
P R O
F 28 I
L E
Number 1

ISSN 1657-0790 (*printed*) 2256-5760 (*online*)

PROFILE

Issues in Teachers' Professional Development

Vol. 28, No. 1, January-June 2026
Facultad de Ciencias Humanas
Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras
Grupo de Investigación PROFILE

WWW.PROFILE.UNAL.EDU.CO

Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, a refereed journal, encourages the dissemination of classroom research projects and innovations by teachers of English, and is published twice a year (in January and July). It is currently registered in Scopus, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, Latindex (catálogo 2.0), EBSCO, Informe Académico, Academic OneFile, Red Iberoamericana de Innovación y Conocimiento Científico (REDIB), the Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ), and Dialnet. It is indexed in the MLA International Bibliography, Educational Research Abstracts online (ERA), the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), the Emerging Sources Citation Index (Clarivate Analytics), the European Reference Index for the Humanities and the Social Sciences (ERIH PLUS), IRESIE, LatAm Plus, Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts database (LLBA), Redalyc, SciELO Citation Index (Web of Science), Citas Latinoamericanas en Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades (CLASE), Publindex - Minciencias (classified in **category A1**), and Scimago Journal Rank (SJR) 2024: Quartile 1 (Linguistics and Language), Quartile 2 (Education).

Please send all correspondence to the journal Editor:
Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras, Grupo de Investigación PROFILE
Universidad Nacional de Colombia.
Ciudad Universitaria.
Carrera 30 No. 45-03, Bogotá, Colombia

Website: www.revistas.unal.edu.co/index.php/profile
Phone: 57 (601) 3165000 ext. 16780
Email: rprofile_fchbog@unal.edu.co

CENTRO EDITORIAL
FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS HUMANAS
www.humanas.unal.edu.co
Ciudad Universitaria, Carrera 30 # 45-03, Edificio de Posgrados de la Facultad de Ciencias Humanas (225), sótano.
Bogotá, D. C., Colombia
Copy-editing: Nathalie Barrientos Preciado
Coordinator of the School Periodicals: Julián David Morales
Design Coordinator: Michael Cárdenas
Design: Alejandro Sepúlveda Gauer

PROFILE IS REGISTERED IN

Scopus

Scopus
https://www.scopus.com/sourceid/21100886398

ULRICHSWEB GLOBAL SERIALS DIRECTORY

Ulrich's Periodicals Directory
http://www.ulrichsweb.com/ulrichsweb/

latindex

Latindex (catálogo 2.0)
https://latindex.org/latindex/ficha/12158

EBSCO EBSCO GOES GREEN

EBSCO
https://www.ebscohost.com/titleLists/eue-coverage.htm

GALE CENGAGE Learning

Informe Académico
https://www.gale.com/intl/c/informe-academico

GALE CENGAGE Learning

Academic OneFile
https://www.gale.com/intl/databases/gale-onefile

REDIB

Red Iberoamericana de Innovación y Conocimiento Científico (REDIB)
https://www.redib.org/

DOAJ DIRECTORY OF OPEN ACCESS JOURNALS

The Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ)
https://doaj.org/toc/1657-0790

THOMSON REUTERS

SciELO Citation Index (Web of Science)
http://wokinfo.com/products_tools/multidisciplinary/scielo/

Dialnet

Dialnet
http://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/revista?codigo=22417

IT IS INDEXED IN

Publindex Indexación - Homologación

Publindex (Categoría A1)
https://bit.ly/2LYebnC

Modern Language Association MLA

The Directory of Periodicals & International bibliography (MLA)
http://www.mla.org/bibliography

era educational research abstracts online

Educational Research Abstracts online (ERA)
https://bit.ly/2XlroMs

ERIC Institute of Education Sciences

The Education Resources Information Center (ERIC)
http://eric.ed.gov/

EMERGING SOURCES CITATION INDEX

The Emerging Sources Citation Index
http://wokinfo.com/products_tools/multidisciplinary/esci/

ERIH PLUS EUROPEAN REFERENCE INDEX FOR THE HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

The European Reference Index for the Humanities and the Social Sciences (ERIH PLUS)
https://bit.ly/3bhCpJA

iresie Banco de datos sobre educación

Índice de Revistas de Educación Superior e Investigación Educativa (IRESIE)
http://iresie.unam.mx/

SJR

Scimago Journal Rank 2024: Linguistics and Language (Q1), Education (Q2)
https://bit.ly/3e5zmAG

ProQuest

LLBA - Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts database
https://www.proquest.com/products-services/llba-set-c.html

redalyc

Redalyc - Red de Revistas Científicas de América Latina y el Caribe, España y Portugal
http://www.redalyc.org/revista.oa?id=1692

SciELO Colombia

SciELO Colombia
https://bit.ly/3bZMN3d

CLASE

Citas Latinoamericanas en Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades (CLASE)
https://bit.ly/3n50TZ7

INDEXED BY LatAm Estudios+

LatAm Plus
http://www.latamplus.com/

PROFILE

Issues in Teachers' Professional Development

Vol. 28, No. 1, January-June 2026 | ISSN 1657-0790 (*print*) 2256-5760 (*online*)

Contents

PROFILE

Issues in Teachers' Professional Development

Vol. 28, n.º 1, enero-junio 2026 | ISSN 1657-0790 (*impreso*) 2256-5760 (*en línea*)

Contenido

Temas basados en reflexiones e innovaciones

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.124327

Editorial: On the Use of Generative AI Tools in Academic Writing

Generative artificial intelligence (GenAI) tools, and particularly large language models (LLMs), have become an inescapable reality of modern life, with their potential to permeate the distinct dimensions of human activity, including fundamental ones, such as the communication of knowledge and information, which are at the core of scientific publishing. Thus, it behooves those of us involved in academic and editorial arenas to exert careful control over the management of those tools. This is much needed to avoid falling into ethically questionable practices (e.g., reproducing biases, spreading misinformation, plagiarism, and lack of transparency, among many others), for which only we can be held liable.

Trust in scientific knowledge is built through transparent practices, which have prompted scholars, ethics committees, and publishing houses to raise awareness of the ethical and transparent use of GenAI tools in scholarly publishing. This has materialized in public positions, such as those of the Committee on Publication Ethics regarding authorship and GenAI tools (COPE Council, 2024), and in the inclusion of guidelines in renowned journals and publishing houses on what constitutes fair use of GenAI tools.[1] In Latin America, the *Heredia Declaration* (Penabad-Camacho et al., 2024a) seeks to establish working principles to guide authors, editors, and reviewers in the responsible integration of GenAI tools, calling for full disclosure of such use and for individuals to actively supervise any material produced by LLMs.

As we see, two main concerns have driven the discussion in the publishing world. On the one hand, we have the authorship attribution. This entails that only human beings have the intellectual capacity to create and make decisions and, fundamentally, can be held morally or legally accountable for what they do, something that could not possibly be enforced on GenAI tools (Hosseini et al., 2023; Kaebnick et al., 2023; Penabad-Camacho et al., 2024a). In that sense, we agree with the recommendation that these tools should not be given authorship status.

On the other hand, there is a need for transparency, with all stakeholders required to disclose any use of GenAI tools (e.g., specific LLMs or applications), for what purpose, which prompts were given, and how the outcome was supervised by the authors and integrated

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Cárdenas, M. L. (2026). Editorial: On the use of generative AI tools in academic writing. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 9–13. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.124327

1 See, for instance, the *Best Practice Guidelines on Research Integrity and Publishing Ethics* by the publishing company Wiley (https://authorservices.wiley.com/ethics-guidelines/index.html#22).

into the paper[2] (Penabad-Camacho et al., 2024a). These registries may be (increasingly) necessary to assist editorial decisions and can even be included as appendices in published papers (Hosseini et al., 2023). The important consideration here is that the authors should always disclose. As Kaebnick et al. (2023) claim, "authors should err on the side of too much transparency rather than too little: when in doubt, disclose" (p. 4).

Of course, there is the possibility of banning the use of GenAI tools, but we agree with Hosseini et al. (2023), who remark that such bans can be counterproductive as they may deter authors from being transparent and are difficult to enforce. Nonetheless, applications for GenAI-writing detection, while not totally accurate, can help give a general overview, especially when authors do not disclose the use of GenAI tools. Thus, in the *Profile* journal, we have opted to allow the use of GenAI tools, but only to assist with minor editing, provided such use does not exceed 15% of the total manuscript (see the journal's Guidelines for Authors).

We arrived at this percentage based on two main reasons. First, the authorship criteria followed by the journal include substantial contributions in the composition of the paper, and by limiting the use of GenAI tools, we add a new layer as to why these tools cannot be given authorship status. Second, and perhaps more importantly, we need to bear in mind the special characteristics of the academic community around the journal: preservice and in-service teachers of English. As foreign (or first) language users and professionals, we advocate for the capacity to work with the language as our raw material, through which we exhibit our innate abilities to interpret, summarize, and communicate genuine ideas. At a time when many occupations may be at risk due to the encroachment of GenAI technologies, we believe we should not cede our power to perform those linguistic tasks and instead use them to verify and control all artificially created material.

Our journal's decision is in tune with Kosmyna et al. (2025) who, in the preliminary results of a study carried out at MIT to measure the participants' cognitive debt while resorting to GenAI tools to assist essay writing, have found that participants who used an LLM in the task exhibited less memory to quote what they had just written and felt less inclined to claim authorship on the produced text. Thus, by relying too much on these tools, we may be jeopardizing our very own authorial identity and our ability to recall information. From a practical perspective, as teachers of the language, and as suggested above, we may compromise our professional identity as well, so we should be aware of all these considerations to follow ethical principles in the different dimensions of our professional practice, to promote authentic writing—with a distinct voice—and to instill good habits among our students as language users.

To sum up, and based on what we have briefly discussed here, we can highlight four main recommendations regarding the use of GenAI tools to assist academic writing: (a) use these tools judiciously and only when necessary for minor assistance, (b) keep a record of the specific LLMs and prompts used, (c) have evidence of your own oversight on the artificially

2 Some of the members of the team behind the *Heredia Declaration* have produced a document with specific guidelines on how to record and disclose the use of GenAI tools during, among other things, the composition of what they call a "scientific communication unit" (Penabad-Camacho et al., 2024b).

created material to avoid spreading inaccurate or deceitful information, and (d) disclose all uses of GenAI tools.

In This Issue

We have gathered 12 articles for this first issue of 2026. There are four contributions from Chile, two from Colombia, two from Mexico, two from the USA, one from Australia, and one from Iran, which make up a geographically diverse and interesting sample for readers around the world.

Nine articles are featured in the *Issues from Teacher Researchers* section. We open with the article by Chilean authors Jessica Vega-Abarzúa, Eduardo Gutiérrez-Turner, Valentina Recabarren Maturana, and Daniela Roco Soto, who report an action-research study intended to explore the perceived development of learning and innovation skills and teaching knowledge of a group of English as a foreign language (EFL) preservice teachers. To achieve the study's aim, the researchers implemented project-based learning, which turned out to be beneficial for enhancing participants' critical thinking.

Next, Iranian authors Alireza Karbalaei and Mohammad Hossein Arefian equally focus on EFL preservice teachers, specifically on the role collaborative reflective practice plays in fostering teacher leadership. Through a narrative approach, the authors unveiled the benefits and challenges of collaborative reflective practice, which, on the one hand, has a positive impact on personal, social, and professional levels and, on the other hand, can be hindered by time limitations and the individuals' lack of expertise in reflective endeavors.

Another paper from Chile, authored by Lilian Gómez-Álvarez and Anita Ferreira, reports on the implementation of an innovative assessment approach—peer feedforward—whereby peers commented on their partners' written production, which, complemented with cycles of self-reflection, aimed at improving the participants' text coherence and cohesion, metacognitive awareness, and critical self-assessment skills. The authors conclude that this exploratory study with EFL preservice teachers helped them achieve the dual purpose of mastering academic writing skills while learning to teach them.

Preservice EFL teachers are also the population featured in the case study reported by Mexican author Rosa Isela Sandoval-Cruz, who examined the process of conceptual change in participants' interlanguage, that is, the evolving linguistic system underlying the acquisition of a second or foreign language. The two most salient factors that influenced this process during the study include online written collaboration and reflection on prescriptivism and power issues.

