fact that taking advantage of the semiotic nature of Twitter (Zappavigna, 2017), the WWF and Greenpeace accounts consciously exploit multimodality to engage the intended audience in their denouncing and informative messages and reach their disseminating purposes more easily (Sancho-Ortiz, 2022). For example, Figures 2 and 3 could be shown to students to demonstrate that both the WWF and the Greenpeace accounts resort to the first-person plural ("our" or "we") and emoticons (sad face and clapping hands) to stress the need for urgent global cooperation, and thus, make their audience feel directly involved in the issues addressed.

Figure 2. WWF's Tweet on Deforestation

Considering the similarities concerning written comprehension, it could be argued that bringing into the classroom those reading practices that EFL students typically carry out outside—such as consuming tweets—could teach them how to read more comprehensively and become competent internet users. This latter idea of educating competent users relates to the curricular requirement of fostering students' digital competence by teaching them how to filter information in the digital net. This translates into making students aware, first, of their exploitation of digital affordances such as hashtags as information sources and, second, of the risks of not using these digital means critically, thus contributing to developing critical thinking skills.

Figure 3. Greenpeace's Tweet About Ocean Protection

Apart from the similarities regarding reading, a parallelism has been found in the steps followed by Twitter users and EFL learners to produce texts.

Within the last decades, the context of EFL teaching has experienced significant changes as regards the conception of writing proficiency (Hasan & Akhand, 2010). These changes primarily derive from a shift from evaluating writing as a product to conceiving it as a process (Brown & Lee, 2015) subdivided into five phases—pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing (McKensie & Tomkins, 1984)—which, to a certain extent, coincide with the steps official accounts in Twitter are expected to follow when posting a tweet. In this sense, both L2 students who are instructed in the process-writing approach and the users of official Twitter accounts have a pre-writing stage in which they plan the topic they will address in their writing and consider the resources available to do so. Similarly, Twitter could enhance the importance of the drafting, revising, and editing stages, as the platform allows users to save their messages as drafts and edit them as many times as needed before sharing them. Therefore, students could replicate these steps when composing a text in the L2 and posting a tweet. Such imitation practice would also prove the significance of publishing as a necessary stage by demonstrating to students that, in essence, every text is written to be published—either through a social networking site where it is shared with an audience of millions or in an English classroom, where the teachers and classmates become the audience.

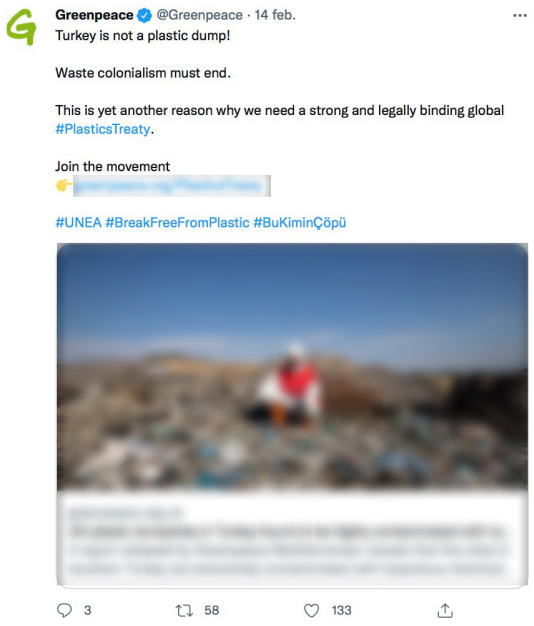
Adding up to their potential to enhance the importance of conceiving writing as a process, science dissemination tweets could be used to provide students with guided opportunities for output production—one of the core principles of SLA (Ellis & Shintani, 2014) and CLT (Brown & Lee, 2015; Lightbown, 2003). In this context, the tweets could function as a model or WAGOLL (What a Good One Looks Like) for scaffolding to facilitate students' task of crafting their tweets. By doing this, students would understand that regardless of the apparent informality of a text and as claimed in genre theory (Bhatia, 1993), every text belongs to a specific genre and, as such, presents a series of generic features that define it. Moreover, by analysing and producing tweets, students would practice their multimodal competence and become aware of mode convergence's implications when making meaning, an aspect of digital literacy essential for present-day communication (Kalantzis & Cope, 2015).

Teaching Vocabulary and Grammar

The connection between the real-life content of the tweets and the topics addressed in an EFL classroom not only allows teachers to foster key competencies and 21st-century skills but also makes the tweets an enriching source of authentic L2 materials to teach vocabulary and grammar. Exposure to authentic L2 input constitutes one of the core principles of CLT and SLA, for it adds to the establishment of meaning and real-life communication aims as the basis of the learning process (Richards, 2006). Knowing this, Twitter could be considered a specifically productive source of vocabulary items because its constantly updated content presents unlimited examples of useful vocabulary (Sancho-Ortiz, 2022). In the case of science dissemination tweets, these texts' scientific and specialised nature endows their vocabulary with a certain degree of complexity that might be difficult to handle at certain educational stages. However, as tweets primarily aim to disseminate knowledge, it is taken for granted that their authors will try to adapt the register and complexity of their explanations to the knowledge of their non-specialised audience, facilitating the decoding and inferring processes students undergo to understand the L2 message. Apart from this, the generic analysis of the corpus shows that most tweets are examples of multimodal ensembles that include images and emojis whose function is to rephrase textual meaning. Such a multimodal nature might also simplify the decoding process as learners could rely on the visual mode to understand the meaning of specific words. This is only plausible when vocabulary appears in a specific context, a highly recommendable strategy when teaching vocabulary (Brown & Lee, 2015). For

example, in Figure 4, the photo of a person in a location full of plastic waste is included to ensure the reader understands the meaning of the sentence "Turkey is not a plastic dump!"

Figure 4. Greenpeace's Tweet About Plastic Dumpsites



By relying on images to infer meaning, students would be working on their visual literacy while practising pre-reading strategies and complying with the requirements of CLT: They will be both focusing on meaning negotiation (Ellis & Shintani, 2014) and avoiding literal translation, a learning practise generally used in traditional methodologies which at times is believed to hinder students' reasoning process (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). In the same way that seeing lexical items in an authentic context of use can facilitate learning for L2 students, exposure to various actual grammar forms can allow them to understand the abstract theoretical notions explained in the classroom regarding the function and formation of verbal tenses. In the case of the scientific dissemination tweets, the generic analysis demonstrated a predominance of verbs in the indicative mood, mainly present and past tense. Thus, this type of tweet could explain the differences between and functions of such verbal forms. Thereby, students could be asked to reason why these scientific texts use present tenses and the implications this has as regards objectivity. This reasoning process would relate to the development of scientific competence.

Teaching Multimodal Awareness: A Means to Practice Integrated Skills

The presentation of grammar and vocabulary in context is not the only issue related to analysing English teaching and learning materials. Indeed, many studies (Hanifa, 2018; Rodrigues, 2015) have examined the role of textbooks in teaching and learning dynamics and the possible risks of using them ineffectively. In this sense, the last insight in the present paper shows the resemblance between the design of textbooks as inherently multimodal teaching tools and science dissemination tweets as texts with conscious exploitation of multimodality to make meaning (Sancho-Ortiz, 2022). In the last decades, there has been an increase in the use of visual images in English textbooks (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2021) and a change in the conception of written pages as visual rather than verbal units (Bezemer & Kress, 2010), which have allowed for the potential of textbooks' multimodal nature to be considered within the teaching context (Mushtaq et al., 2022). Despite this preference for multimodal designs and the belief of some that textbooks are fundamental elements in language teaching (e.g., Cunningsworth, 1995), textbooks might be perceived as inefficient material sources that fail to consider the complexity of language learning and the heterogeneity of students' individual needs (Allwright, 1981). Hence, introducing innovative materials extracted from multimodal digital platforms and designing tasks oriented to enhance students' multimodal awareness and literacies (Kalantzis & Cope, 2015) seem to be effective solutions to the inconveniences of textbooks. This would entail taking students' self-taught ICT competencies,

which derive from their knowledge of social media and networking sites, as the initial step to developing linguistic competence.

Concerning the functionality of the science dissemination tweets to teach multimodal awareness, the corpus analysis (Sancho-Ortiz, 2022) proves that the WWF and Greenpeace accounts conveniently use mode convergence to reach their disseminating purposes. Accordingly, to practice multimodal awareness, students could be required to identify the reason why each tweet introduces specific visual elements (e.g., emojis), specialised scientific terms (e.g., "plastic pollution"), or a precise organisation of content in different paragraphs. Asking students to analyse aspects such as the choice of vocabulary (verbal mode), images (visual mode), or a specific layout (spatial mode) would allow them to reflect on the purpose behind mode convergence and become aware of the importance of identifying multimodal patterns when consuming online content.

When approached from the perspective of multiliteracies, the examples of multimodality found in science dissemination tweets can also serve to practise integrated skills in the EFL classroom. Understanding that learners make and process meaning in different modes, languages, and discourses (Kalantzis & Cope, 2015) entails that they should be confronted with a wider variety of communication forms than those offered in traditional textbooks. This will allow lessons to comply more easily with the CLT tenet of integrated skills since, through digital multimodal texts, students would be exposed to varied meaning-making modes. For example, the previous generic analysis of the corpus shows that many tweets contain images or emojis that reinforce the verbal message and, thus, can be used to teach vocabulary. These same visual elements can also promote discussion activities about the design of such images or the topics addressed, fostering both speaking and the development of students' visual literacy.

Similarly, given the interactive nature of the platform, students could simultaneously practice reading and writing by being asked to craft their responses to the tweets as if they were Twitter users. For such writing, they would have to consider the platform's affordances (e.g., character constraint or the use of hashtags), so they would work on their digital competence while exploring generic conventions. Figure 5 is an example of a tweet that may be used for a reading-writing activity: Students would have to first read the tweet's content and the video and then write their own tweet about their city, arguing whether it is plastic smart or not.

Figure 5. WWF's Tweet on Plastic Smart Cities

In the case of Figure 5, the video included has no sound and, therefore, could not be specifically used to practice listening skills. However, many other tweets containing videos with music and oral explanations could become the object of listening activities. Students could be asked to watch the video and orally comment on it to practise listening and speaking or to answer a series of written questions about the clip to practice writing. Apart from this, as multimodal ensembles themselves, some videos also contain examples of the gestural mode, which express significant paralinguistic meanings that students need to be aware of according to curricular demands. Similarly, these videos make very innovative use of spacing and visual elements such as colours, as in Figure 5, in which WWF probably avoids

placing the message in the middle of the image to give prominence to the picture of the earth. In the case of this tweet, to work on their visual and digital literacies, students would have to reflect on the choice of yellow as the colour for input enhancement, the realism of the earth image, and the way light and shade are used to direct the viewer's attention to the verbal and visual elements.

Not only is the multimodal format of science dissemination tweets advantageous for students in their practice of integrated skills but also for teachers in their need to adapt to students' individual needs. In this sense, there exists a parallel between the way science dissemination Twitter accounts (@WWF and @Greenpeace) use mode convergence to reach a heterogenous audience as broad as possible and the way teachers resort to varied materials containing different semiotic modes to respond to their students' learning styles and needs. Although, as has been previously said, textbooks do rely on mode convergence to facilitate learning, one single tweet can contain the same information expressed—and sometimes extended—in (multimodal) ways that students are more accustomed to consuming. This can be seen in Figure 5, where the information in the hashtag #StopPlasticPollution is rephrased through the stop sign and water glass emoji. Tweets seem likely to provide teachers with diverse ideas to address specific topics according to major learning styles. These include designing tasks based on producing tweets for kinaesthetic learners, listening activities with videos for auditory learners, and analysing visual elements for visual learners.

The visual layout of tweets can also serve to design activities for students with specific educational needs (SEN). For instance, the paraphrasing function of emoji (Figure 5) might allow students with autism spectrum disorder to learn the meaning of certain words more easily, given their enhanced visual processing abilities (Alnemr, 2022). Similarly, by presenting input in different formats (e.g., visually synthesising images as the plastic dump in Figure 4) and using short-length tweets, students with language-related disabilities, such as developmental language disorder and dyslexia, would better understand complex abstract notions (e.g., plastic pollution). The multimodal dynamism characterising tweets can thus be a productive means to enhance students' multimodal awareness and visual literacy, facilitate integrated skills practice, and adapt materials to students' needs.

Overall, science dissemination tweets seem to be highly productive in EFL teaching and learning as they provide students with authentic and updated materials to enhance their communicative competence. Not only does the content and digital format of the tweets allow for students' personal development—which includes the acquisition of key competencies and 21st-century skills—but it also facilitates the understanding of formal linguistic aspects (vocabulary and grammar) and the practice of communicative skills (either relying on multimodal elements or focusing on individual skills such as reading or writing).

Conclusions

The English teaching and learning scenario has experienced several changes in the last decades, favouring innovative sources for teaching materials, such as social networking platforms. Bearing this in mind, this study has analysed whether science dissemination Twitter accounts could be used as English teaching and learning tools in the present-day EFL context. One specific aspect observed in this analysis is the utility of these accounts as a means for students to explore the pragmatic and sociolinguistic dimensions of online communication and fully develop their communicative competence. This paper has proved that not only does this type of text facilitate the acquisition of students' communicative competence by providing them with opportunities to practice varied linguistic skills using authentic materials, but it also enhances their personal development given the digital format of the tweets and

the global and transversal nature of the environmental topics addressed in them. The introduction of these tweets in the EFL classroom, thus, contributes to the overall purpose of education, that is, to make students competent and civic citizens of the world, as working with these posts requires them first to learn how to be critical users of a digital platform, and second, become aware of their role in hindering the consequences of climate change.

This paper has also shown that the multimodal nature of science dissemination tweets plays a fundamental role in promoting students' communicative competence as it allows them to practice communicative skills in an integrated manner. Similarly, the consideration of digital multimodal texts (tweets) from a pedagogical perspective shows how working on mode convergence in the EFL classroom could entail the dismantlement of the assumption that teaching a language is a purely linguistic phenomenon. This involves considering and making students reflect on how different modes (namely the verbal and visual) are used in this—and other—digital platforms to compensate for the limitations of online communication (e.g., character constraints or the absence of instant feedback). Fostering multimodal awareness would also entail addressing students' multiliteracies, as this awareness serves as a means to introduce students to the multiplicity of communication channels found in present-day communication and the integration of diverse cultural perspectives seen in the broad scope of social media audiences. Apart from this, despite some slight considerations introduced in this paper, it is yet to be further explored in greater detail how the multimodal nature of Twitter might or might not be adequately effective for EFL teaching to students with SEN.

In all, this study has proved that science dissemination tweets can be productively exploited to teach and learn English as they open up the possibility to work on crucial 21st-century skills such as digital literacy and multimodal competence, in which students will need to be fully competent by the end of their learning process to face their professional future. Thus, it contributes to making students understand that mastering a language requires dealing not only with textual information but also with the contextual and paralinguistic aspects that interrelate in any communicative situation. For further research, it would be interesting to consider how Twitter (or other social media) users exploit online discourse and digital media to deal with other topics outside the context of science dissemination. Moreover, whether these topics should or should not be brought into the EFL classroom to facilitate students' acquisition process will also need to be discussed.

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Colombian University Students' Experiences as Users of the English Language During International Mobility

Estudiantes universitarios colombianos como hablantes de la lengua inglesa durante una movilidad internacional

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This exploratory case study analyzes Colombian university students' experiences as English users during international mobility. Data collected through surveys and interviews were examined based on content analysis and principles of grounded theory. The students' self-perceived English proficiency and communicative performance before and during international mobility were analyzed, while challenging areas were identified. The results evidence that mobility students have insufficient levels of English proficiency to engage in academic and social activities due to inadequate production skills and a lack of practice. The students also perceive university academic English opportunities for practice as basic, and they underutilize practice spaces. Nonetheless, they highlight that active engagement in autonomous language exposure and developed interpersonal skills positively impact their perception of language performance.

Keywords: autonomous learning, communicative competence, English language proficiency, soft skills, student international mobility

Este estudio de caso se centró en las experiencias de estudiantes universitarios colombianos, como hablantes del inglés, durante una movilidad internacional. Se recolectó información mediante encuestas y entrevistas, y se examinó siguiendo los principios de análisis de contenido y teoría fundamentada. Se identificaron las percepciones de los estudiantes respecto a su nivel de lengua antes y durante la movilidad, así como áreas problemáticas. Los resultados indican las dificultades para desenvolverse en entornos académicos y sociales debido a bajos niveles en habilidades comunicativas y práctica escasa. Los estudiantes perciben que la oferta académica en inglés es básica y que no se aprovechan los espacios de práctica. No obstante, la exposición autónoma a la lengua y el desarrollo de habilidades interpersonales impacta positivamente la percepción de competencia respecto al uso del idioma.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje autónomo, competencias comunicativas, dominio del inglés, habilidades interpersonales, movilidad internacional

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Introduction

Internationalization of higher education is "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, and global dimension into the purpose, functions, and delivery of higher education at the institutional and national levels" (Knight, 2008, p. 11). Internationalization strategies encompass international cooperation through agreements and networks; integrating an international and intercultural dimension into teaching, learning, and research; and promoting academic mobility. It also involves facilitating initiatives such as student exchange programs and semesters abroad, implementing double-degree programs, and establishing twinning partnerships. Among them, international student academic mobility has become one of the most assessed elements of internationalization.