The recent introduction by the Chilean Ministry of Education of an intercultural approach to EFL teaching served as the starting point for Chilean authors Maura Klenner-Loebel, Juan Carlos Beltrán-Véliz, and Trevor Driscoll to analyze the stance of EFL in-service teachers toward their role as intercultural mediators. Three main beliefs around this role were uncovered: (a) proponent of positive intercultural attitudes, (b) expander of intercultural contexts, and

(c) guide for purposeful learning. Thus, the study raised participants' awareness of their responsibilities as intercultural mediators.

The article by Adeline De Angelis, from the USA, revolves around the teacher capabilities valued by a group of Ecuadorian EFL teachers. The author examined participants' language use practices and instructional goals to shed light on their attitudes towards aspects such as content and pedagogical knowledge, teacher identity and cognition, and language proficiency. The author calls for teacher education programs to critically evaluate which factors and stakeholders are involved in defining those teacher capabilities worthy of being valued.

Next, Australian authors Amanda Baker, Michael Burri, and Bianca Mister report on a longitudinal study that explored the impact of times of crisis on English language teachers' practices and cognition, particularly as regards pronunciation pedagogy. The study shows that after initial challenges, the participants exhibited resilience in trying to adapt to the new situation and still continued providing instruction to their students. Nonetheless, the authors conclude that hybrid learning can be an appropriate strategy to help teachers cope with challenging teaching situations.

The quasi-experimental study by Chilean authors Erika De la Barra and Sylvia Veloso explored how cooperative learning can enhance listening comprehension skills among advanced English language learners. Cooperative principles such as positive interdependence, individual accountability, and social skills fostered increased engagement and motivation in the experimental group, as reflected in higher levels of listening comprehension after the intervention.

The first section closes with a contribution from Colombian author Alejandro Fernández. This paper reports a mixed-methods action research study with a group of 20 English language learners at a public university. The aim was to explore the impact of multimodal pedagogies on the participants' conception of culture and intercultural relationships. The experience fostered participants' awareness of how culture permeates their daily lives and of the role of mediation in intercultural interactions. The author highlights that multimodal pedagogies promote critical perspectives on language teaching and learning.

The second section, *Issues from Novice Teachers-Researchers*, contains two articles. The first, by Mexican authors Patricia Cuervo Vera and Mariza Guadalupe Méndez López, revolves around an action research study aimed at addressing the low willingness to communicate among a group of young EFL learners in an English conversation club. The authors implemented the Dogme methodology, emphasizing speaking activities that promote meaningful language use, and found that, after implementation, learners were more willing to communicate in English and produced longer utterances.

Next, we have the article by Jackeline Bravo and Estela Ene, from the USA. The study they conducted explores the perspectives of EFL university teachers in Colombia on self-regulated learning and whether their teaching practices actually promote it. Although most participants were broadly aware of self-regulated learning, they did not explicitly incorporate it into their instructional practices. The authors claim that a strategy like self-regulated

learning should not be overlooked, as it can be tailored to learners' specific needs, improving their chances of learning success.

The final section, *Issues Based on Reflections and Innovations*, features a systematic review paper by Colombian authors Miguel Martínez-Luengas and Andrés Felipe Micán-Castiblanco. They focused on narrative studies in English language teaching carried out in Latin America between 2007 and 2024. The authors highlight the increasing attention in the region of this kind of inquiry and its contributions to the pedagogical, methodological, ontological, and epistemological areas of English language teaching. The paper concludes with a discussion of the main areas that could be explored further: the use of narratives as a research method, the investigative processes behind narrative inquiry, and the relevance of digital narratives for ELT research and pedagogy.

We invite our readership to delve deeper into the contents of this issue. We hope they become a source of practical ideas and further research endeavors.

Melba Libia Cárdenas
Journal Director & Editor

References

COPE Council. (2024). *COPE position: Authorship and AI* [English version]. https://doi.org/10.24318/cCVRZBms

Hosseini, M., Resnik, D. B., & Holmes, K. (2023). The ethics of disclosing the use of artificial intelligence tools in writing scholarly manuscripts. *Research Ethics*, *19*(4), 449–465. https://doi.org/10.1177/17470161231180449

Kaebnick, G. E., Magnus, D. C., Kao, A., Hosseini, M., Resnik, D., Dubljević, V., Rentmeester, C., Gordijn, B., & Cherry, M. J. (2023). Editors' statement on the responsible use of generative AI technologies in scholarly journal publishing. *Hastings Center Report*, *53*(5), 3–6. https://doi.org/10.1002/hast.1507

Kosmyna, N., Hauptmann, E., Yuan, Y. T., Situ, J., Liao, X.-H., Beresnitzky, A. V., Braunstein, I., & Maes, P. (2025). *Your brain on ChatGPT: Accumulation of cognitive debt when using an AI assistant for essay writing task*. arXiv. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2506.08872

Penabad-Camacho, L., Morera-Castro, M., & Penabad-Camacho, M. A. (2024b). Guía para uso y reporte de inteligencia artificial en revistas científico-académicas. *Revista Electrónica Educare*, *28*, 1–41. https://doi.org/10.15359/ree.28-S.19830

Penabad-Camacho, L., Penabad-Camacho, M. A., Mora-Campos, A., Cerdas-Vega, G., Morales-López, Y., Ulate-Segura, M., Méndez-Solano, A., Nova-Bustos, N., Vega-Solano, M. F., & Castro-Solano, M. M. (2024a). Declaración de Heredia: principios sobre el uso de inteligencia artificial en la edición científica. *Revista Electrónica Educare*, *28*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.15359/ree.28-S.19967

PROFILE

Issues from Teacher Researchers

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117391

Enhancing EFL Preservice Teacher Education Through Project-Based Learning: An Action-Research Approach

El aprendizaje basado en proyectos para la formación de futuros docentes de inglés: un enfoque desde la investigación-acción

Jessica Vega-Abarzúa
Eduardo Gutiérrez-Turner
Valentina Recabarren Maturana
Daniela Roco Soto
Universidad Adventista de Chile, Chillán, Chile

This action-research study examines the impact of a project-based learning intervention on a group of English-as-a-foreign-language preservice teachers at a Chilean private university. The study aimed to explore the participants' perceived development in two key areas: teaching knowledge and learning and innovation skills. Data were collected through pre- and post-questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Findings indicate notable improvements in both teaching knowledge and participants' perceptions of it, as well as a strengthening of learning and innovation skills, with critical thinking emerging as the most salient enhancement. These results provide valuable insights for English language teaching programs and future research, highlighting the benefits of project-based learning as a pedagogical approach in teacher education.

Keywords: 21st-century skills, action research, English as a foreign language, preservice teachers, project-based learning

Este estudio de investigación-acción examinó el impacto de una intervención de aprendizaje basado en proyectos en un grupo de estudiantes de pedagogía en inglés como lengua extranjera de una universidad chilena. Se analizó el desarrollo percibido de los participantes en dos áreas clave: el conocimiento pedagógico y las habilidades de aprendizaje e innovación. Los datos se recopilaron mediante cuestionarios de pre- y postaplicación, así como entrevistas semiestructuradas. Los hallazgos indican mejoras significativas en el conocimiento pedagógico y en su percepción, así como en el fortalecimiento de habilidades de aprendizaje e innovación. El pensamiento crítico se destacó como la mejora más relevante. Se destacan los beneficios del aprendizaje basado en proyectos como enfoque pedagógico en la formación docente.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje basado en proyectos, habilidades del siglo XXI, inglés como lengua extranjera, investigación-acción, profesores en formación

Jessica Vega-Abarzúa https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5260-5584 • Email: jessicavega@unach.cl
Eduardo Gutiérrez-Turner https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2983-0513 • Email: eduardogutierrez@unach.cl
Valentina Recabarren Maturana https://orcid.org/0009-0009-7218-2222 • Email: valentinarecabarren@alu.unach.cl
Daniela Roco Soto https://orcid.org/0009-0005-3515-8400 • Email: dacielaroco@unach.cl

This study reported here is part of research project No. 1462022, funded by Universidad Adventista de Chile.

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Vega-Abarzúa, J., Gutiérrez-Turner, E., Recabarren Maturana, V., & Roco Soto, D. (2026). Enhancing EFL preservice teacher education through project-based learning: An action-research approach. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 17–36. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117391

This article was received on November 1, 2024 and accepted on October 7, 2025.

Introduction

Grounded in a constructivist paradigm, project-based learning (PBL) is an instructional approach in which learners actively engage in extended, inquiry-driven projects to construct knowledge. Through real-world problem-solving and collaboration, students develop both subject-specific knowledge and essential 21st-century skills (Capraro et al., 2013; Larmer et al., 2015). PBL is also distinguished by its multidisciplinary nature. Krauss and Boss (2013) explain that integrating elements from different subject areas enriches PBL, reflecting real-world situations in which problems are best addressed by drawing on knowledge and skills from multiple disciplines. These authors recommend designing projects that integrate multiple disciplines or providing learners with opportunities to engage in PBL across subject areas, fostering an interdisciplinary approach to problem-solving.

Given these characteristics, PBL has established itself as a valuable pedagogical approach across diverse educational contexts, ranging from primary and secondary education (Chiang & Lee, 2016; Fitria Hidayat et al., 2024; Kaldi et al., 2011; Prastawa et al., 2024) to higher education (Aldobekhi & Abahussain, 2024; Shi et al., 2024; Vega-Abarzúa & Pleguezuelos-Saavedra, 2022). In this latter context, particularly in teacher education programs, a growing body of research documents successful PBL experiences for teacher candidates (Akbulut & Öner, 2021; Alrajeh, 2021; Dag & Durdu, 2017; Kokotsaki et al., 2016; Tsybulsky & Muchnik-Rozanov, 2023; Tsybulsky et al., 2020; Wuttiphan & Klinhom, 2023). Researchers in these studies report not only increased knowledge but also enhancements in 21st-century skills, which are essential in teacher education. Shi et al. (2024) investigated PBL instruction and observed significant improvements in the English proficiency of a group of English majors compared with those taught using traditional methods. Additionally, these students exhibited higher levels of social interaction. Similarly, Wuttiphan and Klinhom (2023) identified notable improvements in preservice teachers' communication skills and highlighted PBL as an effective approach for addressing real-world problems. In line with these findings, Dag and Durdu (2017) investigated PBL in the context of group work and collaboration, reporting that preservice teachers view group work as beneficial for improving their problem-solving and collaboration skills.

To address its benefits, theoretical and empirical perspectives emphasize the importance of properly implementing PBL. Larmer et al. (2015) assert that it is crucial to distinguish PBL from regular projects. The authors contend that PBL, and by extension, high-quality projects, are those that "develop knowledge, skills, and dispositions that serve [students] both in the moment and in the long term" (p. 91). Consequently, PBL is an intentional endeavor that requires careful planning and execution to create meaningful learning experiences. In this regard, Hovey and Ferguson (2014) highlight that, beyond understanding PBL and its theoretical foundations, practical experience in implementing the methodology is essential. Reinforcing this notion, Fitria Hidayat et al. (2024) found that, despite adherence to the procedural steps of PBL, the instructor's failure to monitor and provide adequate scaffolding resulted in weak project implementation. Similarly, Vega-Abarzúa and Pleguezuelos-Saavedra (2022) report limitations in implementing PBL for the first time, with participants noting that while the PBL experience had its benefits, the project could have been executed more concisely.

In Chile, empirical research on PBL remains limited. However, existing studies on its implementation in higher education have primarily examined its impact on academic achievement, skill development, and students' perceptions. For instance, Barrera Arcaya et al. (2022) analyzed the effectiveness of PBL among 56 engineering students and reported statistically significant improvements in academic performance. Similarly, Villanueva Morales et al. (2022) investigated PBL's role in fostering learning and innovation skills (i.e., collaboration, communication, creativity, and critical thinking) among

students transitioning to higher education. Their findings highlighted PBL as an effective pedagogical approach, particularly in enhancing critical thinking. Additionally, Vega-Abarzúa and Pleguezuelos-Saavedra (2022) explored PBL from an interdisciplinary perspective with graphic design students, noting a positive impact on participants' perceptions, particularly regarding innovation and collaboration.