Efforts have been made to boost mobility through assorted programs and platforms by governments, international cooperation agencies, and networks of higher education institutions (Echeverría & LaFont, 2017). Colombian government strategies for the internationalization of higher education play a major role in economic and diplomatic openness, which has resulted in a more favorable perception of Colombia at an international level (Valderrama Alvarado & Herrera Grajales, 2015). Therefore, it has become increasingly important for higher education institutions to foster student internationalization because it enhances integral formation; multicultural competencies; and personal, academic, and professional skills.

Whereas the Colombian government strategically propels internationalization through economic and diplomatic openness, it stresses the importance of English proficiency as an indispensable tool for effective communication and engagement on the global stage. In higher education, many students opt for international mobility in English-speaking countries or countries where English, although not being the native language, is essential for academic affairs.

The Universidad Nacional de Colombia (UNAL) is a renowned public university. One of its established goals is to foster internationalization and to look for opportunities for the university community to pursue education abroad. Hence, student international mobility has been pointedly promoted, and students perceive mobility as an option for their academic, professional, and personal development. Hand in hand with the promotion of international mobility, the University offers English language practice opportunities for its whole community. Introductory English courses, part of the Foreign Language program, are provided to help students achieve a B1 level—based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). At the Bogotá campus, students can benefit from the intensive English program, a language training course designed to strengthen communicative competence. In addition, English practice spaces such as English conversation clubs, immersion sessions, conversational-oriented sessions, and online English courses with foreign institutions are available for students.

Nevertheless, the students' language proficiency is not what is expected. Although many are proficient—mainly in reading skills—the majority have weaknesses in speaking and writing. This situation seriously limits internationalization processes (Vicerrectoría de Investigación UNAL, 2011). The reasons for a low level of the language are diverse. According to Barrero (2021), the motivation behind learning English among students tends to be instrumental and driven by external or practical necessities, such as fulfilling a language or job requirement. Barrero also notes the influence of past experiences on students' perceptions of the language, with English being described as "difficult."

Barrero's (2021) study aligns with the objectives of this research because students recognize their weaknesses in communicative competence, and, as we have mentioned, this may potentially impact their engagement in internationalization processes. This study

analyzes students' experiences as English users during international mobility. The objectives are:

1. To contrast the participants' perceptions of English proficiency before and during mobility.
2. To identify challenging areas of improvement in language competence.
3. To propose targeted solutions to address mobility students' linguistic needs before participating in mobility programs.

This study holds relevance in the Colombian context, where higher education institutions promote internationalization and face challenges regarding English language proficiency for successful global and professional engagement. At UNAL, the gap in students' level (particularly productive skills) needs to be addressed, specifically, the disparity between expected and actual language proficiency levels. This research aims to analyze how students perceive their performance in English during international mobility, where the language is taken out of the classroom to be used in real-life situations. The challenging areas revolving around language competence shed light on what has to be done to improve the experiences of future mobility students. It seeks to find improvements that enhance language skills and prepare upcoming mobility participants for the demands of international academic engagement.

Literature Review

This section deals with three issues: (a) English as a foreign language (EFL) in student international mobility, (b) language proficiency and communicative competence within Colombian higher education, and (c) success factors for international mobility. The lack of competence in the language impacts students' experiences, whereas the reports on English proficiency in Colombia reveal unfavorable outcomes. Lastly, factors contributing significantly to enhancing the experience and benefits of international mobility, such as soft skills development, are tackled.

English as a Foreign Language in Student International Mobility

As much as mobility grants a tremendous benefit for students, it also demands preparation to communicate in the academic and cultural spaces in the destination country to profit fully from the benefits of the exchange. As highlighted by Adriansen et al. (2022), English is a global lingua franca that is relevant in higher education internationalization and student mobility because it vanishes "the blurred boundaries between nation-statist understandings of language and culture" (p. 3). Universities in diverse countries—even those whose native language is not English—offer academic programs for internationalization taught in English, ensuring the participation of people from different corners of the world.

Corbella and Marcos (2020) claim that, at the university level in Chile, only a few students about to go into international mobility programs possess the linguistics competence necessary to partake in the international experience, which requires comprehension and a high level of language meaning abstraction. Likewise, Ortellado Mendoza (2019) concludes that mobility students from a university in Paraguay do not feel competent with the English language classes they receive in higher education. He also exposes the obstacle that the lack of the English language represents in a mobility experience, given that English works as an "internationalization linkage" (p. 64). Echeverría and LaFont (2017) assert that low English levels pose a latent obstacle to incoming and outgoing academic mobility for Colombian students due to a general lack of English proficiency. They assure that, in Colombia, the low level of English is a drawback when talking about internationalization. A high level of proficiency means an advantage for mobility students; therefore, universities

must grant students opportunities to enhance those levels in the internationalization framework.

Language Proficiency and Communicative Competence in Colombian Higher Education

Language proficiency refers to the ability to use language effectively and accurately. Communicative competence means using appropriate and effective language in specific social contexts and real-life situations. Whereas language proficiency deals with the speaker's level of language skills, communicative competence addresses the ability to use those skills in real-life communicative situations. High proficiency in a language does not imply high communicative competence. One speaker might be proficient yet unable to communicate in a specific context, such as a job interview or a casual conversation with friends, due to a lack of understanding of social norms and expectations. Communicative competence includes not only grammatical competence—or knowledge of the rules of grammar—but also contextual or sociolinguistic competence—knowledge of the rules of language use (Campbell & Wales, 1970; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972).

Colombia's greatest obstacle in terms of EFL teaching is to boost students' English level. Because of this, the Colombian Ministry of Education (MEN) has set English proficiency goals for students to achieve. High school graduates are expected to attain a B1 level (based on the CEFR), undergraduates should meet a B2 level, and graduates in languages-related fields must reach a C1 level (MEN, 2006). These goals and the programs implemented to achieve them have been of little improvement in English-level results.

The 2022 national *Saber 11*[1] results show that the population evaluated has difficulties in attaining the knowledge and skills of the required performance levels (B1 and B+) in English: "At the national level and for the population of urban schools, around 70% are at the lowest levels (A- and A1)" (Instituto Colombiano para la Evaluación de la Educación, Icfes, 2023, p. 22). The population evidences a basic command of the language to understand simple sentences or produce simple, coherent texts in English. At the end of higher-education studies, a similar situation is found. The national report of the *Saber Pro*[2] 2020 shows that 68% of the total population evaluated were placed in the lower levels: A-, A1, and A2. The remaining 32% corresponds to B1 or B2 performance levels (Icfes, 2021). As noted, the level students have by the end of middle school contrasted with the one students have by the end of higher education does not increase drastically or considerably.

More recently, the Laboratory of Economics of Education of the Pontificia Universidad Javeriana (2023) reports that in 2021, *Saber 11* test participants were ranked at the lowest level of performance in English. In Latin America, Colombia was ranked 17 out of 20. Besides, relevant differences between the English level in regions and cities of the country indicate that besides the problem of low English proficiency in comparison with other countries, there are also gaps in different Colombian territories that constitute obstacles within the country.

Similarly, other scholars have examined the implications for Colombian higher education and international mobility. Benavides (2021) concludes that a significant percentage of university students in Colombia still fail to reach a B1 level of the CEFR by the end of their academic programs. This percentage decreased from 25% in 2007 to 20% in 2017. In other words, there has not been a significant improvement in English proficiency over ten years in Colombia,

1 The High School State Exam, *Saber 11*, is a standardized evaluation instrument that measures the quality of formal education provided to high school graduates.

2 The State Examination of the Quality of Higher Education, *Saber Pro*, is a standardized evaluation instrument for measuring the quality of higher education that evaluates the competencies of students close to completing undergraduate programs..

regardless of the numerous strategies and programs implemented (Bastidas Muñoz, 2021). In connection to this, Gómez Sará (2017) claims a need for more suitable methods for English teaching where local conditions such as class size, available materials, the use of the target language in daily life, and other characteristics of the diverse student population are under consideration.

López Naranjo and Sellamen Garzón (2019) highlight the relevance of analyzing the implications of English language proficiency in the university population who will enter the competitive and demanding labor market in a globalized and internationalized world. Students planning to participate in international mobility programs find the considerable language barrier posed by low proficiency levels that may hinder their ability to benefit from the mobility experience fully. This gap could lead to missed opportunities and diminished advantages during international mobility experiences.

Success Factors for International Mobility

Successful international mobility experiences are embroidered with a series of conditions that enhance the benefits of the journey. Tsai et al. (2020) explore the key success factors for international mobility (see Table 1).

Table 1. List of the Average of Key Success Factors for International Mobility of College Students (Tsai et al., 2020, p. 414)

Facets	Title
International language proficiency	• Fluent international language or verbal skills • Proficiency in reading and writing in international languages • Transmitting precise and clear messages in international languages
Environmental adaptability	• Ability to adjust to living overseas • Psychological adjustment ability • Adaptability for work/study abroad • Personality traits for environmental adjustment ability
Global perspective	• Global attention to new knowledge and dynamics • Cross-cultural thinking • Multicultural tolerance or acceptance
Challenge and adventure	• Willingness to try or experience new matters • The courage to challenge difficult tasks • Being unafraid of risk or failure

As noted, proficiency in the English language and communicative competence that enable communication in varied contextual situations in heterogeneous cultural spaces are at the top of this list. Appropriate expression in oral and written texts and comprehension of messages, announcements, signals, or texts—according to the sociolinguistic and pragmatic norms—enrich the student's perception of comfort and performance. Likewise, developed productive and receptive skills permit engagement within the academic and informal environment of a foreign institution and a foreign country. Hence, achieving a high linguistic level before mobility boosts students' confidence to participate in social and academic activities.

On the other hand, adaptability for work/study abroad and personality traits for environmental adjustment ability play a major role in mobility success. In other words, highly developed soft or interpersonal

skills are essential for international mobility students. Aligned with Roy et al. (2019), the performance and experience during international mobility will inevitably affect employment or career benefits in the long term. Establishing international connections and teamwork with people from different places, ages, and mindsets is paramount to broadening professional horizons. Interpersonal skills materialize here. Marked interpersonal abilities such as effective, clear, and concise communication; teamwork; leadership; and adaptability separate good from better when developing academic activities in a foreign country. Potts (2015) concludes that the benefits of international mobility, such as higher employability, are possible thanks to improved interpersonal communication, teamwork, problem-solving, and analytical skills during international mobility.

Method

This exploratory case study aims to investigate and understand the participants' meanings, perspectives, and experiences. In line with Tellis (1997), a case study delves deeply into the experiences, phenomena, or issues of a person or group of people oriented to gather rich and detailed information. As stated by Creswell (2006), this investigation involves the examination of an issue through one or more cases using comprehensive data collection and emphasis on case-specific topics or themes. Likewise, this study aligns with the collective case study, where multiple cases are investigated to address a shared issue.

Sampling and Participants

Based on the guidelines provided by Pérez-Luco et al. (2017), we employed a purposive sampling of typical cases; thus, we focused on intentional cases that were considered representative of the typical characteristics, traits, or attributes under investigation. The selection of participants followed pre-established criteria: (a) students or graduates from any campus or program at UNAL, and (b) having participated in an international mobility program where English played a significant role.

Sixty-nine participants answered a survey (four of them were interviewed). There were 36 (52.2%) undergraduate, 19 (27.5%) postgraduate, and 14 (29.3%) graduate students from the UNAL who took part in international exchanges to English-speaking and non-English speaking countries where English was relevant to their academic and social activities. As for geographical location, participants belonged to three campuses of the University: Bogotá (78.3%), Medellín (20.3%), and Manizales (1.4%). The mobility destinations reported included Austria, Belgium, Italy, Turkey, the Czech Republic, Mexico, Brazil, Australia, Germany, Canada, the USA, France, and the United Kingdom.

Data Collection

The data collection methods included surveys, which comprised opinion-scale and open-ended questions, targeted to gather information about the participants' perceptions and experiences of the addressed issue, as well as demographic data. Semi-structured interviews (see Appendix) were also used, which allowed for a deeper analysis of the participants' experiences. This was based on the fact that, in qualitative research, interviews serve as a space for exchanging information and constructing meaning between the interviewer and interviewee (Janesick, 2016).

Data Analysis

Content analysis and the principles of grounded theory were followed. Content analysis entailed identifying patterns in data, codifying those crude patterns, and finally categorizing them into global topics along with their resultant subcategories. At the same time, grounded theory principles played a significant role in the data analysis process, as no predetermined categories were established beforehand; categories emerged directly from the data (Devadas et al., 2011;

Elliot, 1990). The transcribed and enumerated data were then classified using color coding based on the identified common topics. Codes were used as labels or tags for specific sections or segments of data. These codes served as the foundation for creating categories, which represent broader groupings or themes that emerge from the codes. Categories provide a higher level of abstraction and organize similar codes into meaningful clusters. Lastly, subcategories were derived from the main categories, allowing for a more detailed data analysis by capturing variations or nuances within the broader category. We constantly compared and triangulated the results from both instruments to ensure the validity and quality of the interpretative conclusions from the analysis process.

Findings

Table 2 shows the categories, subcategories, and attributes related to English language proficiency and available options for improvement.

Table 2. Categories Derived From Data Analysis

Category	Subcategories	Attributes
1. Looking back: My level of English and the options at hand	1. Low English level	In primary and higher education
	2. English academic offer at the University	Basic or non-accessible
	3. Private courses needed	• Language skills • Preparation for international exams
	4. Spaces for practice	• Practice with native speakers • Specific spaces for international mobility
2. During mobility: Use of English in context	1. Insufficient English skills for formal and informal spaces	• Oral and writing • Listening and reading
	2. Insecurity remains	• Lack of proficiency and practice • Lack of soft skills
3. Autonomous learning	Connection between autonomous learning and English level improvement	Low familiarity with autonomous learning

Looking Back: My Level of English and the Options at Hand

This category embraces students' experiences before their international mobility regarding English proficiency and the available options for practice and improvement. It depicts students' perception of language skills and the importance of formal education in language learning. It also portrays the students' need for courses to enhance language skills and the importance of practical application in developing fluency and confidence. The findings were grouped into four subcategories.

Low Level of English in Primary and Higher Education

The participants reported low levels of English proficiency before the mobility experience. In both middle and higher education, participants' English skills fell short of the expected or necessary level, as portrayed by two participants:

> I studied in a school where English training was the classic verb "to be" throughout high school. It was an elementary training, very limited, in fact. (Participant 4)
> At a public school in Bogotá, the English classes were insufficient for what was required. (Participant 2)

Participants are conscious of insufficient English language preparation during primary and secondary school. This aligns with the broader Colombian context, where, as Benavides (2021) highlighted, students are not reaching the expected level of English proficiency after completing middle or high school.

Once in higher education, students recalled experiencing difficulties in different English language competencies. Participant 2 exemplified this by saying: "I could not speak fluently before I went to mobility because speaking means all the other skills." Insufficient language proficiency can obstruct full participation in academic coursework, research projects, and networking opportunities. It also adds stress and pressure as students try to bridge the gap between their current level and the required proficiency. On the other hand, participants recalled the difference between learning and using English in a classroom context and real-life situations. Participant 1 stated: "In the courses, we have to speak, but as one speaks in the English training books." This sentiment was further reinforced by Participant 2, who explained:

> It is very different to learn in a classroom than to learn in real life . . . I felt good in the Explora classes. In fact, I felt that I had a good level, that I could speak with my classmates. When I got to the country, I could not establish a conversation in the first two or three weeks… that is a long time.

The experiences shared by the participants pinpoint the challenges they faced when changing from a controlled classroom environment to the complexities of real-life communication. Classroom activities that overuse scripted dialogues, audio, and material found in textbooks may not accurately represent actual language usage. This can result in students' inability to adapt their language skills to authentic situations once in their mobility. This suggests that authentic language use in classroom activities and opportunities for practical application may enhance the development of the skills necessary to plunge into communication effectively. As highlighted by Participant 1, the absence of sufficient language skills prior to international mobility is an obstacle to engaging in the experience: "Many people say *I don't do that because I don't know English* and prefer to go to another Spanish-speaking country."

English Academic Offer at the University

The courses offered by the University are divided into two categories: mandatory language courses and elective advanced English courses. Mandatory English courses were perceived as basic, whereas elective ones were perceived as useful but inaccessible. Mandatory courses were described as "very introductory . . . as a starting point, but to go further, to consolidate or learn, other tools are necessary, such as Explora or Intensive" (Participant 1).

Some participants found the courses insufficient for international mobility because they "did learn a lot but not enough" (Participant 2). Moreover, elective advanced courses such as Intensive English and Explora, available to students at the Bogotá campus, were praised. Participants mentioned: "I felt good and could converse with my classmates" (Participant 2), and "I think I got a B2, and with that, I went to mobility . . . after Explora, I wrote better than before" (Participant 3). These courses are considered beneficial for English language learners as future international mobility students. However, not all participants were able to enroll in elective advanced courses. One of the reasons for this is that free courses have limited spots, and students are selected based on their grade point average. As a result, a student with a medium-low average is not likely accepted, as Participant 62 stated: "Access to other English courses, such as

Intensive or Explora, is minimal and the grade point filter for enrollment limits one's access."

The reason for the contrasting perceptions of the two English courses offered by the same University is examined by Barrero (2021), who attributes a significant portion of the negative perception to the compulsory courses. These courses are mandatory for all students, which may lead to reduced motivation and engagement. In contrast, the advanced elective course is chosen by students out of their own volition and the need to learn English, resulting in greater motivation. The author emphasizes that the perceptions through English course experiences impact students' intrinsic motivation and perceived language abilities. The participants' opinions indicate that while some courses provide good insights into English learning, a significant concern arises from the limited availability of these courses, creating a barrier for students who require higher English language proficiency.

Private Courses Needed

Given the perceived lack of language competence, students expressed the need to enroll in external courses and indicated a demand for private language courses. Nearly half of the participants (49%) confirmed they had taken private English courses to enhance their language proficiency. In response to the question, "How did you learn English?" the typical answer was perceived inadequacy in high school of university English classes. Participant 2 mentioned having studied at a public school where English classes were basic, and "to balance it out," the participant enrolled at a private institution. Participant 3 had a similar experience with a public school:

> English courses took two hours per week. There was not much to learn then. From the age of 15, I studied at [private institute] all levels of English up to the last one . . . everything I learned was outside the University, in courses at the [private institute].

Although the private courses benefitted a proportion of participants' English level and skills, some others did not perceive an optimal level of English in such courses. Furthermore, participants highlighted the issue of accessibility to private courses: "Not all of us can afford a private course to help us improve our performance" (Participant 42). The participants' need for additional support indicates a perceived gap in the language instruction offered by the University. Thus, though private courses are a valuable complement to enhancing English language abilities, they should not be a student's sole solution. Limitations in language instruction and accessibility to additional support are ways to provide equal opportunities to enhance language proficiency.

Spaces for English Practice

Practice spaces are available, yet students do not utilize them optimally. The University offers various English practice opportunities: conversation clubs provided by the Second Language Program, Comunidad Universitaria Reformada, Explora UNmundo, immersion journeys, conversation sessions, and English courses with international institutions. Nonetheless, participants admitted limited utilization of English practice spaces before their mobility experiences. A significant portion of them (49.3%) do not participate in any English practice sessions; others who did attend mentioned infrequent attendance, as portrayed by Participant 2: "I went to about two English clubs, no more."

Although the available spaces for English practice were not successfully used, participants pinpointed the need for practice with native speakers in specific spaces geared to international mobility students. For instance, Participant 64 emphasized that personalized sessions once mobility is confirmed may be a great option: "When the mobility is already confirmed, open spaces that are more personalized and better targeted to the students in the process." This shows that despite the lack of utilization of practice opportunities, a need for spaces

targeted to mobility students reveals a request for effective and specialized sessions for language development. Opportunities to engage with native speakers, discuss relevant topics, and simulate academic settings can better equip students with language skills and foster the necessary confidence for successful mobility experiences.

During Mobility: Use of English in Context

This category embraces students' experiences during international mobility in terms of the use of English in various contexts and its major challenges. It permitted the identification of the main challenges and limitations that participants face during mobility.

Insufficient Language Skills in Informal and Academic Contexts

English level was considered insufficient to engage in academic and informal activities effectively: "Despite everything I had done, I arrived at an elementary level. The first few weeks, I felt very lost; I said I was going to fail my classes" (Participant 1). Participants recalled ranking language skills based on the perceived level of difficulty. Oral skills emerged as the most challenging aspect in all performance contexts. Participant 3 mentioned that "speaking felt like a brake. I knew things theoretically but could not say them either informally or academically." In this regard, the importance of previous practice with native English speakers surfaced. Informal contexts allowed flexibility in mistake-making and received corrections, but the lack of everyday vocabulary and slang posed a barrier. By contrast, academic contexts occurred in a more controlled space where students fell short regarding technicalities and academic vocabulary. This proves what Llanes et al. (2016) assert regarding oral fluency as the most crucial and demanding skill for learners, and which requires more practice.

Listening comprehension was rated as the second most challenging skill. The lack of exposure to "natural" language, diverse accents, and a wide range of vocabulary makes it difficult to understand people in real scenarios with a speed of speech different from EFL classroom audios. Students learn standardized English variations that highly differ from the linguistic landscape found in an English-speaking context conformed by people from different nationalities, strong accents, and registers. Notably, in academic communicative events, the English speaker is not expected to repeat as many times as needed for the interlocutor to understand. Thereby, listening turns into a challenge and limits experiences, as expressed by Participant 3: "I did take classes, but in the classes I did not understand."

In the third position, writing skills were identified as a significant challenge due to limited practice, unfamiliarity with technical vocabulary, and uncertainty regarding the appropriate structures for written expression in English. Regarding a research stay in the city of Lafayette, Indiana, Participant 3 expressed: "When I tried to write a paper, they didn't understand me, they didn't understand how the sequence of the experiments was. . . . [Writing] is something fundamental." Writing skills are closely tied to the acquisition of technical vocabulary specific to the students' field of study, as commented by Participant 17: "In the academic world, it is imperative to prepare text typologies and to write using the appropriate vocabulary." Finally, reading skills were underemphasized by the participants. Those who mentioned difficulty in it referred to the lack of vocabulary to understand written texts and the lack of reading habits in English.

Insecurity Remains

Insecurity was a significant barrier to expressing ideas due to a perceived lack of ability, vocabulary, grammar, and practice. A crucial aspect to improve before the mobility experience is overcoming the fear of speaking, "not being afraid to speak out," as mentioned by Participant 26. The fear of making mistakes, lacking vocabulary, and struggling with grammar undermines confidence and hinders effective communication. This

insecurity not only limits the students' ability to express themselves but also impacts their language development and cultural integration during their mobility experiences.

Furthermore, the lack of interpersonal or soft skills among participants was identified as a contributing factor to this insecurity. High interpersonal skills equip individuals with a sense of security and confidence to express themselves in English in a foreign context. As highlighted by Echeverría et al. (2020), leadership, problem-solving, assertive communication, and networking skills enable students to engage in various activities and connect with their peers actively. Soft skills are essential for success in international mobility, as their benefits heavily rely on one's performance and the ability to establish connections and engage in various academic, professional, and informal activities. In addition, interpersonal deficiencies limit interaction in meaningful discussions, networks, and learning opportunities in various academic and professional contexts.

Autonomous Learning

The relevance of autonomous English learning and active practice also emerged from data analysis. Here, we discuss the findings regarding the connection between autonomous practices and language proficiency perception, as well as the limited familiarity with autonomous learning among some participants.

Connection Between Autonomous Learning and English Level Improvement

Autonomous learning "involves attributes related to understanding personal learning preferences, setting goals, preparing study plans, and creating learning opportunities" (Khotimah et al., 2019, p. 372). In the digitalized environment we are immersed in, the creation of learning opportunities is full of options. Participants who expressed engagement in autonomous language exposure and practice activities—such as listening to podcasts, series, music, and videos of their interest and learning through websites and apps—exhibited a more positive perception of their language level improvement than those who did not. Participant 6 mentioned the importance of "autonomy for learning English. Search for tools on the internet: videos, movies, apps, etc." By those means, participants were able to develop a deeper understanding of idiomatic expressions, colloquialisms, and overall comprehension, which ultimately led to an improved perception of their language skills and confidence: "I was very self-taught doing the BBC courses. I also watched movies. I started to listen to English songs; that helped me a lot" (Participant 1).

The previous testimonies highlight the significance of self-directed learning and the role of technology in language learning and improvement. They are in tune with Wang and Han (2020), who assert that learner autonomy is the learner's ability to take control of his or her learning. Regardless of the advantages, not all participants showed a strong inclination towards autonomous learning tools and independent language exposure. Few participants mentioned actively and prolongedly engaging in autonomous activities to improve their skills. This indicates that while they acknowledged the importance of formal education—such as courses at school, university, or private institutes—they did not mention autonomous tools or activities as part of their learning journey. One of the reasons behind this behavior is demotivation resulting from a perceived lack of progress in language proficiency. The significance of motivation was highlighted by Participant 29, who mentioned that it is relevant to have "motivation to want to learn, listen to music in English, watch movies in English without subtitles, listen to podcasts in English." This aligns with the findings of Barrero (2021), who stated that not achieving good results in the autonomous learning process results in demotivation and low commitment.

Therefore, students actively seeking opportunities to immerse themselves in the language demonstrate a proactive approach to language learning, unlike those who do not partake in these activities. This highlights

the importance of fostering motivation and providing students with the necessary resources and support to engage in autonomous learning, as it can significantly impact their language proficiency and overall learning outcomes.

Conclusions and Suggestions for Further Action

This research focused on analyzing the experiences of Colombian university students as English users during international mobility and the challenging areas of improvement. The findings revealed three key elements related to participants' English proficiency and language practice options before and during international mobility.

Before international mobility, students perceived low levels of English proficiency from their previous educational experiences. The lack of an appropriate level represents challenges and barriers for students. The academic English opportunities at the University seem basic for the introductory courses, whereas elective subjects, mainly intensive programs, are considered great tools. Nonetheless, the latter are inaccessible to all students and with limited spots.

The results also indicate that international mobility students are underutilizing English practice spaces at the University. However, this population highlights the need for targeted spaces for international mobility to respond to their specific needs in terms of language and their future mobility experience. Besides, students feel in need of enrolling in private courses to enhance their level, although some reported not being able to afford them.

During international mobility, the participants' English skills were insufficient to perform satisfactorily in the new formal and informal contexts. Low oral skills, absence of informal and slang vocabulary, and lack of previous practice with peers and native English speakers pose significant challenges for students once in a foreign country. Listening comprehension appears hindered by little previous exposure to authentic language uses and how it sounds outside of the EFL classrooms. On the other hand, the practice of writing skills and technical vocabulary appears to have considerable relevance for the academic performance of international students.

Findings also portray the impact of insecurity as an obstacle to good English performance. The lack of interpersonal or soft skills among participants was identified as a contributing factor to their insecurity in international mobility. Thus, it is vital to have strong interpersonal skills to develop a sense of security and confidence when using English. Additionally, insufficient interpersonal skills can hinder leadership roles, collaborative work, clear communication, and student mobility benefits.

Likewise, results show that engagement in autonomous language exposure and practice activities—such as listening to podcasts, watching movies, and using online resources—produces a positive perception of language proficiency. However, a lack of motivation limits commitment to autonomous work.

The results also call for strategies that respond to the students' needs in terms of the English language so that they can take more advantage of the mobility experiences. Given this, Table 3 depicts a possible course of action that can be useful for meeting the needs of mobility students.

The suggested English practice sessions seek to cover essential language skills required for international experiences. Led by a proficient English speaker, sessions can emphasize speaking and listening through conversations where pronunciation, accents, slang, and formal/informal language usage are considered. The cultural aspects of the destination country and practical advice for living abroad are also expected to be covered. Additionally, the sessions can enhance (academic) writing, reading, and technical vocabulary skills. Participants must also be encouraged and given the tools to engage in autonomous learning outside of the sessions to become aware of their options to keep up with developing their language competence.

Table 3. Proposal of an English-Practice Space for Mobility Students

Targeted population	Students with approved international mobility	
Instructor	Native English/High proficient C1 non-native speaker	
Material	Authentic	
Skill focus	Speaking/Listening	
Schedule	Consulted with possible participants beforehand	
Topic/Thematic	**Details**	**Means**
Improving speaking skill	Maximized student speaking time, improvised conversation among peers or with the teacher	Peer and professor practice
Exploring pronunciation, accents, slang, and register	Phonetics/Pronunciation	Listening practice
	Different accents/Variations of English	
	Slang, daily-life English, idiomatic expressions	Class practice
	Informal vs. formal English	
Where am I going?	Cultural aspects of the destination country	Autonomous research by the student
	Useful tips for living abroad	Class practice
Enhancing writing, reading, and technical vocabulary skills	Academic writing/reading	Writing academic reports
	Technical vocabulary	Reading academic papers
Teamwork and leadership activities must be fostered. Student speaking time must be a key element.		

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Appendix: Semi-Structured Interview Guide

Stage	Guide
Introduction	Greetings and presentation of the researcher
	As you participated in international mobility, I will ask you some questions about it. I will ask you some questions about your experiences learning and practicing English and its relationship with your experiences in the country where you had your international mobility. • Do you agree with the consent you have just read? • Do you have any questions or comments before we begin?
Body	• Are you an undergraduate or graduate student? • When did you do your mobility? • Which country did you go to? • Before that mobility, had you been in an English-speaking country?
	In this section, I will ask some questions about your experience learning and practicing English. • How did you learn English? At school, at the university, through external courses...? • Are you familiar with the English practice opportunities offered by UNAL? Which ones? • At UNAL, did you have English classes? Did you participate in clubs, workshops, or English sessions? • During your experiences learning English, was there any aspect that you found particularly challenging? • Do you think your language proficiency was sufficient for your international mobility? • Do you believe the University offered enough English practice spaces to prepare for international mobility?
Closure	Further comments and doubts

P R O F I L E

Issues Based on Reflections and Innovations

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The Conception of Student-Teachers and the Pedagogical Practicum in the Colombian ELT Field

Concepción del docente de lengua en formación y la práctica pedagógica en el campo de la enseñanza del inglés en Colombia

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This article provides an overview of how student-teachers and the pedagogical practicum are conceived in the Colombian English language teaching field. The study reviewed 72 articles in three levels of analysis: extraction of corresponding knowledge, epistemic review, and concatenation of emergent insights. The analysis reveals that student-teachers are conceived as subjects with principles, values, beliefs, responsibilities, and knowledge. Meanwhile, the pedagogical practicum is an academic space, process, and experience constituted by purposes, practical knowledge, and building relationships. This literature review mainly contributes to the field as an invitation to continue revising the foundations of the pedagogical practicum and the kind of student-teachers that this space may develop.

Keywords: English language teaching, epistemic review, language teachers, pedagogical practicum, student-teachers

Este artículo se enfoca en la concepción que académicos colombianos tienen sobren los docentes en formación y la práctica pedagógica en el campo de la enseñanza del inglés en Colombia. Se revisaron 72 artículos en tres niveles de análisis: (a) extracción y (b) revisión epistémica del conocimiento correspondiente y (c) concatenación de los resultados. Se encontró que a los docentes en formación se los concibe como sujetos con principios, valores, creencias, responsabilidades y conocimientos. Por su parte, la práctica pedagógica se entiende como un espacio académico, un proceso y una experiencia constituida por propósitos, saberes prácticos y construcción de relaciones. Esta revisión contribuye al campo como una invitación a continuar revisando los fundamentos de la práctica pedagógica y el tipo de docentes en formación que este espacio busca formar.

Palabras clave: docentes en formación, enseñanza del inglés, práctica pedagógica, profesores de idiomas, revisión epistémica

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Introduction

This literature review presents an overview of Colombian scholars' conception of student-teachers[1] and the pedagogical practicum (the practicum, henceforth) in English language teaching (ELT). In Colombia, authors such as Dávila (2021), Fandiño-Parra (2022), Garzón-Duarte (2020), Gómez-Vásquez and Guerrero-Nieto (2018), Méndez-Rivera (2018), and Méndez-Rivera et al. (2019) regard English language teachers as constituted[2] in distinctive ways by the expected practices, behaviors, and attitudes encountered in language policies, curricula, and institutional and academic discourses. These studies initially unveil how English teachers seem to be framed chiefly by instrumental, technical, or standardized discourses and practices of teaching and to be regarded as holding Western values. English teachers eventually practice distinctive teaching skills and, by so doing, reflect on what type of English teachers they are.

Other local studies have initially shown that student-teachers seem to be embodied practitioners with knowledge, beliefs, emotions, attitudes, interests, and roles (Aguirre-Sánchez, 2014; Carvajal & Duarte-Medina, 2020; Castañeda-Trujillo & Aguirre-Hernández, 2018; Castellanos-Jaimes, 2013; Lucero & Cortés-Ibañez, 2021; Lucero & Roncancio-Castellanos, 2019; Olaya & Gómez-Rodríguez, 2013; Suárez-Flórez & Basto-Basto, 2017). Even though these studies serve as initial references to understand how student-teachers are conceived in the local ELT field, a deeper exploration of how the Colombian scholarship sees both student-teachers and the practicum within ELT undergraduate programs is necessary. Knowing how scholars understand student-teachers and the practicum gives an idea of the kind of teachers-to-be that these programs educate and that society will receive as part of the future of language education in the country.

Awareness of this state of knowledge is also relevant to fostering dialogue among the local community members (e.g., directors, coordinators, teacher-educators, practicum advisors, student-teachers, researchers, and institutions or organizations). The dialogues should make the community constantly rethink the practicum from more situated perspectives that allow, on the one hand, to determine the pre-established demands that set it aside from several in-context realities and, on the other, to regard student-teachers beyond established discourses of what they must be and do. As experienced teacher-educators, practicum advisors, and researchers about practicum matters, the authors inquired about the local foundations of the practicum and student-teachers within the local ELT. We constantly search to (re)create spaces where teachers-to-be can construct themselves as teachers for new generations and ever-changing contexts. This reflection comes from different gaps among practicum advisors' and student-teachers' expectations and practices, practicum configurations, and educational context realities.