Despite these promising findings, PBL remains largely unexplored in teacher education. This research gap is particularly relevant given Chilean teaching standards for English language teaching (ELT), which emphasize not only linguistic competence but also the integration of 21st-century skills (Ministerio de Educación [MINEDUC], 2021). Furthermore, integrating these skills into English language teaching education continues to pose challenges (Masadeh, 2021; Wang & Kokotsaki, 2018). Given this context, the present study explored the perceived impact of PBL on a group of English as a foreign language (EFL) preservice teachers within a teacher education program, offering valuable insights into how PBL may benefit their teaching preparation.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 10 preservice teachers (six women and four men) aged 21 to 24, in their fourth year of a five-year English teacher education program at a private university in Ñuble, Chile. Participants had completed one year of face-to-face instruction before transitioning to nearly two years of remote learning due to the COVID-19 pandemic. At the time of the study, participants had also completed two practicum experiences and were receiving their first exposure to the English Language Teaching Methodology (ELTM) module, where the intervention took place. Upon returning to in-person learning, they exhibited enthusiasm but also voiced concerns about their teacher education due to the operational adjustments resulting from COVID-19.

Research Design

The instructor-researcher overseeing the study and the ELTM module was a TESOL professor with a decade of experience in diverse educational contexts. She had previously taught the ELTM module and had experience conducting action research and implementing PBL in higher education. In addition to the instructor-researcher, three collaborators contributed to the study, assisting with data collection and analysis.

In response to participants' concerns, the instructor-researcher implemented an action research approach in the ELTM module, using PBL as the primary instructional method. Creswell (2012) defines action research as "systematic procedures used by teachers (or other individuals in an educational setting) to gather quantitative and qualitative data to address improvements in their educational setting, their teaching, and the learning of their students" (p. 22). Thus, the instructor-researcher simultaneously engaged in both taking action and conducting research. Mills's (2011) action-research spiral served as the organizing model for the study, outlining the dynamic sequence of the following stages: identifying an area of focus, collecting data, analyzing data, and developing an action plan. Each of these steps is described in detail below.

Identifying an Area of Focus

Given the challenges posed by the lockdown period, the instructor-researcher anticipated that preservice teachers might need additional emotional and academic support upon returning to face-to-face classes. To assess this, the instructor-researcher documented their attitudes and behaviors. Observations during the initial weeks revealed a shorter attention span during lectures than in previous cohorts, along with lower attendance, punctuality, and motivation. The responses from preservice teachers were more favorable towards practical activities.

To better understand the situation, the instructor-researcher initiated spontaneous classroom discussions, during which participants expressed concerns about one of their standardized examinations: the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT), Module 2 by Cambridge (https://bit.ly/4jMC53i). This external examination, as described on the Cambridge website, assesses candidates' proficiency in lesson planning and the use of language teaching resources. Furthermore, preservice teachers expressed concerns about their communication and critical thinking skills, attributing their difficulties to limited participation and interaction with peers during remote classes. With a potential focus for the study identified, the instructor-researcher sought to gather more concrete evidence to establish formal parameters for the study.

Data Collection

As illustrated in Mills's (2011) action-research spiral, this form of inquiry follows a cyclical process rather than a linear trajectory, enabling researchers to refine their understanding through multiple iterations. Therefore, data collection is a fundamental component of action research, which relies on a systematic approach to gathering information to reflect on and improve educational practices or experiences within a specific context (Burns, 2009). Accordingly, data collection in this study occurred in three distinct stages using a mixed-methods approach. In the initial stage, data collection served an exploratory and diagnostic purpose, establishing the foundation for the study and providing insight into the problem. The next stage of data collection involved a more in-depth and formal exploration of the identified issues, utilizing quantitative data collection methods. To achieve this, the instructor-researcher designed a questionnaire aimed at establishing baseline parameters before the intervention. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section focused on preservice teachers' current teaching knowledge. For this, a standardized test derived from Cambridge TKT, Module 2, was used, featuring closed-ended questions. The second section aimed to capture preservice teachers' perceptions of their teaching knowledge. To assess this, the instructor-researcher formulated six statements on key aspects of teaching, derived from the TKT content (see Appendix A). The statements were presented on a Likert scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The third section of the questionnaire assessed participants' self-perceived learning and innovation skills, also using a Likert scale. The statements in this section were developed based on a documentary review of the 21st-century skills for teacher education outlined by MINEDUC (2021).

The third stage of data collection employed both quantitative and qualitative methods and was conducted after the PBL intervention. Participants completed the same three-section questionnaire administered before the intervention, along with individual semi-structured interviews (see Appendix B).

It is important to emphasize that participants were fully informed about the intervention, data collection procedures, and the purpose of the study, all of which adhered to the ethical guidelines of the research site. As a result, participants provided informed consent before participating in the study. Additionally, the research instruments were revised by a panel of four academics, and the study received approval from the institution's ethics committee.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed using the Shapiro-Wilk test to assess normality. To compare pre- and post-test scores, a paired *t*-test was conducted, and the confidence intervals for the difference in means were calculated. In addition, the percentage change relative to the maximum score for each variable was calculated. All analyses were performed using RStudio software (Version 2023.9.1) with a confidence level of 0.05.

Qualitative data, obtained through semi-structured interviews, were transcribed verbatim and analyzed thematically using Atlas.ti.

Developing an Action Plan: PBL Intervention

The action plan was implemented over a three-month period in the ELTM module, using PBL as the instructional method. This shift transformed the traditional ELTM module approach, leading participants to take on a more active role in their learning. Consequently, the course content, study materials, and assessments were adjusted to align with the project. To ensure the effective implementation of PBL, the study adopted the four-phase framework *Path to Project-Based Learning* proposed by the Buck Institute for Education (https://my.pblworks.org/). In the first phase, the PBL framework addresses the project launch and the formulation of the driving question that guides student inquiry. The second phase focuses on building knowledge and developing the skills required to respond to that question. The third phase centers on critiquing and refining the products as students evaluate their progress toward answering the driving question. Finally, the fourth phase involves presenting the completed products and articulating the answers derived from the inquiry process.

From this perspective, the project was initiated under the title *Pre-service Teachers' Conference on EFL Education*. In collaboration with the instructor-researcher, the preservice teachers formulated the driving question: How might we prepare for the preservice teachers' conference on topics relevant to teaching EFL in a Chilean school context? Guided by this inquiry, the preservice teachers proceeded to build the necessary knowledge and skills to address the driving question. To facilitate knowledge-building, participants suggested working in four groups, a decision that enabled them to collaboratively explore key ELT topics. To ensure the effective implementation of collaborative group work, the instructor-researcher, drawing on prior experience (Vega-Abarzúa et al., 2022), guided preservice teachers in assigning specific roles within their groups (e.g., organizer, summarizer, assistant). Given that the conference focused on ELT in Chilean schools, all groups agreed to ground their work in the English–Chilean Curriculum and coursebook materials, particularly *The Principles of Language Teaching* by Harmer (2015). From this point onward, each group, under the guidance of the instructor-researcher, explored various instructional strategies to study and prepare for key topics in English language teaching within Chilean school contexts. These strategies included group discussions, graphic organizers, debates, poster creation, video recordings, and research-based activities.

In the second phase of the intervention, the instructor-researcher provided scaffolding to support participants' engagement with the project. This support included the provision of essential materials (e.g., readings, guidelines, and example lesson plans), student-centered learning experiences, and connections between course materials and practical application. Additionally, the instructor-researcher guided participants to engage in peer collaboration, brainstorming sessions, and reflective practices to foster critical thinking and problem-solving skills. These strategies were directly linked to the PBL framework and designed to encourage independent learning and collaborative work. Once preservice teachers had gathered sufficient knowledge on ELT, they progressed to the third phase, in which they presented their findings to other groups, exchanged study strategies, and engaged in peer feedback. This process involved teaching reflections, case study analysis, and short simulations in which preservice teachers practiced communicating key teaching concepts and responding to questions, mirroring the dynamics of the upcoming conference. These activities were structured and guided by the instructor-researcher to equip preservice teachers with the necessary skills and encouragement to navigate the challenges of public speaking, particularly in responding to audience inquiries during the conference. This process also allowed participants to revisit their study materials and strategies, reinforcing their understanding and refining their approach to the topics they would present.

The final phase culminated in the conference, where preservice teachers presented to an audience of academics and peers. This event simulated a professional setting, allowing participants to apply their knowledge, practice public speaking, and engage in discussions on ELT in Chilean schools. Upon arriving at the conference, the audience submitted questions on the topic, which were then collected and randomly selected to initiate the discussion. During the conference, participants took turns answering the selected questions and engaged in further interaction with the audience. Additionally, participants shared study strategies and insights into their preparation process for the event.

Results

Quantitative Data

Teaching Knowledge Test

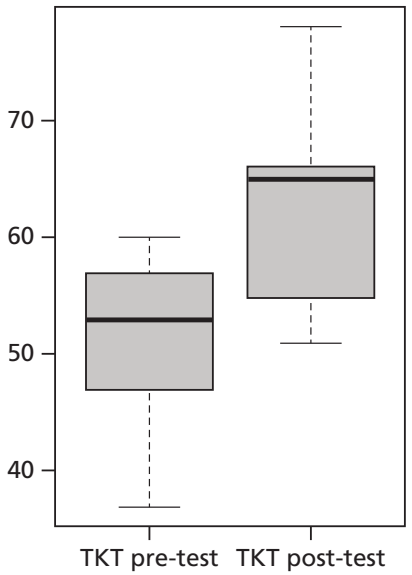
The results indicate statistically significant differences in the TKT scores before and after the PBL intervention (see Table 1 and Figure 1). Specifically, there was a notable average increase of 8.9 points ($p < 0.05$), with a 95% CI [4.628, 13.172]. This represents an 11.1% increase relative to the maximum score.

Table 1. Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) Paired *t*-test Scores

	Mean	*SD*	Mean 95% CI		Percentage of change	*P*-value
			Lower	Upper		
TKT pre-test	53.2	10.1	45.977	60.423	-	-
TKT post-test	62.1	8.4	56.120	68.080	-	-
TKT difference (post/ pre-tests)	8.9↑	6.0	4.628	13.172	11.1↑	0.0010*

* $p < 0.05$

Figure 1. Teaching Knowledge Test Before and After the Intervention



Perceived Teaching Knowledge

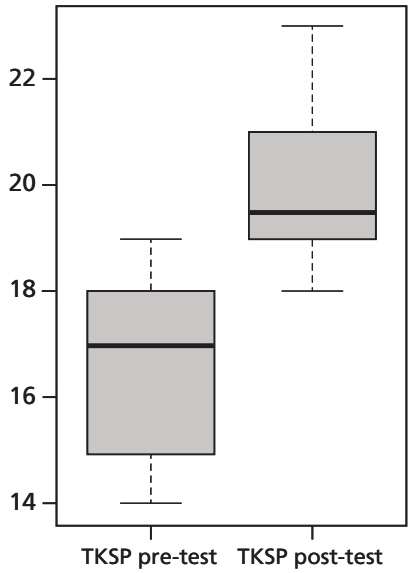
Preservice teachers' responses indicated a statistically significant difference in their perceived teaching knowledge before and after the PBL intervention (see Table 2 and Figure 2). Specifically, an average increase of 3 points ($p < 0.05$) was observed, with a 95% CI [1.738, 4.262] in the pre- and post-intervention assessments, representing a 10% increase relative to the maximum score.