For our review, we used the epistemic discourse analysis (van Dijk, 2013), which implies a systematic analysis of how knowledge is "managed (activated, expressed, presupposed, implied, conveyed, construed, etc.) in the structures and strategies of text and talk" (van Dijk, 2013, p. 497). By exploring worldwide scientific databases of education research,[3] we found local and global indexed journals containing published research articles about the practicum and student-teachers during this stage in Colombia. National scholars specifically wrote the articles in the 2000–2022 period.[4] We ended

1 We pin the term "student-teachers" to account for the varied views of self-awareness, constructed thoughts, knowledge, values, feelings, dispositions, and behaviors that teachers-to-be may hold (Lucero & Cortés-Ibañez, 2021). This term looks to cover more aspects of the self than the term "preservice teachers" which customarily seems to focus more on student-teachers as just being trained for teaching.

2 We understand a constitution as a state of becoming whereby an individual progressively aggregates new knowledge and experiences.

3 We explored the Scopus, WoS, Redalyc, Latindex, Dialnet, and SciELO databases using a search formula with the keywords "pedagogical practicum/practice/training" and "pre-service/student teachers" or "teachers to be," all of them in Colombian literature.

4 We filtered the search to this period since the national regulations for the practicum have majorly happened during these years.

up with 72 articles that were submitted to a three-stage analysis:

1. Extracting samples of what the authors say about (a) what the practicum implies (its processes, procedures, stages, etc.) and (b) what English student-teachers are or do in that stage.
2. An epistemic review that inquired about (a) how student-teachers and the practicum are conceived, (b) what knowledge is portrayed in those conceptions, (c) who says that knowledge and from what position, and (d) what implications are verbalized.
3. A concatenation of insights about the analyses extracted in the two previous stages: At this stage, we explored the knowledge of how student-teachers and the practicum are conceived and the implications and prospects of this knowledge.

We present this literature review around four main insights: how the Colombian ELT scholarship conceives (a) student-teachers and (b) the practicum, (c) the role of student-teachers during the practicum, and (d) the implications of these understandings for the local ELT community.

Student-Teachers in the Colombian ELT Scholarship

Based on the reviewed literature, student-teachers are envisioned as subjects with principles, values, convictions, and their own beliefs and conceptions about teaching (Díaz-Quero, 2006). They are also defined as subjects able to analyze, reflect, solve problems, make decisions in the school contexts, be aware of different realities, and transform them through determined actions (Castañeda-Trujillo, 2019; Castellanos-Jaimes, 2013; Durán-Narváez et al., 2017; Méndez-Rivera et al., 2019). Cote-Parra (2012) complements these understandings by claiming that student-teachers must regularly reflect on their teaching performance. This reflection seeks to "draw conclusions that allow them to redirect their future actions or implement necessary changes" (p. 30) in their teaching practices since they are becoming teachers. Along with this process, Pinzón-Capador and Guerrero-Nieto (2018) and Ramos-Holguín (2013) consider that student-teachers begin to understand their job as teachers and may become independent decision-makers when reflection is core in their education.

Another perspective on this issue is the one offered by Rodríguez (2013) and Ubaque-Casallas and Aguirre-Garzón (2020) when they affirm that student-teachers are always in the process of developing their identity as educators during their major. Their identities are constantly shaped by their past experiences and reshaped throughout the practicum in combination with the "newly acquired knowledge and experiences in their teacher preparation programs" (Rodríguez, 2013, p. 18). This means this process is not static, and their identities are constantly constructed. Those experiences strongly determine their motivations, attitudes, and engagement toward the teaching field (Fajardo-Castañeda & Miranda-Montenegro, 2015).

Student-teachers are also defined based on the responsibilities or roles they are supposed to assume while teaching English. According to the articles analyzed, those roles are mainly related to language proficiency, their knowledge of world issues, how they are effective teachers, and the development of critical thinking inside the classroom. In line with Fandiño-Parra (2013) and Fajardo-Mora (2013), they must be bilingual teachers who need access to a wide range of information, which keeps them updated to analyze social, political, economic, or religious phenomena worldwide. To complement this conception, student-teachers should also have specific knowledge that can be grouped into teaching methods and theories, language knowledge and proficiency, the social dimension of the context where they teach, and being critical towards policies and foreign teaching models.

Teaching methods and theories are one of the main types of knowledge mentioned by the authors.

Fandiño-Parra (2013), García-Chamorro et al. (2020), and Olaya and Gómez-Rodríguez (2013) consider that student-teachers not only need to have a good English proficiency level to teach future generations but also be knowledgeable about teaching methods and theories and sensitive to sociocultural dimensions since they need to be qualified to teach in a globalized world. Cárdenas and Suárez-Osorio (2009) remark that teacher education programs should emphasize language training so that student-teachers can be accurate and proficient in the foreign language.

Regarding knowledge of the sociocultural dimensions of the context where student-teachers teach, Aguirre-Morales and Ramos-Holguín (2011) claim that student-teachers need to comprehend the social dimensions of the practicum context (for instance, how the community relates to one another, how tasks are done, and how responsibilities are assumed) since they may find a mixture of realities in their classrooms, with students coming from different backgrounds, socioeconomic statuses, ethnicities, and religious beliefs. In their practicum, they might consider these aspects to face those realities as future teachers.

Concerning being critical of policies and foreign teaching models, Camargo-Cely (2018) and Fajardo-Mora (2013) explain the need to reflect and take a critical stance regarding the adoption of language policies and foreign teaching models. Student-teachers are recommended not only to acquire knowledge about these aspects but also to develop a critical position to have a more active role during the practicum. Student-teachers should know the implications of designing bilingual curricula to account for teachers' professional development and enact social transformations when faced with this task.

In brief, in agreement with García-Chamorro et al. (2020), the knowledge that student-teachers should have can be: (a) technical, which reflects disciplinary knowledge and methodological, contextualized, or reflective practices; (b) sociocultural, which implies relating with others and their contexts; and (c) personal, which involves teaching ethics, responsibilities, and competencies framed in a particular context. All this can be put into practice during the practicum by including the learners' interests and needs (e.g., social, linguistic) in the lessons and by considering the sociocultural factors that have a bearing on classroom practices.

The Practicum in the Colombian ELT Scholarship

In general terms, the practicum is conceived as the "teaching practice" that is a subcomponent or curricular area of the professional training of a bachelor's degree (Chaves-Varón, 2008; Ríos-Beltrán, 2018). The practicum is the teaching work that student-teachers perform in different contexts (Díaz-Quero, 2006). It is mainly constituted by (a) teachers (which include, at least, student-teachers proper, their supervisors/advisors, and the cooperating or homeroom teachers), (b) the curriculum, (c) the learners, (d) the teaching process, and (e) the context.

Based on the reviewed articles, the practicum can be condensed into three main views. Firstly, it is a "space" where knowledge, subjects, institutions, teaching procedures, feelings, beliefs, and experiences about teaching a language are enacted (Castañeda-Trujillo & Aguirre-Hernández, 2018; Fandiño-Parra, 2022; Lucero, 2016). From this view, it is a requisite for student-teachers to demonstrate how they see themselves as teachers (Castañeda-Trujillo, 2019). Secondly, the practicum is not only a process for student-teachers to develop the knowledge and teaching skills that they have acquired throughout their major (Castañeda-Trujillo & Aguirre-Hernández, 2018; Chaves-Varón, 2008; Esteban-Núñez, 2021) but also a process to gain research experience by implementing a small-scale research project (Castellanos-Jaimes, 2013; Fandiño-Parra, 2013; Ríos-Beltrán, 2018). Thirdly, the practicum is an experience to learn about how to be a teacher in real situations and contexts and from their practicum advisors' or cooperating teachers'

advice (Cote-Parra, 2012; Esteve, 1998; Lucero & Cortés-Ibañez, 2021). For these three views, the practicum represents the practical knowledge generated by student-teachers because of their everyday experimentation and continuous reflection inside and outside the classroom. This knowledge comes to life via student-teachers' discourses about their sense of identification, purpose, and agency with the teaching profession in the everyday duties in practicum contexts (Fajardo-Castañeda & Miranda-Montenegro, 2015; Sarasa, 2017) and via critical reflections on what was appropriate or not after teaching each lesson (Aguirre-Morales & Ramos-Holguín, 2011; Aguirre-Sánchez, 2014).

Regardless of the way, the practicum offers moments to promote student-teachers' critical reflection on others and their teaching practices and positively influence their beliefs. The reflection is based not only on the structural aspects of the English language and its teaching methodologies (Aguirre-Morales & Ramos-Holguín, 2011; Barros del Río, 2019; Garzón-Duarte, 2020; Samacá-Bohórquez, 2012) but also on stated principles of communication as a social practice (Muñoz-Julio & Ramírez-Contreras, 2018). That reflection can happen pre-, while, or post-teaching experiences, but always aiming to incorporate changes and improve student-teachers' practices to make English teaching and learning easier (Cote-Parra, 2012; Fandiño-Parra, 2011; Gamboa-González & Herrera-Mateus, 2021). Thus, there is a connection between reflection and critical theories or pedagogies. These Colombian authors prompt this connection with reflection activities done in an oral, written, or dialogic form. Through these activities, student-teachers are expected to start rethinking education to reach social transformation. As not all practices generate reflective processes—as Camargo-Cely (2018) and Esteve (1998) acknowledge—promoting models for reflective learning and practices should be paramount during the practicum, for example, on the bilingualism phenomenon and decision-making processes in the classroom.

The influence in student-teachers' system of beliefs usually occurs through the (self-)discovery of three facts. For the first, Gamboa-González and Herrera-Mateus (2021), Herrera-Mateus et al. (2021), Londoño-Orozco (2009), and Montoya-López et al. (2020) affirm that student-teachers' system of beliefs is influenced by the implementation, successful or not, of different teaching strategies, activities, and methods for English learning. The second is when they become aware of the roles to perform from the curricular/pedagogical demands of planning communicative and interactional lessons as well as being innovative and transformative (Castañeda-Peña et al., 2016; Fajardo, 2013; Muñoz-Julio & Ramírez-Contreras, 2018; Quintero-Polo, 2016; Rodríguez, 2013; Ubaque-Casallas & Aguirre-Garzón, 2020). The third fact is about an awareness of the realities of ELT in Colombia. Barón-Pereira and Rojas-Espitia (2014), Giraldo and Murcia-Quintero (2018), Lucero and Roncancio-Castellanos (2019), and Méndez-Rivera et al. (2019) state that those realities are about language teaching and assessment methodologies and the different types of learners and contexts. These facts result in rediscovering student-teachers' teaching-learning practices and knowledge, demonstrating that the practicum strongly influences their beliefs. They connect their beliefs, knowledge, and experiences to construct new knowledge and improve ELT realities (Cárdenas & Suárez-Osorio, 2009).

Furthermore, the practicum fosters the formation of values and relationships. Cárdenas and Suárez-Osorio (2009) and Esteban-Núñez (2021) highlight how student-teachers embody the development of professional values through real teaching experiences in which they complete pedagogical tasks, commitments, and responsibilities of homeroom or cooperating teachers. As Cárdenas and Suárez-Osorio (2009), Chaves-Varón (2008), and Herrera-Mateus et al. (2021) state, the teaching experiences afforded by the practicum are one further step in student-teachers' professional development, even though such experiences may

come into conflict with their previous beliefs. When this is the case, Muñoz-Julio and Ramírez-Contreras (2018) propose transactional strategies (preparing or reviewing, modeling and eliciting, practicing and reviewing). Equally, Giraldo and Murcia-Quintero (2019) propose using contextualized lesson plans and rubrics for a more knowledgeable, objective, fair, and capable combination of theory and practice of language teaching and assessment.

Building relationships is also possible during the practicum. As teaching is a social practice by nature, ongoing supportive relationships influence student-teachers' interactions and sense of affiliation (Fajardo-Castañeda & Miranda-Montenegro, 2015; Lucero & Roncancio-Castellanos, 2019; Pinzón-Capador & Guerrero-Nieto, 2018). The relationships between student-teachers and practicum advisors, cooperating teachers, homeroom teachers, and other members of the practicum community lead to unique reflection moments that are little considered in the language teaching theory (Samacá-Bohórquez, 2020). They also connect the practicum and student-teachers' sense of affiliation with the teaching context, even with the profession itself. Viáfara-González (2014) extends the relationship-building to research experiences from the practicum. As student-teachers are constantly surrounded by activities such as conducting surveys, listening to reports, or keeping a journal, the relationship with research may contribute to their pedagogical skills, making them more competent when solving problems, implementing strategies, and reflecting.

To sum up, the practicum in Colombian ELT education is considered a three-fold moment for student-teachers: an academic space, a process, and an experience. Regardless of the view, the practicum is always a subcomponent or curricular subject of professional training within an EFL bachelor's degree. From this view, the practicum serves three primary purposes: (a) to develop teaching knowledge and skills by learning about how to be a teacher in real situations and contexts, (b) to promote critical reflection on others and own teaching practices, and (c) to influence student-teachers' system of beliefs positively. Other objectives involve acquiring research experience and implementing teaching approaches, methodologies, and procedures. The practicum is also the time for generating practical knowledge, building relationships, and creating a sense of identification, purpose, and agency with the teaching profession. Feelings, emotions, and teacher roles are also considered practicum constituents.

Student-Teachers in the Colombian ELT Practicum

According to the reviewed literature, student-teachers should fulfill a series of demands during the practicum. Those demands, which constitute a state of becoming for student-teachers, can be grouped into three main categories: language teaching performance, reflection on it, and the knowledge student-teachers should hold or construct throughout the practicum.

Language teaching performance seems to be the most prominent kind of demand. According to Castañeda-Trujillo (2021), Quintero-Polo (2016), and Ramos-Holguín (2013), student-teachers are required to focus more on the social or cultural issues rather than on only linguistic aspects of the English language. During their practicum, student-teachers tend to focus on English grammatical aspects rather than exploring the use of this language for communication tasks. However, as Cárdenas and Suárez-Osorio (2009) explain, this focus may change as teaching experience is gained throughout lesson deliveries in the practicum contexts. Fajardo-Mora (2013) places this responsibility in the ELT undergraduate programs. For student-teachers to teach English from a social perspective, the programs, mainly during the practicum, must make them steadily develop strategies and skills of language teaching, assessment, and material design.

Eventually, cultural knowledge will also be relevant for student-teachers in their language-teaching

performance during the practicum. Viáfara-González (2016) considers that student-teachers must constantly work on the improvement of their English proficiency and cultural knowledge, while Granados-Beltrán (2016), Olaya and Gómez-Rodríguez (2013), and Ramos-Holguín et al. (2019) believe that student-teachers must also know about varied cultural aspects attached to English. Thus, as Carvajal and Duarte-Medina (2020) affirm, student-teachers can reach effective, creative, and innovative teaching if their English proficiency and respective cultural knowledge are high. This condition will benefit learners' classroom behaviors and attitudes and account for their interests, needs, and learning processes (Lucero & Roncancio-Castellanos, 2019; Nieto-Gómez, 2018).

Another set of demands has to do with reflection on teaching experiences, as this allows student-teachers to become critical language teachers (Castañeda-Trujillo & Aguirre-Hernández, 2018; Cote-Parra, 2012; Fandiño-Parra, 2011). This demand can be accomplished through research, which is an unavoidable endeavor in the teaching profession (Barón-Pereira & Rojas-Espitia, 2014; Córdoba-Zúñiga et al., 2021; Díaz-Quero, 2006; Londoño-Orozco, 2009). The reviewed articles mention several paramount issues that student-teachers should investigate during the practicum; for instance, that reflection or research should be primarily on student-teachers' own beliefs and conceptions regarding language, teaching, learning, and assessment (Aguirre-Sánchez, 2014; García-Chamorro et al., 2020; Giraldo & Murcia-Quintero, 2019; Tapia-Carlín, 2014; Viáfara-González, 2014). Other authors (e.g., Garzón-Duarte & Posada-Ortíz, 2020; Rodríguez, 2013; Sarasa, 2016) suggest that student-teachers should study their identity construction so that they can recognize what type of teachers they become during the practicum. Along the same line, Chacón-Vargas and Prada-Ramírez (2015) and Montoya-López et al. (2020) suggest that research should be on the roles and tasks that language policies, curricula and the academic community demand from student-teachers (mostly about how to teach and how to be language teachers).

Meanwhile, Durán-Narváez et al. (2017) suggest that any study should concentrate on student-teachers' relationship and affiliation with the practicum community and on their expectations, values, and convictions so that they accommodate themselves better during the practicum. In short, as Fandiño-Parra (2013) states, either reflection or research on any of these issues may conduce student-teachers to construct a solid practice and knowledge base about language teaching or, as McNulty (2010) confirms, to overcome their lack of knowledge, experience, and preparation about language and language teaching.

A third demand is that student-teachers must know about various aspects of ELT and being a teacher. Among all the pieces of knowledge, the curriculum and the sociocultural dimension of the teaching context are the most comprehensive (Aguirre-Morales & Ramos-Holguín, 2011; Castañeda-Peña et al., 2016; Castellanos-Jaimes, 2013; Esteban-Nuñez, 2021; Lastra et al., 2018; Méndez-Rivera et al., 2019; Ríos-Beltrán, 2018). Thus, student-teachers should know about the practicum community (the school, homeroom or cooperating teachers, etc.), its practices (institutional project, normativity, classroom rules, disciplinary procedures, etc.), and even its beliefs (the "obvious" actions of teaching, assessment, and reacting with disruptive behaviors).

Language didactics can also be considered part of this type of knowledge. Student-teachers should (already) know about material design and language teaching methods, approaches, theories, techniques, strategies, values, competencies, and assessment (Fajardo, 2013; Giraldo & Murcia-Quintero, 2018; Lucero & Cortés-Ibañez, 2021; Pinzón-Capador & Guerrero-Nieto, 2018; Suárez-Flórez & Basto-Basto, 2017). Consistent with this line of thought, Castañeda-Trujillo et al. (2022) affirm that student-teachers demonstrate their language didactics in preparing themselves or studying to be

language teachers and planning and delivering language lessons. Regarding the latter, Castañeda-Trujillo (2021), Sarasa (2017), and Ubaque-Casallas and Aguirre-Garzón (2020) assert that student-teachers demonstrate lesson planning and delivery in their teaching performance in the classroom with elements such as the roles they assume, the methodologies they implement, the materials they design, the classroom atmosphere they create, and the teaching strategies they employ (even for in-situ decisions and problem-solving acts). The other side of the coin is how lesson planning and delivery involve the learners as their class performance demonstrates how student-teachers connect lesson planning with the context and the learners' needs and interests (Chavarría & Correa, 2021; Macías & Sánchez, 2015; Viáfara-González, 2005; Viáfara-González & Pachón-Achuri, 2021).

Critical thinking and teaching methodologies are the other two demanded topics about ELT and being a teacher. Knowing what critical thinking is and how to develop and exercise it creates reflective future teachers (Castañeda-Trujillo, 2019; Castro-Garcés, 2021; Gamboa-González & Herrera-Mateus, 2021; Gutiérrez, 2015; Posada-Ortíz & Garzón-Duarte, 2013). Camargo-Cely (2018) and Granados-Beltrán (2016) additionally emphasize how student-teachers' levels of reflection may cause them to transform their current and future teaching performance. Concerning teaching methodologies, knowledge of them makes student-teachers predict or take on the tasks and difficulties posed by the practicum context with more motivation, agency, or engagement (Fajardo-Castañeda & Miranda-Montenegro, 2015; Garzón-Duarte, 2020; Samacá-Bohórquez, 2012).

In sum, we can conclude that student-teachers in the Colombian ELT practicum are understood from a series of demands they should address. Those demands mainly refer to aspects of language teaching performance and reflection. Teaching performance progressively allows student-teachers to improve as language teachers during the practicum, and the reflection on that performance is vital for them to become knowledgeable and critical agents. Both teaching performance and reflection are evident in their English proficiency and how they didactically approach teaching the language and its cultural aspects.

Implications

In this section, we present the significance of the abovementioned understandings, perspectives, and demands and their relevance in the corresponding line of thought of the scholarship about student-teachers and the practicum in the Colombian ELT field.

To start, we highlight that, in the reviewed literature, the practicum is an academic space, process, experience, and teaching practice. Among these, the tendency is to see it as an academic space composed of must-be and must-do knowledge and tasks for student-teachers. In this sense, the practicum is not only contributory but also additive. In consonance with Lucero and Cortés-Ibañez (2021), the practicum becomes contributory when, while teaching, student-teachers consolidate their previous pedagogical learning through selected texts, experiences in context, and the guidance of practicum advisors or cooperating teachers. On the other hand, the practicum becomes additive when there is a continuous addition of aspects of English teaching and being a teacher that student-teachers must incorporate into their teaching practices. Nonetheless, previous studies state that the practicum can go beyond such considerations (e.g., Cárdenas & Suárez-Osorio, 2009; Castro-Garcés, 2021; Fajardo-Castañeda & Miranda-Montenegro, 2015; Gamboa-González & Hernández-Ochoa, 2022; Gamboa-González & Herrera-Mateus, 2021; Herrera-Mateus et al., 2021; Lucero, 2016; Lucero & Roncancio-Castellanos, 2019; Sarasa, 2017). Thus, the practicum should also be seen as a dynamic process whereby, in a context-based situation, student-teachers gain knowledge and put it into practice. It implies a constant reconstruction of student-teachers' lives and all the practicum participants in context.

Thus, the practicum offers opportunities to go beyond its participants' expected roles and duties. Our epistemic review reveals that student-teachers are commonly expected to put into practice didactic forms of English teaching, which are usually based on foreign macro discourses and practices but not much on the realities of each context. Castellanos-Jaimes (2013) and Nieto-Gómez (2018) suggest that, for the Colombian ELT scholarship, the practicum should provide more opportunities for student-teachers to reflect, gain insight, and have a voice on their practicum experiences and performance, the multiple complexities of being teachers and feeling engaged with the profession in multiple contexts.

All of this connects with how local authors understand student-teachers. One understanding resides in the meaningful experiences that the practicum community can offer to student-teachers during and after the practicum (Aguirre-Sánchez, 2014; Fajardo-Castañeda & Miranda-Montenegro, 2015; Giraldo & Murcia-Quintero, 2019; Viáfara-González & Pachón-Achuri, 2021). This understanding sees student-teachers as subjects that receive opportunities to have initial experiences in teaching and that hold a set of beliefs and practices about language teaching, learning, and assessment as well as about learning to teach and its related issues (e.g., motivation, autonomy, engagement, and internal/external factors).

Another implication is that the constitution of student-teachers may reconfigure the educational community and its pedagogical discourses and curricular projects. Such reconfiguration should look for new ways of knowing, being, and doing that goes from the formation of a fixed and predetermined language teacher to the education of a reflective, inquisitive, and forward-thinking teacher (Aguirre-Morales & Ramos-Holguín, 2011; Fandiño-Parra, 2022; Méndez-Rivera et al., 2019). Not only can student-teachers' identities, positions, knowledge, and actions be part of this endeavor, but also their contradictions, wounds, fears, and resentments.

To that end, student-teachers can then become producers of pedagogical knowledge. Student-teachers can be endorsed with roles other than being English teachers by becoming more participative in organizing practicum contexts. By enacting other roles such as organizers, supervisors, decision-makers, and agents of transformation, student-teachers can uncover their (language) teaching beliefs, practices, skills, weaknesses, knowledge,[5] and potential. Achieving these aspects requires that student-teachers become more conscious of what they do as teachers and of the reasons behind their actions (Chaves-Varón, 2008; Rodríguez, 2013; Suárez-Flórez & Basto-Basto, 2017). Such awareness must be based on reflecting and analyzing teaching methodologies, the approaches implemented, and the assumptions that support them. Since student-teachers' progressive pedagogical and experiential knowledge indeed constitutes one relevant dimension of teacher education, they should reflect on their experiences (Gamboa-González & Herrera-Mateus, 2021; Olaya & Gómez-Rodríguez, 2013) and "question their realities by debating critical topics and developing real-world projects that move them outside the classroom setting" (Samacá-Bohórquez, 2012, p. 197).

Practicum advisors are critical companions in student-teachers' professional development and in helping them augment their knowledge (Bonilla-Medina & Samacá-Bohórquez, 2020; Castañeda-Peña et al., 2016; Chaves-Varón, 2008; Méndez-Rivera et al., 2019; Montoya-López et al., 2020; Viáfara-González, 2005). Practicum advisors should be good listeners who fuel conversations via comments or questions and understand that difficulties are part of the learning-to-teach process. They should respect the student-teachers'

5 We recognize that knowledge comprises multiple types (e.g., pedagogical, disciplinary, content, experiential) created in context from individual views, experiences, beliefs, feelings, emotions, conceptions, and so on (Castañeda-Londoño, 2021).

system of beliefs, which seems to be the biggest constraint to keeping them from engaging in reflective practices. Advisors should also implement more active, varied, and context-situated exercises to prepare student-teachers. Most importantly, they should concentrate on student-teachers' academic and emotional needs and the working conditions in different contexts. As we can see, the practicum advisors" role is paramount as they have an advantageous position to establish relations among student-teachers, practicum contexts, and the curriculum.

Local authors give Colombian ELT undergraduate programs several suggestions. One suggestion is to provide opportunities for student-teachers to analyze their beliefs on the practice of teaching (as both a temporal and spatial system), the global and local ELT field, language assessment, experiential and emotional factors, and professional development (Fandiño-Parra, 2011, 2022; Giraldo & Murcia-Quintero, 2018; Londoño-Orozco, 2009; Lucero & Cortés-Ibáñez, 2021). Other suggestions include the implementation of different types of inquiry about language pedagogy, strengthening professional-based focus in student-teachers, including funds of knowledge provided by the practicum community, and exploring and confronting language teaching ideologies (Aguirre-Morales & Ramos-Holguín, 2011; Barros del Río, 2019; Castañeda-Trujillo, 2019; Frodden & Cardona, 2001; McNulty, 2010; Sarasa, 2017).

Altogether, local authors advise an approach for the practicum based more on the contexts, realities, experiences, and future development of the practicum communities rather than on pre-established macro discourses and practices of English teaching. Although we agree on this premise, the implications of this vision seem to be a David-and-Goliath matter. In a national model that has favored Global-North visions—politically and in practice—a situated, reflective, and autonomy-fostering approach for the practicum has just started to put the English teaching establishment at risk. Despite all the local efforts thus far, the social beliefs of English teaching, learning, and assessment are still impregnated in people's minds as technical, instrumental, and standardized; the gap between Colombian scholarship and language policymakers is still enormous; and the acknowledgment of Colombian scholarship about ELT is just blossoming.

Against this backdrop, the claim is to unveil how our ELT field has been historically and epistemologically conceptualized and exercised so that we, as a community, can unlearn imposed narratives and practices. This consciousness should open spaces for dynamic, built-in, and located language pedagogies with the strength and prominence to reach the educational and political levels. Thus, dismantling more than a half-century series of language policies, commercial agreements, social beliefs, language ideologies, and educational practices in the Colombian ELT field demands vigorous and collegial governmental, sociocultural, and academic efforts. An approach for the practicum in the local ELT with these premises seems to be a starting point to challenge the established system that has normalized and instrumentalized language teachers governmentally, epistemologically, and academically.

However, the idea of opening even more spaces for reflection and guidance on English education during the practicum can foster other possibilities of thought and autonomy for student-teachers (Castañeda-Trujillo et al., 2022; Garzón-Duarte & Posada-Ortiz, 2020; Quintero-Polo, 2016). Colombian ELT undergraduate programs should then evaluate how they provide student-teachers with professional development, majorly in those topics with a tremendous foundation on foreign macro-narratives, such as multiliteracies, interculturality, language use, theories, and teaching skills. As Castañeda-Trujillo (2021), Fajardo (2013), and García-Chamorro et al. (2022) suggest, to have a more integrated practicum, these programs should urgently start looking into the in-context realities of the English classrooms at all levels (school, university, and language centers) and listening to student-teachers' experiences.

These concerns should also be addressed at the practicum institutions and academic programs. Once they notice the current ELT panorama, they also ought to consider improving the organization of the professional development of student-teachers (Chaves-Varón, 2008). For instance, ELT undergraduate programs should evaluate how student-teachers use conventional approaches and theories (Ubaque-Casallas & Aguirre-Garzón, 2020). Learning how to teach languages should result from combining theory with pedagogical knowledge and practices derived from the practicum experiences (Castañeda-Trujillo, 2021). Then, there is an invitation for academic undergraduate programs to create short and long-term plans to improve the practicum, particularly on teaching performances, responsibilities, problem resolution, respect for peers, collaborative work, and research (García-Chamorro et al., 2020; Ubaque-Casallas & Aguirre-Garzón, 2020). From this viewpoint, the practicum should transcend a curricular subject with pre-established and sequenced contents and demands. As previously stated, it should also be a dynamic process of knowledge and practices in which student-teachers relate themselves collaboratively and reflectively to settle down the essence of the profession in our contexts and communities (Granados-Beltrán, 2016; Lucero & Cortés-Ibañez, 2021; Lucero & Roncancio-Castellanos, 2019; Pinzón-Capador & Guerrero-Nieto, 2018).

Conclusions

The Colombian scholars' conception of student-teachers and the practicum in the local ELT field concisely unveils that student-teachers are subjects expected to reflect on their nascent teaching experiences, always in the process of developing their identity as educators, having knowledge, roles, and responsibilities, and needing to be critical individuals. The practicum is an academic space, process, and experience, but it is always a curricular subject of an EFL undergraduate program. It sustains several purposes for generating practical knowledge. Correspondingly, the practicum requires that student-teachers perform a series of demands (must-be and must-do) around language teaching, reflection, and knowledge construction.

By putting these understandings together, we suggest that the practicum should be a dynamic process of knowledge and practices when educating student-teachers within the practicum community. We are congruent with the Colombian scholarship when they suggest that the practicum should offer opportunities for student-teachers to go beyond established roles and duties, promote reflection, gain insights, and have a voice in their practicum experiences and performance. The invitation is two-fold: first, to continue the study of the set of beliefs and practices of a practicum community regarding language teaching, learning, and assessment, and its dissemination; then, from this one, for academic undergraduate programs to create more plans to improve teaching performance, responsibilities, problem resolution, respect for peers, collaborative work, and research during the practicum. These invitations point toward a reconfiguration of the educational community, its pedagogical discourses, curricular projects, and student-teachers' perspective as producers of pedagogical knowledge in and outside the classroom setting.

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Developing EFL Students' Multimodal Communicative Competence Through Lady Whistledown's Society Papers: A Teaching Proposal

Desarrollo de la competencia comunicativa multimodal de estudiantes de inglés gracias a Lady Whistledown: una propuesta didáctica

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This paper focuses on integrating multimodal communication into the English-as-a-foreign-language classroom to enhance the development of students' multimodal communicative competence, multiliteracies, and 21st-century skills. To do so, I compiled a corpus of authentic materials from Lady Whistledown's Society Papers in Julia Quinn's novel *The Viscount Who Loved Me* (2000), her appearances as narrator in the Netflix series *Bridgerton* (2022), and some tweets posted by @Bridgerton. This corpus was used to plan and design a game-based teaching proposal. Finally, the paper offers a critical analysis and suggests how this proposal can feasibly contribute to fostering students' multimodal communicative competence.

Keywords: digital communicative competence, gamification, multimodality, remediation

Este artículo se centra en la incorporación de elementos multimodales en la clase de inglés para mejorar el desarrollo de las competencias comunicativas multimodales, las alfabetizaciones múltiples y las destrezas del siglo XXI del alumnado. Para ello, se elaboró un corpus basado en las revistas de sociedad de Lady Whistledown en la novela de Julia Quinn *El vizconde que me amó* (2000), sus apariciones como narradora en la serie de Netflix *Bridgerton* (2022) y algunos tuits del perfil @Bridgerton. Este corpus sirvió para diseñar una propuesta didáctica ludificada. Finalmente, se presenta un análisis crítico cuyos resultados confirman la viabilidad de esta propuesta para desarrollar la competencia comunicativa multimodal.

Palabras clave: competencia comunicativa digital, ludificación, multimodalidad, remediación

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Introduction

Youngsters are usually portrayed as people with little interest in reading and writing (Borsheim et al., 2008). Nevertheless, on closer inspection, we must acknowledge that young people undertake reading and writing, albeit mediated by technology, which offers them audiovisual platforms where they read and comment in non-traditional ways (Collier, 2007). Hence, as society gradually evolves and cultural products are consumed and produced in different ways and formats, education must adjust to these changes. Otherwise, teachers would be preparing students for the past rather than for the communicative demands of the future. The world—now and in the coming years—needs citizens "who think creatively, innovatively, critically, independently, with the ability to connect" (Ea, 2016, 2:07). Introducing multimodality in secondary education classrooms in general and English as a foreign language (EFL) in particular can well contribute to developing such skills in the students.

Scholars such as Unsworth (2001) see multimodality as essential for the EFL classroom, as students are presented with texts and discourses that combine different modes of expression. Exposing students to (digital) multimodal texts and asking them to produce them seems to be a great way of raising awareness of the different modes students currently have to construct and convey meaning (Norris, 2004). Likewise, students should be allowed to develop their multiliteracies through digitally mediated communication to guarantee their preparation as today's world literate citizens. Cope and Kalantzis (2009) highlight the significance of equipping students with the skills that will help them become active citizens despite the swift shift in our means of communication. My aim with this paper is to offer a teaching proposal built around a corpus of authentic texts from different modes and media to foster multiliteracy in the EFL classroom. More specifically, this paper seeks to introduce and work on students' multimodal communicative competence in EFL using the Society Papers written by Lady Whistledown, one of the main characters of Julia Quinn's novel *The Viscount Who Loved Me* (2000), a historical romance set in 19th-century England. To do so, I first conducted a lexico-grammatical, discursive, pragmatic, and multimodal analysis of the novel and its subsequent ongoing *remediations*,[1] namely the second season of the series *Bridgerton* (Dunye, 2022) and posts on Twitter. Then, based on such an analysis, I designed a gamified task-based teaching proposal to develop students' multiliteracies, 21st-century skills (i.e., communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity), and multimodal awareness. Besides, the selected topic seems to suit Krajcik and Blumenfeld's (2005) suggestion regarding creating a genuine real-world context where effective learning happens.