Table 2. Perceived Teaching Knowledge (TK) Paired *t*-test Scores

	Mean	*SD*	Mean 95% CI		Percentage of change	*P*-value
			Lower	Upper		
Perceived TK pre-test	16.8	1.7	15.547	18.053	-	-
Perceived TK post-test	19.8	1.5	18.692	20.908	-	-
Perceived TK difference (post/pre-tests)	3.0↑	1.8	1.783	4.262	10↑	0.0004*

* $p < 0.05$

Figure 2. Preservice Teachers' Teaching Knowledge Self-Perceptions Before and After the Intervention



Learning and Innovation Skills

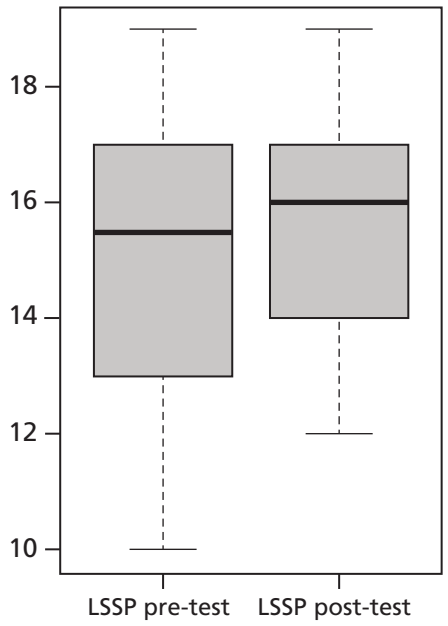
Results in the dimension of preservice teachers' self-perceptions of learning and innovation skills do not indicate statistically significant differences. The average change was 0.5 points ($p > 0.05$), with a 95% CI [-1.692, 2.692] between the pre- and post-tests, representing a 2.5% increase relative to the maximum score, as shown in Table 3 and Figure 3.

Table 3. Learning and Innovation Skills Paired *t*-test Scores

	Mean	*SD*	Mean 95% CI		Percentage of change	*P*-value
			Lower	Upper		
Learning and innovation skills pre-test	15.0	3.0	12.867	17.133	-	-
Learning and innovation skills post-test	15.5	2.1	14.020	16.979	-	-
Learning and innovation skills difference (post/pre-tests)	0.5↑	3.1	-1.692	2.692	2.5↑	0.6180*

* $p < 0.05$

Figure 3. Self-Perceptions on Learning and Innovation Skills Before and After the Intervention



Findings From Qualitative Data

Overall, the findings from the qualitative data align with the quantitative evidence. The qualitative analysis provided deeper insights into the impact of the PBL intervention by capturing participants' perceptions in greater detail. To explore these nuances, the results were organized into tables and presented by dimension.

Teaching Knowledge

In the teaching knowledge dimension, three main categories emerged: *lesson planning*, *instructional resources*, and *teaching awareness*. In particular, the lesson planning category was distinguished by the identification of two specific themes. The first and most recurrent theme was connected to increased *confidence in lesson planning*:

> I know each section of a lesson plan and how to complete it. I no longer doubt, as I know what each stage requires. (Participant 9)
>
> I had an idea on how to plan a lesson, but now I understand the whole process of planning and the role of the lesson stages. (Participant 5)
>
> [PBL] could not have been any better for learning the basics and details about lesson planning. (Participant 1)

Participants also reflected on their previous planning experiences, describing them as mechanical. In contrast, following the PBL intervention, they expressed a stronger sense of readiness for planning and sequencing lessons, leading to the theme of *efficacy*: "With this methodology, and compared to the structured planning I had studied before, I learned how to plan for the students of today and contextualize what I teach" (Participant 3).

In the *instructional resources* category, most participants reported increased confidence and precision in selecting and utilizing teaching materials, which led to the emergence of a *selection confidence* theme:

> I feel more prepared because we could study a number of teaching resources. I didn't even know that they could be useful and implemented in the assessment! (Participant 4)
>
> Now my lessons can be more didactic and dynamic as I can use different types of aids or resources. (Participant 9)
>
> Now I know that I can use realia, authentic materials, and other [teaching] aids because I know them and where to get them. (Participant 10)

Another identified theme in the *instructional resources* category was *precision and importance*. We believe that the variety of instructional resources used during the PBL intervention expanded participants' understanding of teaching and provided multiple options to enrich their practices. Some participants underscored the significance of instructional resources, emphasizing their benefits, impact on learners, and the rationale behind their use:

> It is easier now as I know how to [correctly] use [instructional resources]. (Participant 2)
>
> I feel better. Before I used to [select instructional resources] without any reasons. Now I select what can impact my students in a better way. (Participant 3)

In terms of the *teaching awareness* category, some participants recognized the importance of diversifying instructional approaches to meet the various needs of their future students. They highlighted the value of fostering essential skills, moving beyond traditional teaching methods, and implementing active learning strategies to create more effective and inclusive learning environments.

> With this experience, I understood that traditional learning will not benefit my students because we will have different students in the classroom who will need different kinds of support, so it is very important to learn how to implement different active methods to use them in an effective way in the classroom. (Participant 5)
>
> I learnt how to strengthen different skills . . . this might help me develop important skills in my future students and find strategies to help students develop their skills because they are very useful . . . I had not learnt them until now! (Participant 2)

> The project helped me understand what can occur in the classroom beyond traditional activities . . . I know that there are different activities and strategies that we can use. (Participant 7)

Learning and Innovation Skills

The learning skills dimension indicated that, although statistical analysis did not show significant changes, the PBL intervention had a positive impact on participants' overall learning skills. Participants reported notable improvements in their learning skills following the intervention. Critical thinking emerged as one of the most prominent skills, highlighted by most participants. They emphasized that, throughout the project, they were required to reflect extensively on various aspects of ELT, the English curriculum, and diverse educational contexts. According to the participants, this continuous reflection, paired with the motivation to become ELT experts for the conference, fostered a new perspective on teaching:

> [The project] was something different . . . we were expected to be experts in the conference, so we learnt many things, shared those things and communicated our viewpoints . . . and that is how my classmates and I developed our critical thinking. (Participant 2)
>
> Critical thinking [was the most developed skill] since we had to constantly question what we were learning and thus be able to provide ideas for the driving question. (Participant 8)

Collaboration emerged as a key theme following critical thinking. Participants indicated that working in groups toward a shared goal over an extended period significantly enhanced their collaboration:

> I believe that collaboration was the most consolidated skill . . . we worked in groups and then together until the conference day. (Participant 6)
>
> Collaboration, because all the other modules have an individualist approach, whereas . . . with the project, everything was planned to work in groups, and that is very important for our final thesis project because it is in groups. (Participant 7)

Communication was the third most recurrent theme. Some participants described their improvements by contrasting them with their prior experiences:

> I think that speaking was an improvement area because before I was afraid of giving my opinion, especially in a language that I am still learning. (Participant 8)
>
> I think that critical thinking and communication skills were the skills that I could develop the most because we had to question everything, support, and communicate that. (Participant 8)

Creative thinking also featured prominently in the interviews. Many participants noted that the PBL intervention encouraged them to embrace variation and innovation, particularly when planning and designing learning experiences:

> Creativity as well, because when we had to create and adapt teaching materials, and when we created the posters, we had to think out of the box. (Participant 1)
>
> Creative thinking [was the most salient area] because I used to incorporate the typical things. Now, I feel more prepared, specifically in being creative . . . finding the best aids to teach my lessons. (Participant 3)

PBL and Future Teaching Practice

The interviews also provided insight into the impact of PBL on the participants' future teaching practices. Most participants stated that the PBL intervention had served as a source of inspiration for their EFL classrooms. They highlighted that, throughout the project, they engaged with diverse teaching strategies and experienced non-traditional forms of learning:

> I believe that what [the instructor-researcher] planned was new to me . . . I had never seen it before . . . sitting in circles, engaging in deep discussion with our classmates, teaching in different ways . . . this has completely changed how teaching can be like. (Participant 2)

> We no longer see the classroom as a traditional setting; instead, we are always looking for ways to diversify learning. (Participant 5)

Additionally, participants expressed a greater understanding of how to implement collaborative learning in their future classrooms. They highlighted the importance of group work and its role in fostering student collaboration, emphasizing that the project provided them with practical ideas for their teaching practice:

> This experience has given me some ideas on how to implement group-work activities and thus foster collaboration in the classroom. (Participant 7)
>
> The activities of the project and group work are some of the key things that will be crucial for my practicum and future teaching experience. (Participant 9)

Lastly, participants' answers revealed a strong intention to incorporate PBL into their future teaching practices, recognizing its potential to engage students actively. They emphasized the importance of making learners the protagonists of their own learning and highlighted PBL as an effective methodology for fostering motivation and participation in the classroom.

> I want to engage [future learners] . . . I want to make them feel the protagonists of their own learning. (Participant 4)
>
> I definitely plan to incorporate [PBL] because it is an effective methodology that engages students. (Participant 6).
>
> Now I know how to teach English lessons in which learners can be motivated and participative. (Participant 9)

PBL Highlights and Challenges

In the interviews, participants were asked to reflect on the most enriching activities experienced during the intervention, as well as the challenges they encountered throughout the four phases of the project (see Table 4). In response, all participants identified the final activity (the conference) as the most significant moment of the entire project:

> I think the conference had the biggest impact on me because I had never done anything like that before. For example, I had recorded videos before, both in high school and here at university. But the conference was something completely new for me . . . it was about teaching and demonstrating the knowledge I had gained throughout the semester. (Participant 2)
>
> The conference, definitely! It was the final stage and in front of other people, so we could not spoil things . . . it was the most important thing and the most difficult one because it was hard work preparing for it . . . and I think that it helped me flourish as a teacher. (Participant 10)

Additionally, some participants highlighted the student-centered nature of the project, which integrated innovative teaching strategies:

> I think that the creation of posters was fun as we had to get to an agreement with my classmates about what information we wanted to include . . . and sometimes we disagreed on the ideas, but it was meaningful for me. (Participant 3)
>
> One of the activities that helped me was the video; it helped me a lot with the different approaches to teaching English. I had no prior knowledge of the different methodologies, and having to create a video using these approaches was incredibly meaningful—it allowed me to understand them better and apply them. (Participant 5)

Case study assessments were also highlighted by participants as valuable tools for improving lesson planning and deepening their understanding of the characteristics of various educational settings:

> I remember two activities that I enjoyed the most . . . I liked when we had to solve school problems using the curriculum to provide a solution . . . it was like solving mystery cases . . . this helped me learn a lot. (Participant 1)
>
> Reflecting on school situations and learning about teaching approaches in a fun way helped me improve

> my lesson planning because, before, I was confused about the lesson stages. Now I know that things can be more flexible…I can take one activity and include it at a different stage or replace it with something else. (Participant 5)

Another element participants identified as particularly nurturing was the scaffolding provided during the activities of the project, as they felt they needed additional guidance supporting their ideas:

> I think that guiding us to evaluate information to provide a solid answer in terms of planning and using resources in the classroom helped me a lot. It was the most difficult part for me because I used to feel insecure about my answers. I learnt how to support my ideas and where to find the information, for example, in the national curriculum . . . to provide solutions. (Participant 1)
>
> I think that every single activity helped me in different ways . . . I was pushed to use arguments so that I felt that studying and knowing what to say helped me a lot. (Participant 4)

Lastly, participants emphasized the importance of feedback, noting that it was crucial not only for making progress in the project but also for boosting their self-confidence:

> In groups and with [the instructor-researcher], we worked a lot on our self-confidence . . . in what we can actually do and in our teaching potential as well. (Participant 6)
>
> The whole experience helped me a lot. I struggled with speaking, but the activities and [the instructor-researcher's] support helped me feel more confident about my ideas and what I say . . . now I can see things from various perspectives and with more clarity, as I can provide reasons to support what I say. (Participant 9)

Table 4. Summary of the Intervention's Highlights and Challenges

Highlights	Challenges
Conference	Anxiety
Student-centered strategies	Insecurity
Non-traditional assessment	Group work
Scaffolding	Time management
Feedback	

In terms of challenges faced during the PBL intervention, participants explained that, rather than specific phases being particularly difficult, the obstacles they encountered were primarily personal. Most expressed anxiety to transition from traditional learning methods to an entirely new approach they had not experienced before: "I think that the challenges were mainly connected to my anxiety . . . and having to deal with something new was challenging at first" (Participant 1). "The most difficult part was facing something new . . . we didn't know what the PBL intervention would imply" (Participant 3).

Furthermore, participants reported high levels of insecurity, particularly regarding expressing their ideas clearly and presenting them in front of others:

> At first, when [the instructor-researcher] suggested working using PBL, I felt very insecure to the point of [worrying about failing] the module . . . but then everything changed. I felt so comfortable . . . the environment was welcoming, free to express ourselves, and make contributions with our ideas. (Participant 5)
>
> The fact that the final activity would be a conference was challenging for me because I did not know the people who would attend. (Participant 6)

Some participants also felt apprehensive about collaborative work as they had to work in teams throughout the entire project, but their perspectives shifted once roles were assigned within the groups:

> Working in groups! That was my main challenge as I used to work by myself and I knew I did well like that . . . but working for the conference required group work . . . and I worked with my classmates, and I learnt what collaboration is. (Participant 2)
>
> One of the major challenges was working in groups for the whole module, as everybody has a different personality. However, things turned out to be very different as we worked well together, being able to adjust to one another. (Participant 8)

Additionally, participants mentioned challenges in organizing their schedules for study after instruction, as not everyone lived near campus or took the same classes:

> Even though the project was conducted through the semester, the most difficult part was organizing ourselves to study…everybody had different schedules and lives at a different location…some of us far from the university, so sometimes we met [online]. (Participant 5)

Discussion

We found that the PBL intervention positively impacted EFL preservice teachers. Using a mixed-methods approach, we determined that the preservice teachers' teaching knowledge and perceptions of it improved significantly. These findings are consistent with previous studies that highlight a positive impact of PBL on preservice teachers (Dag & Durdu, 2017; Goldstein, 2016; Tsybulsky et al., 2020; Wuttiphan & Klinhom, 2023).

From a teaching knowledge standpoint, we observed notable improvements following the PBL intervention. Participants reported increased confidence and efficacy in lesson planning, along with a heightened teaching awareness. The findings in this dimension led us to conclude that the PBL intervention helped preservice teachers become more connected to their future practice and their identities as future educators, and to reflect deeply on the impact of their pedagogy in the classroom. Furthermore, participants reported feeling more self-confident about their actions and decisions in the classroom. These findings align with the study by Tsybulsky and Muchnik-Rozanov (2023), which found increased connection to teaching and higher self-confidence in preservice teachers' teaching abilities after engaging in PBL. Additionally, our participants concluded that the PBL intervention had shifted their teaching paradigms, enabling them to discover new ways of teaching and gain insight into the implications of student-centered learning. These findings are particularly relevant for teacher education programs, as exposing preservice teachers to constructivist approaches is essential for nurturing their future teaching practices (Alrajeh, 2021; MINEDUC, 2021; Tsybulsky et al., 2020).

In terms of learning and innovation skills, participants acknowledged improvements in their critical thinking, collaboration, communication, and creativity after the intervention. Although the quantitative data did not reveal statistically significant changes between pre- and post-tests, qualitative data strongly support improvements in these skills. This finding is consistent with the principles of PBL, which emphasize the development of 21st-century skills, as supported both theoretically (Krauss & Boss, 2013; Larmer et al., 2015) and empirically (Chiang & Lee, 2016; Krajcik & Shin, 2014; Tsybulsky et al., 2020; Vega-Abarzúa & Pleguezuelos-Saavedra, 2022). Among these skills, critical thinking, as captured in the qualitative data collection stage, was the most frequently mentioned area of improvement. In our study, participants reported that PBL, along with the strategies and activities employed in the ELTM module, fostered critical thinking at both personal and professional levels. This perspective is consistent with other studies (Puangpunsi, 2021; Rochmahwati, 2015; Villanueva Morales et al., 2022) that have reported improvements in learners' critical thinking skills through a project-based approach. This finding is particularly noteworthy, as skills, including critical and creative thinking, are often challenging to integrate into English language teaching and learning (Masadeh, 2021; Wang & Kokotsaki, 2018).

Findings also highlight the impact of PBL on participants' future teaching practices. Results from the qualitative stage suggest that PBL not only encourages preservice teachers to implement this methodology but also inspires a broader shift toward student-centered approaches that foster diverse skill development. Our findings also suggest that PBL in EFL teacher education can provide a valuable opportunity to enhance preservice teachers' ability to implement project-based pedagogy effectively. This underscores the importance of rich learning opportunities and meaningful learning in teacher preparation, as emphasized by Kavanagh and Rainey (2017).

It is worth noting that participants highlighted the significance of the final phase of the project (the conference) because it provided a holistic approach to learning and the development of 21st-century skills. This finding aligns with the principles of PBL, as it is intended to cultivate academic and life skills, a theme that has been widely supported by empirical research (Alrajeh, 2021; Tsybulsky et al., 2020; Wuttiphan & Klinhom, 2023). Participants also emphasized the value of ongoing feedback, scaffolding, and the opportunity to construct their own learning, which aligns with Dewey's (1916) constructivist perspective of learning through experience.

Finally, it is important to highlight that the participants in our PBL intervention experienced anxiety and insecurity during the initial phase of the project, primarily due to their apprehension about change. This phenomenon has been documented in previous research (Tsybulsky et al., 2020). These findings suggest the need for a more structured integration of PBL within teacher education programs. Specifically, incorporating PBL interventions consistently within a single course or across multiple modules could familiarize preservice teachers with the methodology in advance, potentially reducing anxiety and enhancing their overall learning experience. Additionally, participants recognized the importance of effective time management in the preparation and execution of the project, suggesting that projects should be conducted throughout the term. While in our study some participants felt that extended sessions were necessary for meaningful engagement, others, as seen in Vega-Abarzúa and Pleguezuelo-Saavedra's (2022), believed the project could have been executed in shorter time frames. This divergence highlights the need for a more flexible approach to scheduling PBL interventions. Future research could explore how different time allocations impact learning outcomes, engagement, and overall effectiveness.

Conclusion

Reflecting on our PBL intervention, we did not encounter major limitations, as participants overcame their initial concerns and ultimately embraced the project. However, a key consideration for future studies is the time-intensive nature of PBL. Preparing each lesson, designing student-centered learning experiences, providing continuous feedback and support, and implementing effective scaffolding required a significant time investment. Additionally, in this case, the instructor-researcher launched the project independently, further increasing the workload. Future initiatives should take these demands into account to ensure sustainable implementation.

It is also worth mentioning that the action-research design of this study required multiple methods of data collection across different stages. Managing qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously demanded careful planning and execution to ensure coherence and reliability. Despite these challenges, the mixed-methods approach provided a more comprehensive understanding of participants' experiences and the overall impact of the PBL intervention.

Finally, it is hoped that this study serves as a valuable reference for future researchers and teacher education programs, as the findings strongly support PBL as a constructive pedagogy that can enhance the educational experience of EFL preservice teachers.

References

Akbulut, M. Ş., & Öner, D. (2021). Developing pre-service teachers' technology competencies: A project-based learning experience. *Cukurova University Faculty of Education Journal*, *50*(1), 247–275.

Aldobekhi, S. A., & Abahussain, M. O. (2024). Enhancing English language students' productive skills through project-based learning: A mixed method research. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *23*(1), 231–257. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.23.1.12

Alrajeh, T. S. (2021). Project-based learning to enhance pre-service teachers' teaching skills in science education. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, *9*(2), 271–279. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2021.090202

Barrera Arcaya, F., Venegas-Muggli, J. I., & Ibacache Plaza, L. (2022). El efecto del aprendizaje basado en proyectos en el rendimiento académico de los estudiantes. *Revista de Estudios y Experiencias en Educación*, *21*(46), 277–291. https://doi.org/10.21703/0718-5162.v21.n46.2022.015

Burns, A. (2009). Action research. In J. Heigham & R. A. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction* (pp. 112–134). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230239517_6

Capraro, R. M., Capraro, M. M., & Morgan, J. R. (Eds.). (2013). *STEM project-based learning: An integrated science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) approach* (2nd ed.). Sense Publishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6209-143-6

Chiang, C. L., & Lee, H. (2016). The effect of project-based learning on learning motivation and problem-solving ability of vocational high school students. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, *6*(9), 709–712. https://doi.org/10.7763/IJIET.2016.V6.779

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Pearson.

Dag, F., & Durdu, L. (2017). Pre-service teachers' experiences and views on project-based learning processes. *International Education Studies*, *10*(7), 18–39. https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v10n7p18

Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education: An introduction to the philosophy of education.* Longman.

Fitria Hidayat, A., Miftakh, F., & Putri Utami, P. (2024). The use of project-based learning in teaching speaking English. *Innovative: Journal of Social Science Research*, *4*(1), 3399–3411.

Goldstein, O. (2016). A project-based learning approach to teaching physics for pre-service elementary school teacher education students. *Cogent Education*, *3*(1), 1200833. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2016.1200833

Harmer, J. (2015). *The practice of English language teaching* (5th ed.). Pearson Longman.

Hovey, K. A., & Ferguson, S. L. (2014). Teacher perspectives and experiences: Using project-based learning with exceptional and diverse students. *Curriculum and Teaching Dialogue*, *16*(1–2), 77–90. https://doi.org/10.1108/book-978-1-62396-808-320251019

Kaldi, S., Filippatou, D., & Govaris, C. (2011). Project-based learning in primary schools: Effects on pupils' learning and attitudes. *Education 3–13*, *39*(1), 35–47. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004270903179538

Kavanagh, S. S., & Rainey, E. C. (2017). Learning to support adolescent literacy: Teacher educator pedagogy and novice teacher take-up in secondary English language arts teacher preparation. *American Educational Research Journal*, *54*(5), 904–937. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831217710423

Kokotsaki, D., Menzies, V., & Wiggins, A. (2016). Project-based learning: A review of the literature. *Improving Schools*, *19*(3), 267–277. https://doi.org/10.1177/1365480216659733

Krajcik, J. S., & Shin, N. (2014). Project-based learning. In R. K. Sawyer (Ed.), *The Cambridge handbook of learning sciences* (2nd ed., pp. 275–297). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139519526.018

Krauss, J., & Boss, S. (2013). *Thinking through project-based learning: Guiding deeper inquiry*. Sage Publications.

Larmer, J., Mergendoller, J., & Boss, S. (2015). *Setting the standard for project based learning*. ASCD.

Masadeh, T. S. (2021). Teaching practices of EFL teachers and the enhancement of creative thinking skills among learners. *International Journal of Asian Education*, *2*(2), 153–166. https://doi.org/10.46966/ijae.v2i2.173

Mills, G. E. (2011). *Action research: A guide for the teacher researcher* (4th ed.). Pearson.

Ministerio de Educación. (2021). *Estándares de la profesión docente: carreras de pedagogía en inglés educación básica/media.* Centro de Perfeccionamiento, Experimentación e Investigaciones Pedagógicas. https://bit.ly/4jVXFSX

Prastawa, S., Nurzaima, N., Karimah, S., Kurniawan, M., Mafruhah, A., & Al Haddar, G. (2024). An analysis of project-based learning approaches in enhancing English proficiency among secondary school students. *Journal Review Pendidikan Dan Pengajaran*, *7*(2), 4078–4085.