Lady Whistledown's writings are clear instances of the phenomenon of gossip, which is "an important social behaviour that nearly everybody experiences, contributes to, and presumably intuitively understands" (Foster, 2004, p. 78). Students may feel motivated by this psychological strategy since, according to Foster (2004), it is something people often experience either as an active agent or an external one while communicating. Its functions involve informational exchanges, leisure activities, persuasion, and social gatherings. Moreover, the shifting technology triggered in society—namely through microblogging services such as Twitter—seems to place this reporting network as an appropriate way to bring new modes of communication into the EFL classroom. Technology may contribute to developing secondary education students' multimodal competence and multiliteracies, especially critical thinking and creativity skills. Considering these things, I selected Julia Quinn's novel and its ensuing remediations—the Netflix series and Twitter profile—as ideal and witty examples. Besides, I decided to use the microblogging service Twitter (which involves several modes such

1 Bolter and Grusin (2000) define *remediation* as "the formal logic by which new media refashion prior media forms" (p. 273).

as audio, visual, verbal, and compositional) as the platform for students to share their tasks, develop their digital competence, and reflect on the implications and affordances of this medium.

Lastly, gamification was integrated to maintain student engagement throughout the learning unit. To do so, the teaching proposal starts with a challenge request: uncovering a scandal. Hence, the lessons will become an escape room where students receive clues as rewards for adequately fulfilling their tasks. This way, at the end of the unit, each group of four students will have personified an imaginary Lady Whistledown's disciple. They will have analysed and produced multiple remediated texts based on the corpus. The learning unit's ultimate goal—and task—concerns uncovering the season's most damning scandal. Hence, students must generate an original digital text imitating Lady Whistledown's speech yet adjust it to the 21st century. Such multimodal text is based on the rewards gained throughout the unit. According to Moura and Lourido-Santos (2019), gamification can be a successful strategy to enhance the learning and teaching process since the game progression is directly linked to the students' need to make choices and formulate hypotheses, which help expand fundamental skills.

Theoretical Framework

Multimodality in the Classroom

Nowadays, communication has become more multimodal due to the emergence of technology. Adami (2017) describes multimodality as a communicative phenomenon that merges semiotic modes. Conventionally, the written text was thought to be the chief manner of producing knowledge. Nonetheless, the current orchestration of embodied and disembodied modes unleashes new text varieties (Kress, 2010) that may be worth using in the EFL classroom. Jewitt (2008), van Leeuwen (2011), and Sewell and Denton (2011) also stress the importance of intertwining modes by giving equal relevance to writing language, typography, colours, sounds, images, and gestures.

Students must be exposed to multimodal input and pushed to produce multimodal output in the EFL classroom (Diamantopoulou & Ørevik, 2021). However, teachers must avoid taking students' proficiency in multimodality for granted (Sewell & Denton, 2011). It cannot be denied that we are continually being bombarded by multimodal input in our daily lives. Nevertheless, students must be given the essential tools to understand and discern the implications hidden in the received multimodal messages (Doering et al., 2007). Additionally, as students can be active learners and producers of digital multimodal texts, teachers must prepare them to do it properly. This may be attained by enhancing their multimodal communicative competence in their L1 and English.

Doering et al. (2007) also claim that when it comes to (digital) multimodal communication, the composing plan entails what people crave to say and how it is said. Thus, students must become aware of "how to go beyond simply creating [digital] multimodal texts" to manage to produce them by "using visual rhetoric to effectively attract, engage, and influence their audiences" (p. 41). The proposal presented here has been precisely planned and designed to promote the use of multimodal authentic texts in the EFL classroom.

Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Learning

Many English teachers have conservatively prioritised the presentation-practice-production teaching method. Nonetheless, according to Richards and Rodgers (2000), communicative language teaching (CLT) should be considered a potential alternative. This functional approach seeks to reinforce the overriding significance of the communication process within the EFL classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2000) and aims to demonstrate the usefulness of learning by doing. Thus, topics must be aligned with the students' interests

(Dörnyei, 1994). Likewise, the focus on form, which is task-dependent, should be taught inductively. Although students' fluency is to be prioritised when using English, accuracy must also be targeted, as errors are essential to the learning process. When implementing this approach, the teacher becomes a facilitator instead of a lecturer, and meaningful communication is promoted in small group interactions (Richards & Rodgers, 2000; Van Avermaet et al., 2006).

As Ellis (2003) indicated, tasks are a crucial element in CLT since their accomplishment presses demands on students to succeed in getting their message through. Similarly, Richards (2013) defines tasks as the features that trigger language learning. Tasks entail meaningful interactions because they mainly focus on conveying meaning in simulated communicative situations that integrate the four linguistic skills and engage cognitive processes. Besides, there must be a clear non-linguistic outcome (Ellis, 2003).

To guide the design of a teaching proposal based on the CLT approach, Willis (1996) established a framework: pre-tasks to introduce the topic and activate previous schemata, tasks, and post-tasks to reflect on the learning process and the final product and develop students' learning-by-doing competence and metacognition. The task-based learning (TBL) approach allows each student to move "from passive to active, from recipient to participant, from customer to citizen" (Livingstone, 2004, p. 20). Students can be involved in real-world contexts by completing tasks and going through task cycles. Hence, they will inductively learn how to express meaning, attend to form, and be offered the opportunity to develop fluency while communicating and collaborating (Willis & Willis, 2007).

Gamification

Sparking students' motivation towards learning is important, yet maintaining this engagement through an extensive period can be far more challenging, especially in secondary education. Gamification may be chosen as an appropriate manner to attain an effective learning process in the teaching context. According to Kapp (2012), gamification is a way to "motivate action and promote learning" (p. 10), the effectiveness of which has been demonstrated in several papers.

Kapp (2012) highlights the significance of storytelling and choosing an avatar when applying gamification principles. This provides the students with context and fosters personal involvement in the situation. Introducing challenges for the students to solve can be an effective strategy to facilitate the process. Challenges imitate the "call to adventure" described by Campbell (1949) following the Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction model[2] since "the simple introduction of a goal adds purpose, focus, and measurable outcomes" (Kapp, 2012, p. 28). By doing so, the three main components that make a game engaging—curiosity, challenge, and fantasy—are attained. Simultaneously, minimally penalising failure and providing students with awards instead of numeric marks enhance students' excitement and willingness to participate and satisfy their curiosity (Dörnyei, 1994). Hence, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are combined. Lastly, experts also highlight the significance of healthily involving conflict, cooperation, and competition through gamification to develop interpersonal competence (Kapp, 2012). This may be particularly profitable in secondary education, where competencies such as leadership, teamwork, active listening, responsibility, verbal and non-verbal communication, and negotiation—among many others—are key.

Multiliteracies and 21st-Century Skills

Formerly, being able to write and read printed texts meant being literate. However, O'Rourke (2005) underscored the current saliency of multiliteracies

2 According to Kapp (2012) this model "will make students feel that it is worth continuing with the effort" (p. 53).

motivated by the demands of the 21st century. This occurred due to the rise and expansion of technology and the ensuing new modes and media of communication. In fact, according to the New London Group (1996), multiliteracies reinforce former pedagogies because they focus on "the multiplicity of communications channels and media, and the increasing saliency of cultural and linguistic diversity" (p. 64). Bruce (1997) highlighted teachers' concerns about whether technology may dissent or replace conventional reading and writing skills. Nowadays, the debate has been overcome since there is general agreement on the importance of becoming a multiliterate person to participate fully in today's society. A multiliterate person refers to someone who is:

> flexible and strategic and can understand and use literacy and literate practices with a range of texts and technologies; in socially responsible ways; in a socially, culturally, and linguistically diverse world; and to fully participate in life as an active and informed citizen. (Borsheim et al., 2008, p. 87)

To attain multiliteracy, the KSVA[3] model (Binkley et al., 2012) groups ten needed skills of the multiliterate 21st-century citizens into four categories: ways of thinking, ways of working, tools for working, and living in the world. The first comprises creativity and innovations, critical thinking, problem-solving and decision-making, and learning to learn and metacognition. The second category involves communication and collaboration. The third one includes information and literacy in information and communications technology, and the fourth encompasses citizenship, local and global knowledge, life and career, and personal and social responsibility. However, these categories seem to go further to give more prominence to creativity and critical thinking skills.

Even though the ten skills are highly significant nowadays, four are catalogued as outstanding; they are the 4 Cs: communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity. Their development may have a massive impact on students' success when coping with the demands of the current professional world (Thornhill-Miller et al., 2023). It should also be developed in the EFL (secondary education) classroom.

Method

Context and Participants

The designed learning unit is entitled *What a Scandal!*, and it integrates 16 lessons of 55 minutes each (see Appendix for a lesson sample). This unit aims to introduce multimodal ensembles in the secondary education EFL classroom to develop students' multiliteracies and 21st-century skills. To create this teaching proposal, I compiled a corpus of authentic texts around Lady Whistledown's Society Papers published in Julia Quinn's novel *The Viscount Who Loved Me* (2000). Brief opening sections illustrate Lady Whistledown's gossip columns published for her contemporaries. They provide the readers with a brief context for each chapter. The corpus also included the novel's subsequent remediations, namely Lady Whistledown's appearances as narrator in the second season of the Netflix series *Bridgerton* (2022). Additionally, tweets posted between the 8th of February 2021 and the 28th of March 2022 on the Twitter account @Bridgerton (https://n9.cl/eifza) were gathered. Both remediated texts were manually compiled from the official Netflix platform and Twitter account.

The resulting teaching proposal is meant to be implemented in a Spanish school, and it was designed for students in the fourth year of secondary education (equivalent to the 10th grade in other contexts). This year of compulsory education consists of four weekly sessions of 55 minutes. This means that the learning unit could be implemented in one school month.

3 KSVA stands for Knowledge, Skills, Values, and Attitudes.

Corpus Compilation

I collected a corpus for analysis and to be able to base my proposal on authentic material following these criteria:

1. Are the texts ongoing and authentic?
2. Is the topic meaningful and potentially engaging?
3. Are the texts exploitable and feasible?

Firstly, I compiled a corpus considering Lady Whistledown's columns from the novel, part of a saga published between 2000 and 2006. Nonetheless, the second book seemed to be the most fitting alternative since its Netflix remediation was aired on the 25th of March 2022. Hence, I manually transcribed and collected Lady Whistledown's appearances as narrator in the second season of the Netflix hit *Bridgerton*. Equally, as I meant to have several authentic materials to be brought into the classroom, tweets posted between the 8th of February 2021 and the 28th of March 2022 were extracted. To do so, I took screenshots and copied the links to the tweets. I aimed to select an appealing and culturally relevant corpus. Hence, thanks to characters such as Kate and Eloise, this story allowed me to deal with sociocultural aspects and Sustainable Development Goal[4] number 5 (gender equality) in an original and motivating manner. Finally, Lady Whistledown's discourse exhibits a vast richness. The Netflix series may be deemed an accurate source because it implies distinct audiovisual materials, topics, and digital features to be brought into the EFL classroom. Similarly, not having read or watched the first book or season does not affect the comprehension of this sequel, which makes my proposal's development rather feasible.

Tools for the Analysis

As the theoretical framework shows, my main aim was to design an original and engaging teaching proposal following CLT and TBL principles in which students innovatively face authentic multimodal remediated texts from a receptive and productive point of view. To do so, I considered multimodality and Sustainable Development Goal number 5: gender equality. While working on it, students will develop their 21st-century skills and multiliteracies.

Once the teaching proposal was planned and designed, I evaluated how it aligned with the intended theoretical and methodological principles presented in the Literature Review section. Thus, I created a checklist (see Table 1) to evaluate this and other proposals that could be designed following similar principles.

4 The United Nations General Assembly presented what is known as the 2030 Agenda. It aims to transform the world by establishing a plan of action over 17 Sustainable Development Goals (https://sdgs.un.org/).

Table 1. Checklist for the Analysis of the Teaching Proposal

Multimodality	1. Is the selected topic original and potentially engaging for teenagers (e.g., relevant or in line with their interests)?
	2. Does the corpus contain authentic multimodal original and remediated texts/ ensembles from various sources?
Remediation	3. Does this teaching proposal deal with original and remediated texts from different media?
Multiliteracies, Sustainable Development Goals, and 21st-century skills	4. Does this teaching proposal develop students' multiliteracies?
	5. Does this teaching proposal develop any Sustainable Development Goals?
	6. Does this teaching proposal develop students' 21st-century skills?
Communicative language teaching and task-based learning	7. Does this teaching proposal follow the principles of the communicative approach?
	8. Does this teaching proposal follow the task-based learning approach?
	9. Are the aims of the pre-tasks, tasks, and post-tasks clearly defined?
	10. Are the tasks meaningful and purposeful?
	11. Are the tasks suggested adequate for the stage?
Practical aspects	12. Are the steps and instructions of the teaching proposal coherent and understandable?
	13. Is this teaching proposal in line with the assessment criteria?
	14. Overall, is the teaching proposal innovative?
	15. Is the teaching proposal feasible and exploitable for the EFL classroom?
Gamification	16. Is the aim of the gamified teaching proposal to engage action and encourage learning while solving problems?
	17. Does the teaching proposal provide a meaningful context for the presentation of tasks?

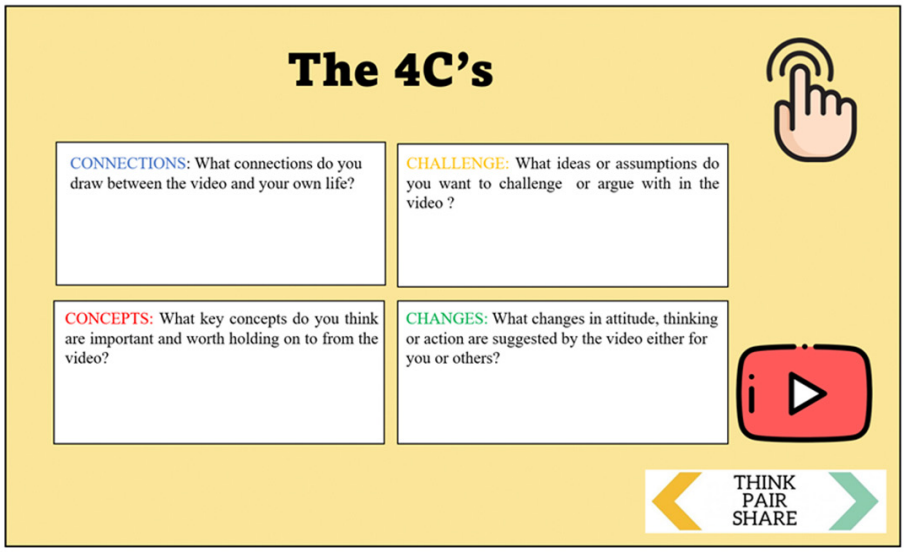
The Teaching Proposal: *What a Scandal!*

This section will first show a description of the designed teaching proposal. Then, its evaluation will be presented.

Description of the Teaching Proposal

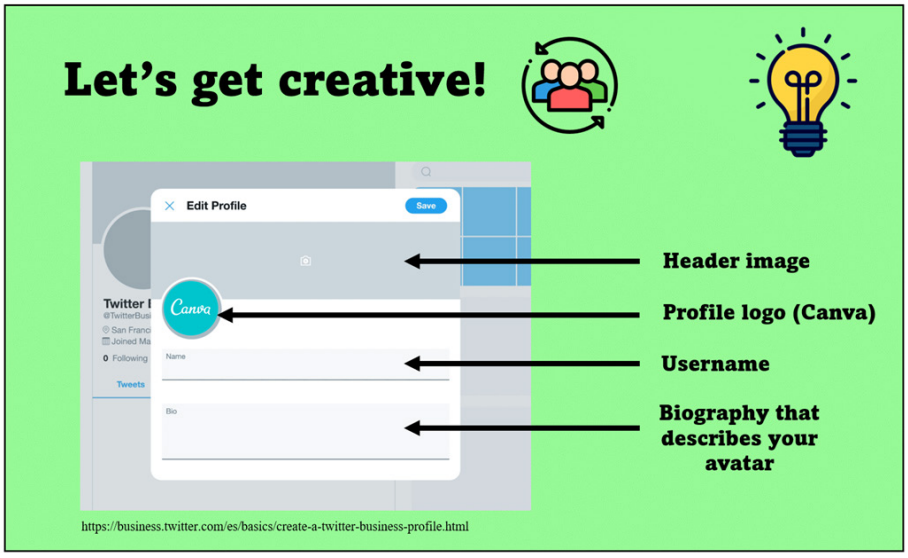
As explained above, the designed learning unit consists of four weekly sessions of 55 minutes and is oriented towards 15 to 16-year-old Spanish students from the fourth year of secondary education (10th grade). The unit revolves around a mystery set in the Regency era that must be solved. Lady Whistledown will send students a letter requiring their audacity to uncover the most damning scandal of the season. Students must complete diverse tasks leading them to seven clues they must interpret correctly. The 16 lessons of the unit follow the sequence of activation, input, practice, creation, and reflection (see Figure 1). Each "creation task" (eight) will be part of the summative assessment defining each student's final mark.

Figure 1. Example of Activation Task From Lesson 9: Equality is the Diamond of the Season (Own Elaboration)



First, students will have to form groups of four. Each team will personify an imaginary Lady Whistledown's disciple. Hence, creativity and inventiveness will already be fostered in the first two lessons, when students will be asked to invent an avatar representing them as a team and give it a name, a personality, and an image. Each team must also design a corporate Twitter profile according to their avatar. There, their tasks will be posted, and mutual feedback will be given to and received by the rest of the groups. To design each Twitter profile, scaffolding will be provided, such as the example in Figure 2, in which the structure of a Twitter profile is shown to support students' production/completion of the task.

Figure 2. Scaffolding Used for the Design of a Twitter Profile (Own Elaboration)

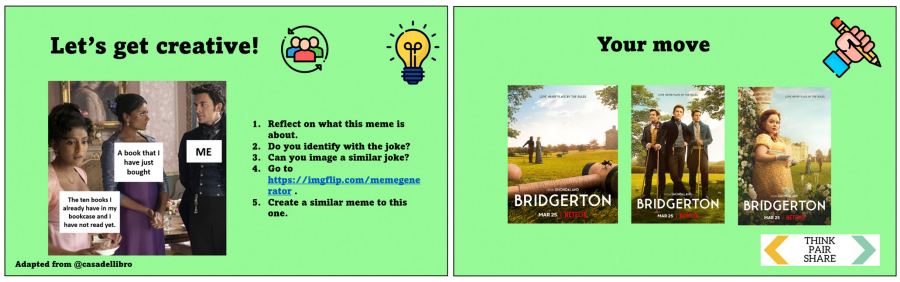


Next, the students will gradually work on Lady Whistledown's idiosyncratic use of the verbal mode. The aim is that, at the end of the unit, the students will be able to produce their gossip column, just as the character does. However, since Lady Whistledown belongs to the Regency era, students must adjust their writings to their century and share them on Twitter without losing the original tone. To help them do it, they will be instructed to focus on visual analysis, engagement markers, evaluative language, specific jargon, syntax, figurative language, politeness, implicatures, and Twitter affordances, among many other features. Using materials that attempt to simulate the Regency era, the student's cultural awareness and expression competence may be developed when working with the three media brought into the classroom. This topic also allows students to focus and reflect on social and civic issues related to gender (in)equality and the responsible use of social media. The idea of working on the risks and rules of social media is also intertwined with digital competence. Notably, being competent digitally means using these platforms adequately and ethically to become excellent digital citizens (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Example of Pre-Task to Develop Digital Competence (Own Elaboration)

Two of the major strengths of this teaching proposal are the originality and richness of the genres on which it is based. In this case, students will be approaching a social behaviour they may have experienced, which will provide them with a sense of familiarity. Simultaneously, they will be using authentic original and remediated materials from three diverse media that may strike them as motivating—a novel, a Netflix series, and Twitter posts—while opening a range of possibilities to successfully learn how to communicate in English. These materials allow the teacher to bring rich multimodal input into the classroom. Students will receive and produce the sort of input and output typically found in the current digital and multimodal world in which they live, such as posters, memes, or clips, among many others. Figure 4 shows an example of a task where students must analyse three promotional posters designed by Netflix and recreate memes about Bridgerton.

Figure 4. Examples of Tasks to Develop Students' Multimodality (Own Elaboration)



The final task will involve sharing the scandal uncovered by the students after discerning the clues in their gossip Twitter column. To prepare students for this, they will first collaboratively carry out Venn diagrams comparing Lady Whistledown's use of the verbal mode in the novel, the series, and the Twitter profile, as well as the timelines, voice recordings, Twitter threats, memes, class debates, among others. By doing so, the students will be able to integrate not only the new contents of each lesson but also the ones already targeted in the previous ones. Hence, at the end of the unit, they will have become genuine Lady Whistledown's disciples. As a final reward, they will be given a congratulatory letter and a certificate (see Figure 5).

To assess students, appropriate assessment criteria are proposed whose aim is to intertwine self and peer assessment while focusing on both the process and the final product thanks to the design of a formative and summative assessment tool. The reason is to avoid judging just one final product that may be affected by many non-educational factors like emotions or context. Table 2 includes the items to be assessed and the corresponding marking criteria. Each task will be evaluated following either a checklist or a rubric.

Table 2. Task and Marking Criteria (Own Elaboration)

Item to be assessed	Marking percentage
Task 1: Create a Twitter account Task completion, creativity, style, and the process (collaboration skills)	10%
Task 2: Timeline Task completion, visual-verbal mode, multimodal and digital literacy, style, and the process (collaboration skills)	10%
Task 3: Post a thread on Twitter Task completion, digital mode, multimodal and digital literacy, style, and the process (collaboration skills)	10%
Task 4: Share a Vocaroo on Twitter Task completion, critical thinking, speaking skills, style, and the process (collaboration skills)	10%
Task 5: Gender equality Task completion, critical thinking, style, and the process (collaboration skills)	10%
Task 6: Incomplete text Task completion, creativity, critical thinking, style, and the process (collaboration skills)	10%
Task 7: Post a meme on Twitter Task completion, digital and pragmatic literacy, creativity, critical thinking, style, and the process (collaboration skills)	10%
Task 8: Uncover the scandal Communication, creativity, and critical thinking content, visual resources and Twitter affordances, use of English, Lady Whistledown's style, informal linguistic features related to the selected media (Twitter), effort and cooperation	20%
Interest and participation Cooperative work, participation, commitment, and interest during the activities not catalogued as "creation tasks," including self-evaluation (through thinking routines) and peer-evaluation (through the two stars and a wish, glow and grow, and TAG techniques)	10%

Note: TAG = Tell a thing you liked, Ask a question, and Give a suggestion

After the completion of each main task, students will be provided with the following marking criteria:

- Exceeds expectations (EE): Students show an excellent deep understanding, reflection, and command of the lesson's contents.
- Meets expectations (ME): Students adequately understand, reflect, and command the lesson's contents.
- Needs improvement (NI): Students lack understanding, reflection, and command of the lesson's contents. The main goals have not been achieved.

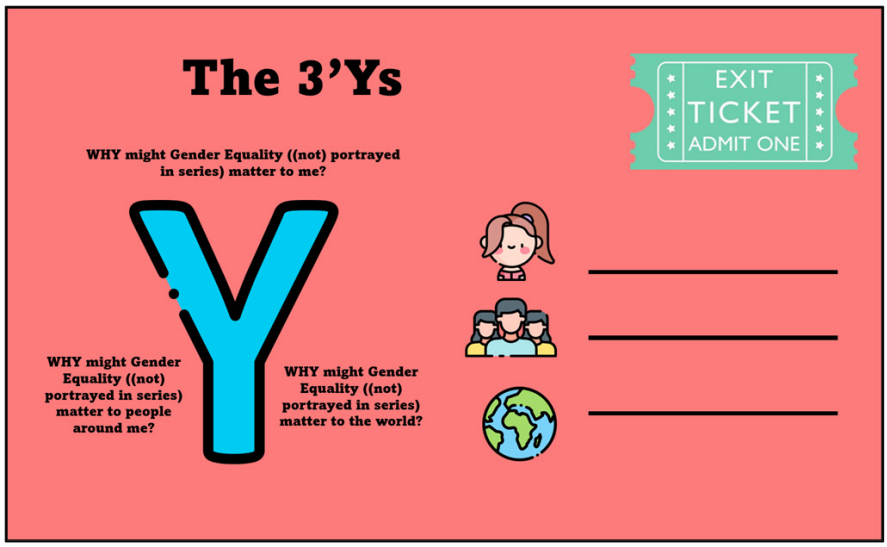
If students obtain an NI in any of the first seven tasks, they can submit a new version to compensate for the previous mark and get the corresponding clue. Regarding the two last items (Task 8 and Interest and participation), the students will not have room for improvement.

Evaluation of the Teaching Proposal

This teaching proposal aims to develop students' multiliteracies by encouraging them to absorb and produce multimodal content related to diverse media.

In addition, it attempts to integrate and work on 21st-century skills—particularly the so-called four Cs (critical thinking, creative thinking, communicating, and collaborating)—when working in groups to critically reflect on the features and matters presented in each lesson to display their thoughts on resourceful and imaginative digital multimodal products. The teaching proposal intends to improve students' verbal communicative competence by working on the command of lexis and grammar during debates, group discussions, or reception and production tasks such as Twitter posts. Likewise, students are expected to develop their sense of initiative and entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn competencies. This may be achieved thanks to, for instance, tasks that involve students planning and executing a task autonomously to reflect on the importance of the matters developed (e.g., reflecting on sociocultural aspects like gender inequality) or to carry out self and peer evaluation. This is commonly done through thinking routines (such as the 3-2-1 bridge, traffic light reflection, or the 3Ys; see Figure 6),[5] which can be included in a post-task phase.

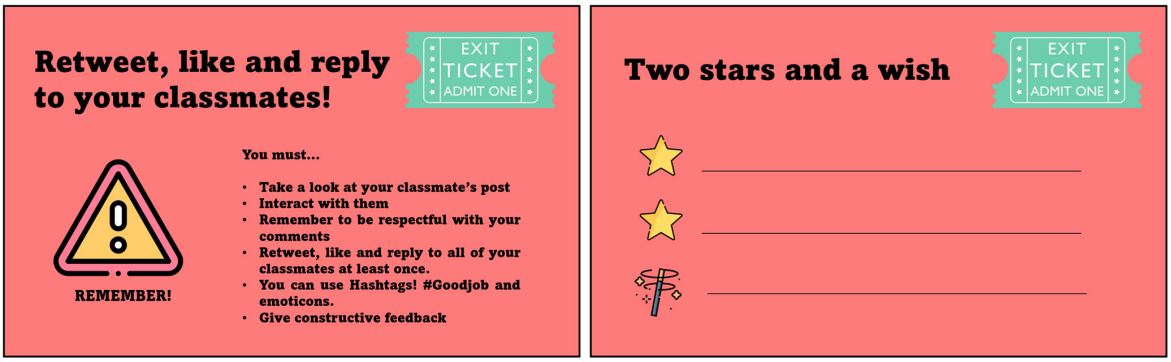
Figure 6. Exit Ticket: Adaptation of the 3Ys (Own Elaboration)



The student's critical thinking and learning-to-learn competencies can also be developed using feedback techniques. As a scaffolding, students will be asked to follow routines such as the two stars and a wish (see Figure 7), the glow and grow, and the TAG ones. The routines will be accomplished by reading the products the rest of the teams share to learn from them and contribute to other teams' learning process by displaying the positive and negative features encountered. The students will also have to evaluate their learning process and self-evaluate themselves. These techniques are proposed for the post-task stage. By doing so, students may develop their communicative competence and critical thinking skills as they are asked to reflect not only on their process but also on their final product.

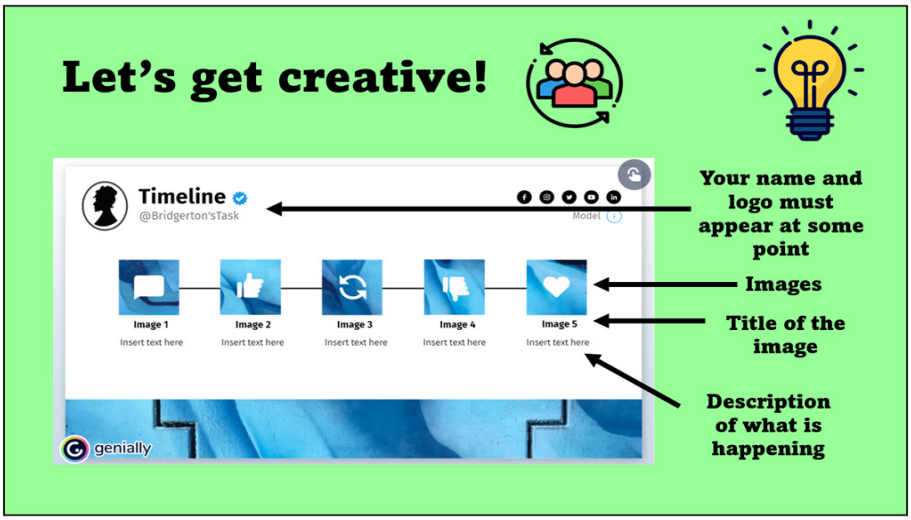
5 These routines can be taken and adapted from the websites Thinking Pathways (https://thinkingpathwayz.weebly.com/) and Project Zero (https://pz.harvard.edu/thinking-routines).

Figure 7. Exit Ticket: Two Stars and a Wish (Own Elaboration)



Furthermore, students can also develop their multiliteracies by working on digital tools and platforms to receive and produce content dutifully, creatively, and autonomously through platforms such as Twitter (or Padlet[6]), Genial.ly (see Figure 8), Canva, Vocaroo, Socrative, Google Forms, AnswerGraden, Mentimeter, or Kahoot. Whereas the first four platforms are managed by students and used to complete some tasks, the last five are designed by the teacher and used in a receptive manner.

Figure 8. Timetable Elaborated With Genial.ly (Own Elaboration)



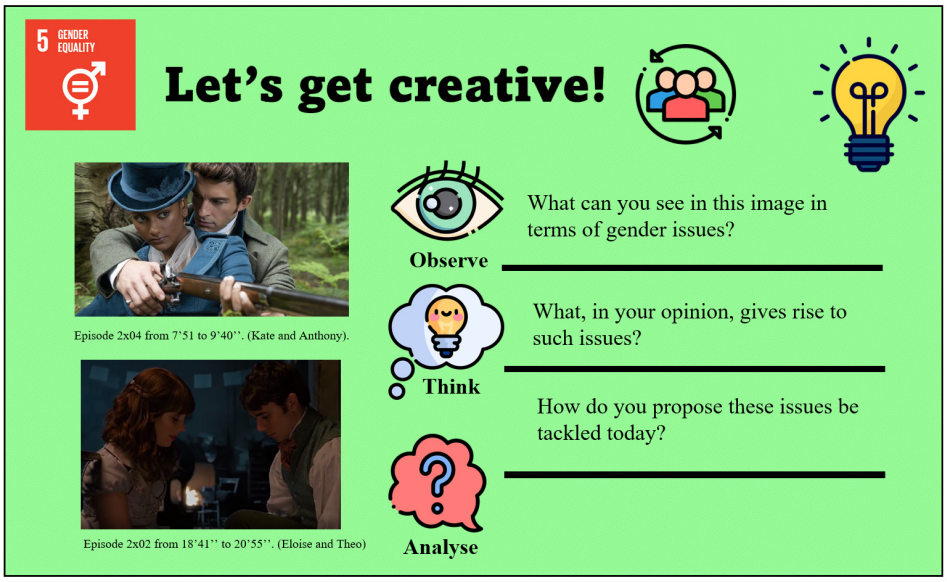
Additionally, most tasks in the learning unit are meant to be completed in groups while the teacher guides and facilitates learning. Therefore, the autonomous and cooperative learning style encouraged will presumably allow students to exchange ideas and strategies, easing, in this way, the process of activating previous schemata and connecting it with new knowledge, as learning theories highlight the importance of making such connections and stress meaningfulness.

Regarding the Sustainable Development Goals, Lessons 9 and 10 can be devoted to goal 5: gender

6 In case Twitter may seem to be inappropriate or inaccessible, students can be required to create a Padlet that simulates a Twitter profile thanks to the affordances this platform provides to its users.

equality. The students can deal with gender stereotypes, inequality, and microaggressions (such as those in episodes 2x02 and 2x04 of the Netflix series). To do so, some scenes of the series can be shown for students to analyse, reflect on, and denounce situations of gender inequality (see Figure 9). Besides, students must compare such behaviours to their current society to find parallels and divergences among the epochs.

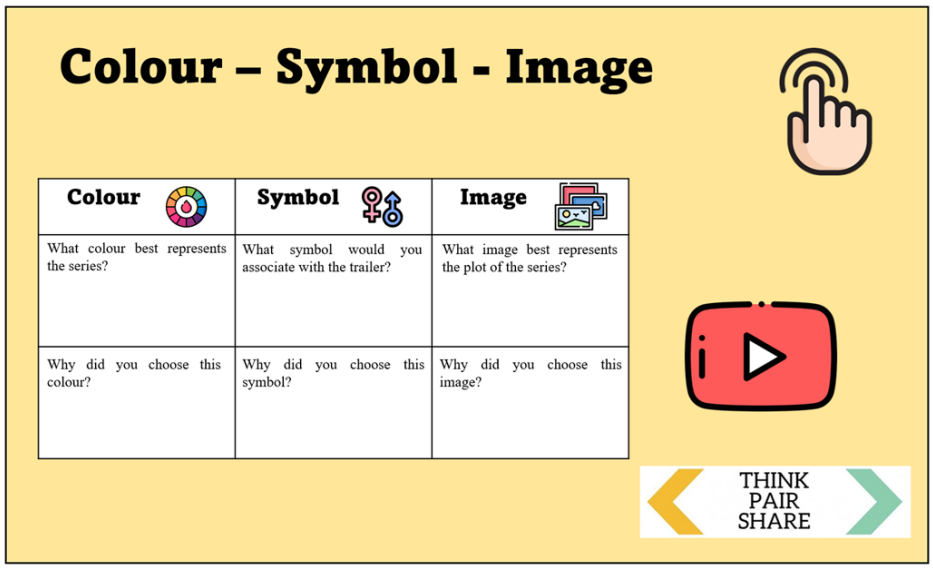
Figure 9. Example of Task Concerning Gender Inequality (Own Elaboration)



Simultaneously, emotional intelligence also figures prominently when analysing Lady Whistledown's self-righteousness because students can develop their empathy by focusing on the effect her words may have on the feelings of others. It seems to have great relevance, considering that these are adolescent students.