Puangpunsi, N. (2021). *Learners' perception towards project-based learning in encouraging English skills performance and 21st century skills* (EJ1304647). ERIC. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1304647.pdf

Rochmahwati, P. (2015). Fostering students' critical thinking by project-based learning. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language*, *5*(1), 37–44. https://doi.org/10.23971/jefl.v5i1.90

Shi, J., Sitthiworachart, J., & Hong, J. C. (2024). Supporting project-based learning for students' oral English skill and engagement with immersive virtual reality. *Education and Information Technologies*, *29*, 14127–14150. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-023-12433-w

Tsybulsky, D., Gatenio-Kalush, M., Abu Ganem, M., & Grobgeld, E. (2020). Experiences of preservice teachers exposed to project-based learning. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *43*(3), 368–383. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2019.1711052

Tsybulsky, D., & Muchnik-Rozanov, Y. (2023). The contribution of a project-based learning course, designed as a pedagogy of practice, to the development of preservice teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *124*, 104020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2023.104020

Vega-Abarzúa, J., & Pleguezuelos-Saavedra, C. (2022). Aprendizaje basado en proyectos: experiencia interdisciplinaria entre inglés y diseño gráfico. *Revista de Estudios y Experiencias en Educación*, *21*(46), 416–428. https://doi.org/10.21703/0718-5162.v21.n46.2022.023

Vega-Abarzúa, J., Pastene-Fuentes, J., Pastene-Fuentes, C., Ortega-Jiménez, C., & Castillo-Rodríguez, T. (2022). Collaborative learning and classroom engagement: A pedagogical experience in an EFL Chilean context. *English Language Teaching Educational Journal*, *5*(1), 60–74. https://doi.org/10.12928/eltej.v5i1.5822

Villanueva Morales, C., Ortega Sánchez, G., & Díaz Sepúlveda, L. (2022). Aprendizaje basado en proyectos: metodología para fortalecer tres habilidades transversales. *Revista de Estudios y Experiencias en Educación*, *21*(45), 433–445. https://doi.org/10.21703/0718-5162.v21.n45.2022.022

Wang, L., & Kokotsaki, D. (2018). Primary school teachers' conceptions of creativity in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in China. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *29*, 115–130. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2018.06.002

Wuttiphan, N., & Klinhom, N. (2023). The role of project-based learning in promoting preservice teachers' communicative capabilities. *Journal of Education and Learning*, *12*(1), 52–60. https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v12n1p52

About the Authors

Jessica Vega-Abarzúa holds an MA in TESOL from the University of Melbourne and teaches at the Faculty of Education, Universidad Adventista de Chile. Her research interests include teacher education, English reading comprehension and strategies, multimodal learning, and language learning materials development.

Roles: conception of the research project, development of methods, major contribution of investigation materials, and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Eduardo Gutiérrez-Turner is a mathematics professor in the Faculty of Education at Universidad Adventista de Chile. His research focuses on the parametric estimation problem in McKean-Vlasov-type stochastic differential equations with nonlinear dependencies. He is also interested in research related to health, quality of life in education, and initial teacher education.

Roles: analysis and interpretation of data.

Valentina Recabarren Maturana is an EFL preservice teacher candidate at Universidad Adventista de Chile. Her interests focus on rural school education and language learning materials development.

Roles: collection of data.

Daniela Roco Soto is an EFL professor at Universidad Adventista de Chile. Her interests focus on teacher education.

Roles: collection of data.

Appendix A: Questionnaire on Perceptions of Teaching Knowledge

Section II: Perceived teaching knowledge

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements based on your current teaching knowledge. Choose one option only.

	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	I have a strong understanding of language teaching methodologies and how to apply them in the classroom					
2.	I can effectively design lesson plans that align with learning objectives and students' needs					
3.	I am confident in my ability to assess learners' progress using a variety of assessment tools and techniques					
4.	I understand how to provide clear and meaningful instructions to students at different proficiency levels					
5.	I am knowledgeable about classroom management strategies that foster student engagement and participation					
6.	I can adapt my teaching strategies to accommodate diverse learning styles and needs					

Section III: Learning and innovation skills self-perceptions

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements based on your current skills. Choose one option statement only.

	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	I can express my ideas clearly and effectively in both spoken and written English within academic and teaching contexts					
2.	I actively listen and respond appropriately to others in discussions and classroom interactions					
3.	I can analyze classroom challenges and develop effective solutions based on evidence and reasoning					
4.	I am able to evaluate different teaching strategies and select the most appropriate for specific learning situations					
5.	I work well in teams, respecting diverse perspectives and contributing meaningfully to group tasks					
6.	I can provide and receive constructive feedback to improve collaborative work and teaching practices					
7.	I am comfortable adapting my teaching strategies to meet the needs of diverse learners					
8.	I can generate innovative ideas and activities that enhance student engagement and learning					

Appendix B: Semi-Structured Interview

1. In what ways has PBL contributed to consolidating your teaching knowledge? Can you provide specific examples?
2. How do you feel about planning your English lesson? Did the PBL intervention influence the way you plan your lessons?
3. How do you approach selecting resources and materials for your future students? Did the PBL intervention influence the way you make these choices?
4. Do you feel that your learning and innovation skills (e.g., communication, collaboration, critical thinking, creative thinking) have improved through this experience? Which specific skills do you think have been strengthened?
5. In what ways has the PBL intervention influenced your future teaching practices?
6. What aspects of the PBL experience would you highlight, and what did you find most challenging?

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.120456

Fostering Preservice and Novice EFL Teacher Leadership Through Collaborative Reflections: A Narrative Phenomenology

Fomento del liderazgo de profesores de inglés en formación y principiantes mediante reflexiones colaborativas: una fenomenología narrativa

Alireza Karbalaei
Mohammad Hossein Arefian
Department of English, Farhangian University, Tehran, Iran

This small-scale study investigates how collaborative reflective practice can foster teacher leadership among preservice and novice EFL teachers, while recognizing the benefits and challenges related to this approach. The findings suggest that collaborative reflective practice offers personal, social, and professional benefits, such as enhanced confidence, social support, and developed pedagogical practices. Yet, problems, including time limitations and changing levels of reflective expertise, were identified. This study contributes to the developing body of literature on teacher leadership by emphasizing the role of collaborative reflective practice in enhancing leadership development among EFL teachers.

Keywords: collaborative reflective practice, EFL teachers, professional development, teacher education, teacher leadership

Este estudio narrativo investiga los beneficios y desafíos asociados a la práctica reflexiva colaborativa y cómo esta puede fomentar el liderazgo entre profesores de inglés en formación y principiantes. Se encontró que la práctica reflexiva colaborativa ofrece beneficios personales, sociales y profesionales, como una mayor confianza, apoyo social y el desarrollo de prácticas pedagógicas. Sin embargo, también se identificaron problemas como limitaciones de tiempo y niveles variables de experiencia reflexiva. Este estudio contribuye a la creciente literatura sobre el liderazgo docente al enfatizar el papel de la práctica reflexiva colaborativa en el desarrollo del liderazgo entre docentes de inglés.

Palabras clave: desarrollo profesional, formación docente, liderazgo educativo, práctica reflexiva colaborativa, profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera

Alireza Karbalaei https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6343-9131 • Email: Karbalaei2008@gmail.com
Mohammad Hossein Arefian https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1140-1497 • Email: arefian.m@yahoo.com

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Karbalaei, A., & Arefian, M. H. (2026). Fostering preservice and novice EFL teacher leadership through collaborative reflections: A narrative phenomenology. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 37–54. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.120456

This article was received on May 19, 2025 and accepted on October 15, 2025.

Introduction

In the educational arena, teachers are expected not only to develop subject-specific knowledge and instructional skills but also to assume leadership roles within their schools and communities (Ghamrawi et al., 2024). Teacher leadership—conceptualized as the ability of teachers to affect educational practices, enhance collaboration, and foster school growth—has received considerable attention recently (MacLeod, 2020). Educators and policymakers progressively identify its potential to develop school improvement, enhance teaching and learning processes, and assess student achievement (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). At the initial stages of the teaching career, it is important for preservice and novice teachers to cultivate leadership skills. Although these educators have the capacity to determine the future trajectory of education, they often come across challenges that hinder their professional development and leadership skills (Reeves & Lowenhaupt, 2016).

Within the Iranian context, preservice and novice English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teachers face particular challenges. These teachers regularly function within a top-down leadership structure, where their voices are downgraded due to their supposed lack of experience. Furthermore, they struggle with the difficulties of teaching a foreign language rooted in cultural values that may diverge from their own, inadequate access to professional development and support, and the discouraging effects of working with unmotivated students and unsupportive administrators. In Iran, English language teaching operates within a centralized education system in which curriculum and materials are often standardized by the Ministry of Education (Arefian, 2022b). Whereas private language institutes provide more flexibility, they still encounter limitations, including inadequate access to professional development resources and Western instructional methodologies because of geopolitical factors. EFL teachers in Iran must explore these structural challenges while meeting high student expectations for English proficiency, chiefly for academic and economic opportunities. These barriers underline the necessity for creative approaches to foster teachers' professional growth and leadership development.

One important approach is collaborative reflective practice (CRP), a systematic but changeable framework that supports teachers in engaging in reflective and collaborative dialogue about their instructional experiences and practices (Ciampa & Reisboard, 2024). CRP includes critical reflection, shared understandings, and shared problem-solving within a community of practice (CoP), where teachers collectively plan, act, observe, and reflect on their instructional practices (Arefian et al., 2024; Farrell, 2019). This process facilitates a reflective mindset, which is indispensable for continuing professional development and adaptive leadership. Furthermore, CRP nurtures a sense of community and mutual responsibility, supporting teachers to learn from one another and build supportive professional networks (Esfandiari & Arefian, 2024; Lee, 2007).

For preservice and novice EFL teachers, CRP provides a supportable model for improving leadership skills within the fabric of professional development. By engaging in CRP, these teachers can foster key leadership attributes such as instructional quality, innovative practices, professional understanding, cooperation skills, motivation and engagement, mentorship, and socio-cultural competence (Yagata, 2017). New studies have underscored the usefulness of collaborative reflections in supporting teacher leadership, as such practices help teachers elucidate uncertain thoughts, make decisions, solve problems, and enhance helpful communication strategies (Esfandiari et al., 2025; Meyer et al., 2023). Besides, CRP generates a supportive environment where teachers can mutually face the problems they encounter, thus increasing their resilience and ability to flourish in the profession (Arefian et al., 2025).

Despite increasing recognition of the significance of teacher leadership and CRP, there is an important gap in the literature concerning the significance of CRP in developing the leadership skills of preservice and novice EFL teachers. Although previous studies have investigated the advantages of collaborative and reflective practices in general teaching contexts, few have explored how these practices can be operationalized to facilitate leadership skills among EFL teachers, chiefly in challenging environments like those found in Iran. This gap underlines the necessity for targeted research to investigate how CRP can be successfully applied to enhance the leadership development of EFL teachers. To address this gap, the present study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. How can CRP enhance the leadership skills of preservice and novice EFL teachers?
2. What are the benefits and challenges of implementing CRP for fostering teacher leadership in EFL contexts?

Literature Review

Teacher Leadership in Educational Contexts

The complexity of contemporary educational environments has led to a shift from traditional top-down leadership models to more participatory and distributed approaches (Arefian, 2022a). This change highlights the significance of teacher leadership, in which teachers take active roles in management, syllabus design, material development, and school development (Campbell et al., 2022; Ghamrawi et al., 2024). Teacher leadership is mainly relevant for facilitating collaboration, reflection, and professional development among teachers, empowering them to go beyond classroom boundaries and facilitate wider administrative goals (Shen et al., 2020).

For preservice and novice teachers, teacher leadership provides a path to explore the challenges of early career phases, boost teaching skills, and enhance a culture of lifelong learning (Shen, 2023). In the context of EFL teaching, teacher leadership can support novice teachers in navigating the difficulties of language teaching, incorporating technology successfully, and boosting learners' engagement (Ghamrawi & Tamim, 2023). By assuming leadership roles throughout their formation, preservice teachers can strengthen resilience, gain experiential learning, and improve a sense of agency within a CoP (Taylor et al., 2011). Teacher leadership includes a range of roles, comprising mentor, curriculum specialist, and classroom supporter (Ghamrawi, 2013). For novice EFL teachers, these roles offer chances for mutual empowerment, in which shared capabilities and collaborative learning nurture a sense of collective efficacy (Harris & Spillane, 2008). This collaborative approach supports the principles of distributed leadership, highlighting democratic and inclusive practices that facilitate reflection, feedback, and mutual goals (Harris, 2011).

Collaborative Reflective Practice

Reflective practice has long been known as a foundation of teacher development, empowering teachers to critically assess their practices, recognize areas for development, and implement meaningful modifications (Crawford, 2022). Recently, the focus has transferred from individual reflection to collaborative approaches, in which teachers partake in collaboration, exchange experiences and ideas, and produce knowledge collectively within a CoP (Takahashi, 2011). CRP underlines the significance of shared support, collective responsibilities, and joint problem-solving, enhancing a culture of continuous professional development (Arefian, 2023).