The students' active learning is fostered through completing tasks where they are active agents instead of passive ones (as has traditionally been the case). Instances of this are tasks that involve think-pair-share strategies, peer or group evaluations, or group discussions, among others. Figure 10, for instance, shows how students must work collaboratively to provide reasons for the selection, prominence, and implicitness of visual features regarding logos.

Figure 10. Example of a Pre-Task Where Students Follow the Think-Pair-Share Strategy (Own Elaboration)



Likewise, in this learning unit, students will have to analyse real-life situations, solve problems, and discover inductively how language is used (see, for instance, Figure 11, where students are required to deal with the jargon employed by Lady Whistledown). The students are further asked to create tweets of diverse purposes and include different media, like timelines, recorders, multimodal narrations, and memes (see Figure 12), rather than just applying the teachers' theoretical explications.

Figure 11. Example of Inductive Learning (Own Elaboration)

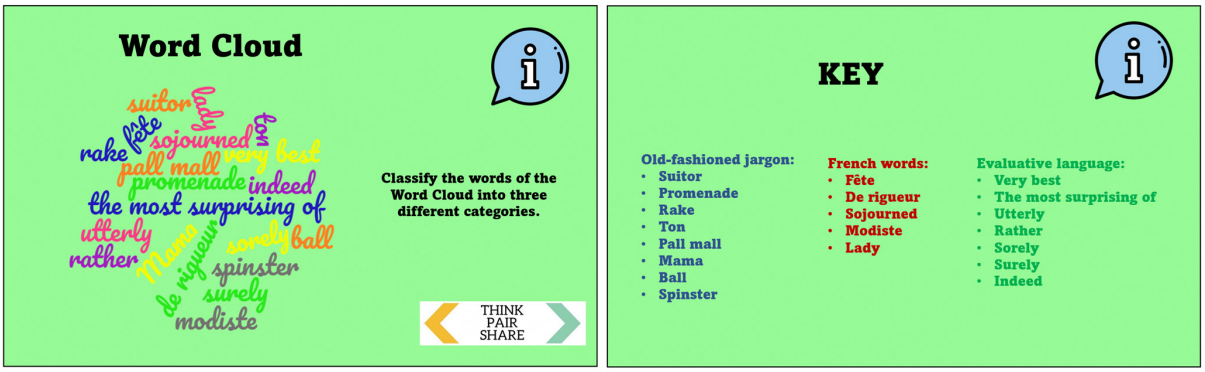
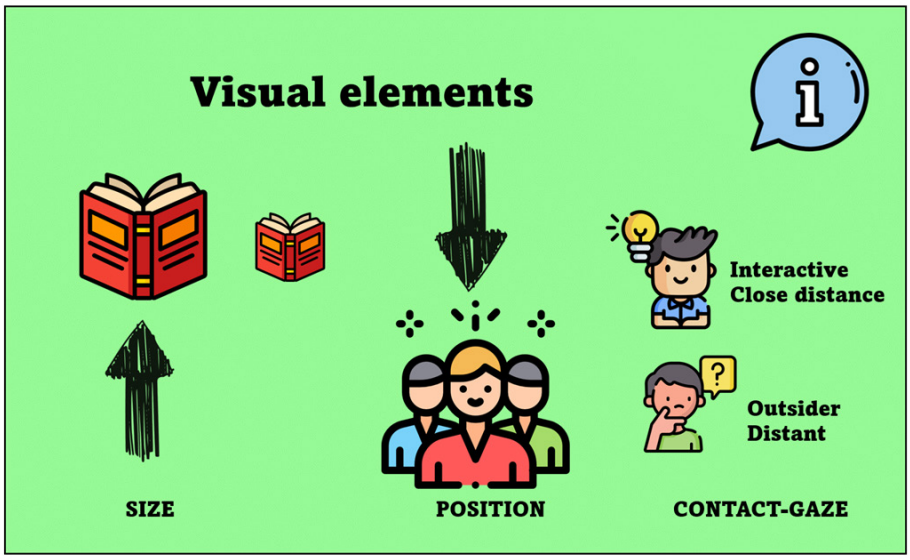


Figure 12. Example of Tweet: Vocaroo (Own Elaboration)

As regards the exploitability and feasibility of the teaching proposal, there may be some foreseeable difficulty for students when implementing it (e.g., being asked to focus on pragmatic features or to learn about specific affordances). Some texts might also be challenging due to their inner characteristics, such as the ones related to figurative language or the culture of the meme and visual analysis. Nevertheless, these issues may be solved with scaffolding techniques aligned with the learning goals that will guide students through the process (see Figure 13). Those techniques are visual aids like charts, models, adapted thinking routines to activate previous schemata and check understanding, or think-pair-share techniques to promote participation and repeat information if needed. Besides, students can use context to infer meaning.

Figure 13. Examples of Types of Scaffolding (Own Elaboration)



Following Kapp (2012), failure is minimally penalised, allowing students to satisfy their curiosity fearlessly. To conclude the unit, students will have to interpret all the clues collected (see Figure 14 for a sample clue) through the 16 lessons to solve the mystery of what was stolen and who did it. Students will have to complete one last task where they will completely imitate Lady Whistledown's verbal mode. They will have to publish the resolution of the mystery as the most damning scandal of the season.

Figure 14. Example of Clue (Own Elaboration)

Through the completion of many diverse tasks, the teaching proposal aims to develop students' competence, multiliteracies, and 21st-century skills and prepare them in a dynamic and positive environment to communicate multimodally in English in the digital world they are and will be immersed in.

Conclusions

Nowadays, students are constantly consuming different sorts of audiovisual communication due to the pervasiveness of social media. Hence, teaching them how these interactions operate seems to be an excellent manner of preparing them to be more proficient and effective in multimodal (digital) communication. Additionally, introducing a contemporary and different topic, such as the *Bridgerton* saga, in a gamified manner in the EFL classroom may break the monotony. Furthermore, making students discuss the parallels and divergences between the original novel and its current remediations may enhance their cultural knowledge and communicative skills. Diamantopoulou and Ørevik (2021) precisely claim that bringing resources related to pop culture, like TV series or social media interactions, "can be used as compelling sources of cultural and subversive topics" (p. 10) to ponder social values.

Therefore, the teaching proposal presented here may activate students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation while contributing to developing their communicative multimodal competence, their multiliteracies, and their 21st-century skills, namely, critical thinking and creativity. Karatza (2022) stresses the significance of multimodal analysis when developing students' critical thinking in the classroom. Moreover, the students' digital competence will also be developed, making them aware of the significance of being effective digital citizens and preparing them for the demands of their society.

Furthermore, during the learning process, the students can reflect on Sustainable Development Goal number 5, which can be easily integrated into the EFL classroom, an excellent challenge for schools, especially for secondary education students. The aim is to make them aware of microaggressions, or what is known as benevolent sexism, and gender inequalities in order to be able to halt them when detected. It is also worth mentioning that EFL teachers need to be trained in multimodal and digitally mediated communication to integrate these concepts in the classroom. In other words, this teaching proposal may be equally beneficial to students and teachers.

To conclude, I do not want to make the error of presenting this teaching proposal as a utopic one that may indeed be successful. I know the differences that educational contexts and even groups in the same school may offer, especially regarding their level and

specific needs. However, I also consider that providing students with diverse kinds of scaffolding techniques may bring a response to all the extra difficulties they might face. Hence, this proposal may engage students to work in a gamified, cooperative, alternative, and original manner in the EFL classroom.

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About the Author

Beatriz P. Rubio-López is a secondary education teacher in Zaragoza, Spain. She received a bachelor's degree in English Studies and a master's in Education from Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain. She is interested in students' development of multimodal communicative competence, multiliteracies, and 21st-century skills in the EFL classroom.

Appendix: Lesson Sample, What a Scandal!

Lessons 1 and 2: Dearest gentle reader…

Stage	Activity	Aims	Procedure	Time
Pre-task	Activation: Gossip	• To engage with and motivate the students. • To make students share and express their opinions in a class debate.	Individually, students scan a QR code to do a Wordle (https://mywordle.strivemath.com). Once they discover the hidden word (gossip), they reflect on it. To do so, they answer three questions: "What have you found out?", "What does it mean?" and "How do you think it will be connected to the unit?" Then, students share it with a classmate and, eventually, with the rest of the class through a think-pair-share thinking routine.	6'
	Activation: Colour-Symbol-Image	• To engage with and motivate the students. • To activate students' previous schemata. • To develop students' listening skills.	Students watch Bridgerton's trailer to get familiarised with the plot and the characters. Then, individually, they complete a task following the thinking routine Colour-Symbol-Image. Students choose a colour, create a symbol, and sketch an image representing the trailer's essence.	10'
	Activation: Lady Whistledown	• To present students the unifying thread of the Learning Unit.	The teacher briefly introduces the character of Lady Whistledown to the students since she is directly related to all the tasks they will carry out. Then, in a class debate, students show their first impressions of Lady Whistledown.	6'
	Activation: The Challenge	• To challenge, engage with, and motivate the students. • To provide students with instructions for the whole unit.	In their respective groups, students read a fictional Lady Whistledown's column, where they are asked to accept a challenge (uncovering the most damning scandal of the season). Then, the teacher explains to them that they will have to publish some tasks on their group's Twitter account throughout the learning unit. If the task is carried out successfully, they will receive a clue to uncover the already-mentioned scandal.	10'

Stage	Activity	Aims	Procedure	Time
Task	Input: Visual analysis	• To raise students' awareness of the importance of visual elements. • To identify the meaning of non-verbal elements. • To draw students' attention to different modes of meaning-making.	The teacher highlights the importance of visuals to the students with an example. Students see and read the poster and notice they followed the same expected order when designing it. Hence, they will realise how conditioned we are when receiving any input. Then, the teacher explains the theory (considering visual analysis) and shares a file to guide the students.	10'
	Practice: Visual analysis	• To develop students' visual literacy by analysing/exploring specific symbols. • To make students share and express their opinions in a class debate.	Individually, students have to put the theory into practice to check their understanding. To do so, they complete a chart about the meaning hidden behind some well-known logos. Then, they share it with a classmate and, eventually, with the rest of the class (think, pair, share).	6'
	Input: Engagement markers	• To identify the primary and secondary ideas of multimodal texts. • To identify engagement markers within multimodal texts. • To make students share and express their opinions in a class debate.	Students watch Lady Whistledown's first lines of Episode 2x01. They have the script to make it easier for them. Firstly, they must understand the main ideas (think, pair, share). Secondly, they must vote in Mentimeter about when to use the engagement marker. Then, considering the results of the Mentimeter activity, they highlight in the script features Lady Whistledown uses when addressing the audience.	10'
	Practice: Engagement markers	• To focus on form. • To make students share and express their opinions in a class debate.	Individually, students put the theory into practice to check their understanding. To do so, they do a Kahoot about the different types of engagement markers from the novel and the series in some instances. After doing it, they discuss orally what the selection of those linguistic features implies (is the character closer to the reader?).	7'

Stage	Activity	Aims	Procedure	Time
Task	Creation: Main task, Twitter account	• To encourage students to work cooperatively and collaboratively. • To develop students' creativity. • To encourage students to participate in democratic decision-making. • To develop students' digital and multimodal competence.	Students are asked to turn into Lady Whistledown's contemporary disciples. To do so, they are arranged in groups of four. They create a group username, write down their biography (considering engagement markers), look for a header image, and design a logo with Canva (considering the visual analysis). They are guided with a file and can use the previous Colour-Symbol-Image file to share their ideas and decide what image they want to display.	40'
Post-task	Reflection: 3-2-1 bridge [a]	• To encourage students to evaluate and reflect on their learning process. • To receive feedback from students. • To develop students' learning to learn competence and metacognition.	To conclude the session, students design an Exit Ticket to reflect on the lesson (3-2-1 bridge, reflection…) and hand it in at the end.	5'

[a] Adapted from Thinking Pathways (https://thinkingpathwayz.weebly.com/) and Project Zero (https://pz.harvard.edu/thinking-routines)

Guidelines for Contributors

PROFILE

Issues in Teachers' Professional Development

This journal is led by the PROFILE research group at Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras—Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Bogotá campus. It is a publication mainly concerned with sharing the results of classroom research projects, reflections, and innovations undertaken by teachers of English as a second or foreign language as well as by teacher educators and novice teacher-researchers. Starting from the assumption that our professional knowledge is enriched by different members of our academic community, the journal welcomes papers from different parts of the world, diverse educational levels, and wide-ranging contexts. In sum, the *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development* journal (Henceforth *Profile*) belongs to the area of education; it deals with topics regarding the learning and teaching of English as a second or foreign language and teacher education in the same field. It is addressed to an international readership of pre- and in-service teachers.

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Excerpts, appendices, quotes, and other long pieces of information should be translated into English, indicating in a footnote the original language and that the translation was made for publication purposes. The original language of excerpts can be kept only when it is necessary for the objectives of the study; in this case, an English translation should also be provided. When the samples from participants are just texts, these should be transcribed. Text should never be pasted as an image (unless the characteristics of the study require it).

All quoted material must be cited as such in the text. All references cited in the text must be in the list of references, and all works included in the references section must be cited in the text. Authors should only include the works that were consulted during the development of the study and the composition of the manuscript, avoiding the excessive use of secondary sources. Material that is cited within an excerpt or a direct quotation (except when such material is also a primary source in the manuscript) should not be included in the list of references.

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Self-citation or similarity with other sources should not be over 15% of all of the material quoted throughout the text. Plagiarism occurs when the authors do not give proper credit in the manuscript to the work of others. Similarly, self-plagiarism is the failure of the authors to correctly cite their own previous work (if this is used within the article), and has the same consequences as in plagiarism cases. Manuscripts will be screened with a similarity-detector software at two points: When they are first submitted to the journal, and after the evaluation process is finished and the reviewers recommend publication.

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Table 1. Ways of Doing Compositions

Figure 2. Results of the Diagnostic Survey

Appendix A: Lesson Plan Sample

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References

The works cited in the text and the list of references should follow the guidelines of the APA Style (7th edition). The list of references is arranged in hanging indentation (the first line of each reference is flush left and subsequent lines are indented.) Only sources that can be accessed or recovered in any way (even when access is restricted) should appear on the reference list. Sources that cannot be recovered by the reader should be treated as personal communications.

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Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (M. Bergman Ramos, Trans.). Bloomsbury. (Original work published 1968)

Ministerio de Educación Nacional. (n.d.). *Lineamientos curriculares para el área de idiomas extranjeros en la*

educación básica y media [Curriculum guidelines for foreign language teaching in basic and secondary education]. https://bit.ly/3d2by05

Chapter in an Edited Book

Richards, J. C. (2012). Competence and performance in language teaching. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to pedagogy and practice in second language teaching* (pp. 46–56). Cambridge University Press.

Conference Session or Paper Presentation

Inbar-Lourie, O. (2017, July 17–21). *Language assessment literacies and the language testing community: A mid-life identity crisis?* [Conference session]. 39th Language Testing Research Colloquium, Bogotá, Colombia. https://www.iltaonline.com/page/2017InvitedPlenaries

Proceedings Published in Book Form

Bailey, K. M. (2004). Plenary: Language teaching journals and reflective teaching. In A. Pulverness (Ed.), *IATEFL 2003 Brighton Conference Selections* (pp. 80–91). International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language.

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UNICEF. (n.d.). *Education under attack*. Retrieved January 19, 2020, from https://www.unicef.org/education-under-attack

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PROFILE

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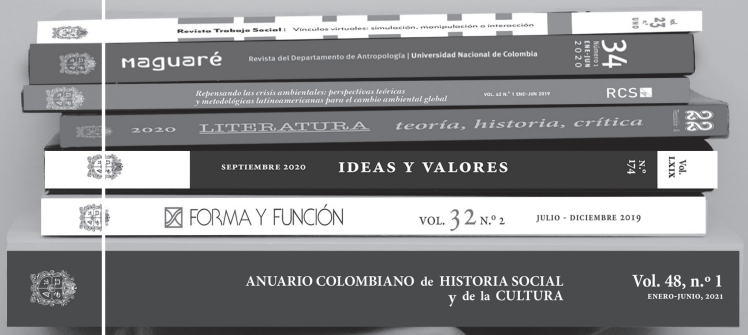

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