For preservice and novice EFL teachers, CRP provides a planned framework for professional development. By means of collaborative planning, acting, observing, and reflecting, teachers can gain crucial perceptions into their practices, receive helpful feed-

back, and foster a deeper understanding of their roles as educators (Arefian & Nami, 2025; Farrell, 2019). CRP additionally inspires teachers to participate in critical reflection, present their ideas, and form strong professional networks (Takahashi, 2011). Studies have illustrated that CRP can facilitate collective scaffolding among teachers, leading to enhanced teaching practices and student outcomes (Chung & Fisher, 2022).

The usefulness of CRP relies on some factors, including the quality of collaboration, the kinds of reflective techniques used, and the level of organized support (Hennessy & Davies, 2020). For novice EFL teachers, CRP provides a helpful environment where they can try new strategies, face challenges collaboratively, and develop leadership skills through mutual decision-making and reflective dialogue (Esfandiari & Arefian, 2025). These practices are in line with the principles of teacher leadership, highlighting the significance of collaboration, reflection, and continuous development.

Theoretical Framework: Situative Theory and Communities of Practice

This study is established on situative theory, which suggests that learning is a social process rooted in genuine contexts and facilitated by participation in CoPs (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Situative theory highlights the prominence of appropriate peripheral participation, in which novice learners progressively move from the periphery to the center of a CoP through active engagement, collaboration, and reflection (Wenger, 1998). This framework supports the principles of CRP and teacher leadership, both of which highlight the role of collaborative and reflective practices in professional development.

Within a CoP, novice EFL teachers can be involved in CRP to facilitate their leadership skills, exchange knowledge, and share mutual goals. The cyclical process of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting enables teachers to learn from their experiences, modify their practices, and build a mutual understanding of effective teaching and leadership (Farrell, 2019). This approach contrasts with individualistic models of learning (e.g., Kolb et al.'s [2014] experiential learning theory), which have been criticized for their lack of contextual relevance and dependence on static learning styles (Arefian & Esfandiari, 2024). As an alternative, situative theory offers a more flexible and context-sensitive framework for understanding how novice teachers boost leadership skills through collaborative and reflective practices. By situating this study within the framework of situative theory and CoPs, we seek to explore how CRP can facilitate teacher leadership development among preservice and novice EFL teachers. This approach highlights the social and contextual dimensions of learning, emphasizing collaboration, reflection, and mutual participation in professional development.

Method

This study adopts a qualitative approach to obtain a rich, contextualized, and in-depth understanding of how a small sample of preservice and novice EFL teachers engaged in CRP to improve their leadership skills and practices (Nassaji, 2020). Moreover, as qualitative studies explore participants' thoughts, beliefs, theories, ideas, and experiences, this study shows how preservice and novice EFL teachers can enhance their leadership through CRP in Iran (Collins & Stockton, 2018). The study follows a narrative phenomenological approach to explore participants' lived experiences while implementing CRP to foster and develop their leadership. Narrative phenomenology integrates the strengths of narrative analysis and phenomenology, allowing researchers to gain both profound personal stories and discover the essence of participants' experiences (Klenke, 2016). So, the narrative analysis underscores individual stories that provide contextual details about their social,

physical, professional, and emotional experiences with CRP and leadership.

Participants and Context

Four preservice (three men and one woman) and four novice (two men and two women) EFL teachers were selected through snowball sampling. To carry out snowball sampling, we identified one preservice and one novice EFL teacher who were enthusiastic about conducting CRP and teacher leadership and were engaged in in-depth qualitative research. These initial participants then recommended other individuals in their network who also met the specified criteria. The preservice teachers had one year of teaching experience in private schools, and the novice teachers had 2 to 3 years of teaching experience. It was stated that novice teachers were those with less than 3 years of teaching experience (Freeman, 2007). In Iran, undergraduate EFL teachers are required to teach at school for one to three years before obtaining their degree. In that sense, all participants are considered as preservice teachers. However, we decided to focus on the amount of teaching experience, and participants with just one year of teaching experience are labelled as preservice teachers for the ease of comparison, while more senior undergraduates (with two and three years of teaching experience) are treated as novice teachers. Finally, participants' age ranged from 20 to 27 (M = 23, SD = 2.36), and they came from different parts of Iran.

Participants were all BA undergraduates of English Language Teaching at different state universities in Tehran, Iran. During their BA, they had taken courses in language pedagogy, methodology, psychology, assessment, linguistics, education, research, technology, curriculum, practicum, and so on. They had completed the teacher training course certificate in the language department of their university. All of them were English teachers at a private junior high school. The junior high school had a department dedicated to the English language, aiming to help students progress from A2 to B2 proficiency levels. Within their school context, reflective practices and collaborative learning were two important areas that they needed to focus on, and the school managers used them for their annual salary raise.

Data Collection

We provided participants with a consent form to verify their agreement and to inform them that their personal information would remain anonymous and that the results would be utilized solely for research purposes (Wiles, 2012). Consequently, two workshop sessions were conducted related to CRP and teacher leadership for preservice and novice EFL teachers. Thus, they were invited to participate in a one-hour workshop to learn the processes, procedures, applications, and benefits of CRP. At the end of this workshop, they were given sufficient time to ask questions and share concerns regarding the implementation of CRP (e.g., planning, acting, observing, and reflecting collectively). Additionally, there was another workshop session on the features of effective teacher leadership, such as instructional expertise, innovation and creativity, vision and goals, communication skills, advocacy and influence, mentorship and support, cultural competence, professional development, and, more importantly, reflective practice and collaboration. Although the workshops offered foundational knowledge of CRP and teacher leadership, their short duration (two one-hour sessions) may have restricted participants' depth of understanding. The short-term nature of this intervention means findings should be interpreted as primary understandings into how CRP impacts leadership development, rather than definitive evidence of long-standing transformation. At the end of the second workshop, participants had some questions to clarify the concept, procedure, and implementation of teacher leadership.

One of the researchers formed two groups, each including two preservice and two novice teachers. They were encouraged to use CRP to enhance their

leadership in their classes for three months. During the study, they had to conduct CRP with other team members in a focus group discussion. They had discussions regarding CRP and leadership every week. They asked their questions, received help and guidance, gained solutions, obtained feedback, identified areas for improvement, co-planned and implemented their actions, and reflected on and evaluated their peers' practices to enhance their leadership. Author 2 acted as both a participant and an observer to provide some comments, give feedback, respond to participants' concerns, and help them throughout the process (Hockey & Forsey, 2020). The sessions were recorded, and field notes were taken during the discussions.

Additionally, participants were required to compose six reflective narratives (about two pages each), that is, written accounts in which they recorded their introspective thoughts, experiences, actions, decisions, and feelings associated with their instructional practices and leadership development via CRP. They discussed how CRP could enhance their leadership, the experiences they had, and the stories of how CRP influenced teacher leadership, teaching effectiveness, and students' learning achievement. These narratives recorded participants' introspective accounts of their experiences, thoughts, decisions, actions, and feelings, allowing for deep personal engagement and highlighting significant moments reflectively. The narratives were gathered throughout the term, and some follow-up questions were asked to gather deeper information. All participants but one (who submitted only four essays) provided their reflective narratives.

At the end of the study, participants had a 20-minute unstructured interview around the following questions regarding the role of CRP in teacher leadership:

1. Did CRP influence your leadership? In what ways?
2. Which features of CRP have most positively changed?
3. Will you use this approach in your future practices? Why?

Since the interviews were unstructured, the questions were expanded based on participants' answers. Finally, the interview sessions were audio-recorded for transcription.

Data Analysis

An inductive thematic analysis was employed (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to examine the qualitative data. As Braun and Clarke (2006) claim, "inductive analysis is . . . a process of coding the data without trying to fit it into a preexisting coding frame, or the researcher's analytic preconceptions" (p. 83). Table 1 presents a six-step framework that expands on the analysis of data in the current study.

The data from field notes, narratives, and interviews were thoroughly coded for categorization, with attention to their meanings and patterns. Then, extracts with similar meanings were grouped under a broader category. Furthermore, the subcategories were linked to the overarching themes. Besides, after counting the frequencies of themes and categories, charts and tables were manually made in PowerPoint to show the percentages of categories and provide a meaningful representation. Frequency percentages emerged from inductive coding of all qualitative data sources, with each meaningful unit of analysis (e.g., a participant's statement about time limitations) counted as one code. Percentages reflect code prevalence, not individual participants. Besides, after measuring the coding process, the result displayed an inter-coder reliability of 97.5. All disagreements were resolved following an extensive discussion between Author 1 and an expert in coding, resulting in unanimous consensus.

Findings

In this section, we present the role of CRP in teacher leadership, exploring the applications and procedures, results and reasons, opportunities and challenges, as well as benefits and difficulties. The three main themes covered are: (a) Teacher Leadership

Table 1. Phases of Inductive Thematic Analysis (Adapted From Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

Phase		Description of the process
1	Familiarizing with the data	Thoroughly reading the narratives, focus group discussion field notes, and interview data
2	Generating initial codes	The process of systematically coding intriguing features of the dataset, gathering pertinent data for each code
3	Searching for themes	Compiling codes into possible themes and collecting all pertinent data for each potential theme
4	Reviewing themes	Verifying the functionality of the themes in connection to the coded excerpts (Level 1) and the complete dataset (Level 2), producing a thematic map of the analysis
5	Defining and labeling themes	Continual examination to enhance the details of every theme, as well as the overarching narrative conveyed by the analysis, creating precise definitions and titles for each theme
6	Producing the report	The ultimate chance for examination. Choosing vibrant and captivating instances from the extracts, conducting the ultimate analysis of the chosen extracts, connecting the analysis to the research question and existing literature, and creating an academic report based on the analysis

and CRP for Professional Development, (b) Teachers' Reflective and Collaborative Leadership, and (c) Benefits and Challenges of Enhancing Teacher Leadership With CRP (see Table 2). Hence, the extracts provided by participants were explained. Participants stated perceived development in leadership skills by means of CRP; however, these self-reported advances need to be considered in light of the study's restricted timeframe and workshop-based introduction to leadership concepts. The developing themes suggest possible pathways for leadership development instead of conclusive outcomes. In terms of coding the data, preservice teachers are identified as "PT," and novice teachers as "NT." The narratives are labelled as "N," field notes of observations as "FN," and interviews as "I."

Theme 1: Teacher Leadership and CRP for Professional Development

Figure 1 summarizes the developing process of leadership development that participants labelled in their narratives and discussions. We use it here because it openly reflects participants' stated experiences before analyzing their wider implications in the discussion section.

Table 2. Themes and Categories

Theme 1: Teacher Leadership and CRP for Professional Development	Theme 2: Teachers' Reflective and Collaborative Leadership	Theme 3: Benefits and Challenges of Enhancing Teacher Leadership With CRP
	Categories	
Reflective practices	Self-assessment and evaluation	Benefits: personal, professional, and social
Collaborative practices	Instructional practices	Challenges: time constraints, trust, and resistance to change
Professional growth	Community of practice	

Figure 1. Process of Developing Leadership Through CRP Based on Experiential Learning Theory

To develop professionally and actively, preservice and novice EFL teachers need to know how to learn from their practices reflectively and collaboratively. Since teachers' professional development was regarded as an active, ongoing, situated, reflective, and coherent process, preservice and novice EFL teachers could reflect on their practices to solve problems, enhance instruction, identify strengths and weaknesses, connect theory and practice, implement wise plans, and look for growth through reflective observation, as seen in the following excerpts:

Excerpt 1. Reflective practices

Reflections helped me in finding and seeing my problems, those problems were reflectively observed, such as using a lot of academic words during my speech for talking to young learners. (NT1, FN)

Excerpt 2. Collaborative practices

I explained everything for my students, like by reading books, discussing topics, and explaining grammar and vocab…I have to engage students more in my class for the next sessions…So, I could be more creative by using more questions, prompts, clues, body language, pictures, elicitation, and so on. (PT3, N)

Excerpt 3. Enhancing creativity

I used to work with my peers to enhance our students' engagement during class. We planned to use more creative methods, such as assigning projects, promoting group work and collaborative learning, using technology and virtual reality, having creative assignments, generating games and tailored activities, and using mindfulness and short breaks. The result was fantastic!! (PT1, N)

In this way, preservice and novice EFL teachers developed their knowledge and skills professionally within their specific teaching context. Along with reflections, teachers could use collaboration to implement CRP, thereby creating more opportunities and benefits. Their professional development turned out to be dialogic, along with social relationships and mutual engagement during reflections. Preservice and novice EFL teachers learned how to provide and receive feedback, guidance, and help, create a supportive learning

environment, take and share responsibilities, act as coaches and mentors for peers, and plan, act, and reflect collectively. NT4 presented:

> **Excerpts 4 and 5.** Collective professional growth
> We novice teachers must get help from experienced peers to know what to do and how. When I taught reading, I used to teach every new word before it. However, my peer told me that I need to teach some relevant strategies, such as deducing the word from the context, to make my students autonomous. (NT4, I)
> I reflected and collaborated with my peers; they had more experience and were informative; and I could get help from them to teach more professionally. Previously, I learned by reading and workshops, but now, I can have kind friends, a caring class, and a supportive school. (PT1, I)

Hence, preservice and novice EFL teachers shared their ideas and practices socially, made collective decisions, clarified concepts and connected theory and practice together, explored problems and designed materials and tasks to solve them collaboratively, and developed professionally in a professional CoP.

Teacher leadership could help preservice and novice EFL teachers develop professionally. Teachers who adopted the identity of leaders were more responsible for reflecting on their instruction, class environment, students' learning and achievement, and other instructional factors:

> **Excerpt 6**
> We could talk to parents, stakeholders, and students more systematically and collectively in a mentally and interactively supportive manner. Once I had a meeting with parents about the student's low achievement, I thought about strategies to motivate and direct them by collaborating with my peers and manager. (PT2, N)

Furthermore, participants needed to collaborate with other teachers, students, experts, and parents to make decisions, implement strategies, and devise plans and policies. They became able to reflect more critically and, collectively, identify and solve problems related to teaching, the school, and the class within a CoP. In addition, they enhanced the instruction and achievement of students by focusing on quality, taking more responsibilities, working with peers professionally, reforming educational practices, and updating actions, thoughts, and theories. Teachers adopted a more professional discourse and became more professional. They acted as counselors, mentors, material developers, teachers, friends, assessors, and leaders:

> **Excerpt 7.** Reflective and collaborative leadership
> We, as novice teachers, were more cognizant of our roles as both teachers and leaders…We had to manage the students, class, and school professionally…This needed a lot of factors such as reflection, collaboration, problem-solving, decision-making, and others. So, we learned how to work together to solve our problems and make wise decisions regarding teaching and learning, policies and initiatives, actions and strategies, and evaluations and assessments. (NT2, I)

Thus, preservice and novice EFL teachers were able to receive feedback and support, enhance their professional development, hold collaborative meetings, gain practical skills, implement innovations, make informed improvements, become adaptable, and create a long-lasting learning environment.

Theme 2: Teachers' Reflective and Collaborative Leadership

Preservice and novice EFL teachers discerned how to develop their leadership skills reflectively and collaboratively during their initial teacher education programs. They could develop their subject matter and instructional knowledge and practice of teaching through reflecting on novel experiences, setting realistic objectives, theorizing practice, practicing theories, making sense of new experiences, supporting plans with collective wisdom, transforming educational

performance, building practice on established studies, and researching and exploring new areas:

> **Excerpt 8.** Instructional practices
> I could gain knowledge and skill of classroom management through reading books, discussing, and experiencing new strategies related to classroom management… When I could see myself as a real leader, my management could be enhanced a lot. (NT3, N)

Furthermore, Author 2 perceived that "it was obvious that novice teachers could become more flexible in gaining knowledge of teaching, students' psychology, and school management since they tried hard to make the content appropriate, increase the creativity of teaching, and have smoother procedures" (FN).

Additionally, students' learning and achievement increased due to improved instructional practices, enhanced creativity and advocacy, qualified assessment procedures, practical classroom management, constructive feedback, and effective teachers' roles. One of the preservice teachers could "develop a formative assessment procedure with the help of novice teachers to give feedback, help, and guidance, which was really effective for engaging students" (FN). So, teacher leadership could enhance the whole school's performance by improving and refining participants' overall teaching practices and professional development, analyzing their practices and finding areas needing improvement, sharing applicable and constructive strategies and practices in a CoP, encountering problems and solving them innovatively with other teachers, forming a professional and community-oriented school culture, and making continuous development a norm. As stated by PT4, "we could engage all students to do creative and collaborative tasks, even those students who were demotivated and low achievers" (N).

Similarly, NT3 could "enhance one student's listening comprehension by giving some listening tasks, asking for transcriptions and listening for pleasure, reflecting on his performance, engaging his parents, and introducing some podcasts and audiobooks" (FN).

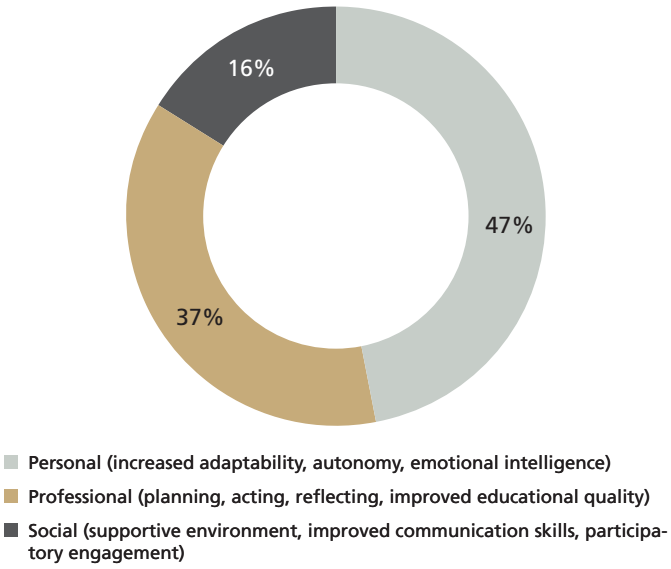
Preservice and novice EFL teachers developed their leadership reflectively and collaboratively through leadership, implementing self-assessment and evaluation, identifying areas for improvement, receiving constructive feedback, building a professional network, participating in mentoring and coaching sessions, and improving their confidence. As NT2 mentioned: "Collaborative team teaching and coaching practices could change my confidence while teaching…I could add innovation to my grammar teaching through technology, multimedia, tasks, and stories" (FN). So, participants developed their professional knowledge and practice individually through reflective leadership and collectively through collective leadership within a CoP. Commenting on self-assessment, PT2 claimed: "When I reflected and collaborated with other teachers to enhance my leadership, I could assess my own teaching practice, skill, and knowledge and know my areas of strengths and weaknesses" (I).

Theme 3: Benefits and Challenges of Enhancing Teacher Leadership With CRP

Figure 2 shows the frequency of coded responses across all data sources (n = 8 participants' interviews, narratives, and field notes). For example, 47% of coded excerpts (n = 15 of 32 total coded segments) reflected personal benefits like improved autonomy, calculated as: (Number of personal-benefit codes ÷ Total codes) × 100. CRP could enhance teacher leadership personally (47%), professionally (37%), and socially (16%). Collective reflections could make preservice and novice teachers more reflective and cooperative.

Participants became more flexible and committed towards challenges and hardships. Teachers became more autonomous in building objectives, taking action, and exploring the source of problems to solve. Likewise,

Figure 2. Benefits of Enhancing Teacher Leadership With CRP



being mindful and resilient to change, and making positive adaptations were vital elements for teachers. Some novice teachers mentioned that "they had more adaptability and motivation to reflect on problems and collaborate with others to solve them" (FN). In addition, participants learned to take greater responsibility for the whole school and its educational elements. They felt valued after taking on more responsibilities, cooperating with others, sharing ideas, identifying and solving issues, and making big and effective changes inclusively. So, preservice and novice EFL teachers, like experienced members, could possess agency, emotional intelligence, and self-awareness, as stated by PT4: "I could manage my stress and tension by reflecting and collaborating with my peers, directing actions and feelings, and having support and help." Professionally, preservice and novice teachers could plan, act, observe, and reflect collaboratively and iteratively to enhance their leadership, educational quality, students' learning, and school learning atmosphere:

> **Excerpt 9.** Benefits
>
> We could find problems, plan to act wisely, implement strategies, and reflect on their consequences to enhance our leadership and learners' achievement. Like the time I reflected on a problem related to having more feedback to see how students learn…I used concept-checking questions during my instruction and tried hard to observe their learning. (I)

This led to reflective and collaborative teacher leadership, sharing thoughts and practices, constructive feedback, and managing the school analytically and socially. As mentioned by PT1: "I could reflect on my discourse as a teacher…I tried my best to record and listen to my voice, plan and think before talking, and ask peers for feedback" (N). Participants managed to own experiential professional learning by experimenting with new strategies, actions, plans, and objectives, making sense of new experiences and contextual factors, and gaining meaningful and authentic experiences of teaching, which could foster their leadership. Socially, preservice and novice EFL teachers could have a supportive and inclusive learning environment, collective identity, participatory engagement, reciprocal relationships, strong rapport, democratic educational climate, scaffolding, joint construction, and improved

communication skills and cultural competence. One of the teachers indicated: "Collaborative reflections helped me to learn how to build a professional community to receive help and enhance my leadership roles in the future. So, I could have a friendly and helpful professional learning environment" (NT1).

Figure 3 shows the frequency of coded excerpts from participants' narratives, interviews, and field notes that explain the challenges of CRP. Themes were inductively derived from responses to open-ended prompts about perceived impacts of CRP on their leadership development.

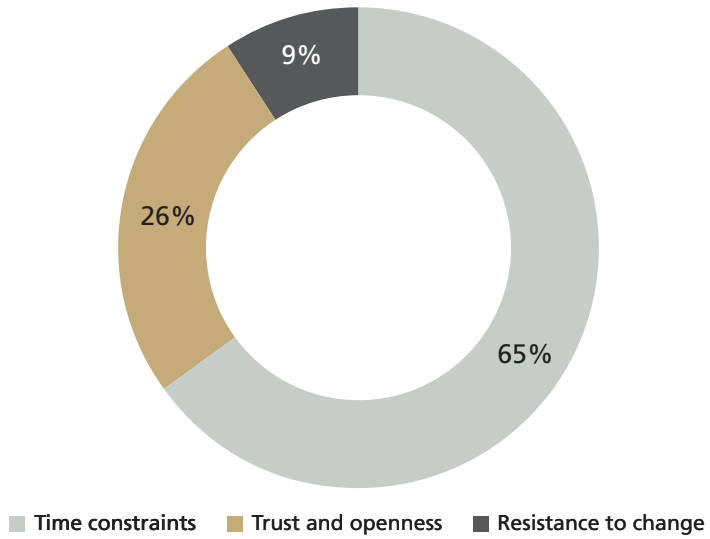
First, participants mentioned heavy workload and time constraints (65%) as the most common problems, since teachers had other jobs as well. NT2 stated: "This process was taking too much time from me…I do not have a lot of time after school as I have another job to do…Also, I like to spend my time on some free-time activities, rather than working professionally" (I).

Secondly, some participants needed more trust and openness (26%) to share their personal feelings, professional thoughts, and hands-on practices, and hoped for fewer group conflicts. Similarly, some participants were resistant to change (9%), as they had always been immersed in a top-down educational system. According to PT3, "the group discussion was such a battle…no one accepted my idea; sometimes, I think they become stubborn to change the bad conditions" (I).

Discussion

Developing preservice and novice EFL teachers' leadership skills is vital for their professional development (Reeves & Lowernhaupt, 2016), and this development can play a pivotal role in achieving this objective (Ciampa & Reisboard, 2024). Since preservice and novice EFL teachers are at the initial stages of their teaching careers, they need to learn to equip themselves with relevant leadership skills, strategies, and practices to face the various challenges that may come their way. Teacher leadership helped participants in this study take more responsibilities from the beginning to enhance their teaching, students' learning, and school performance. They developed a more nuanced professional identity through professional interactions and reflection on their roles as teachers, managers, counselors, mentors, material developers, friends, and assessors. Additionally, they reflected on and collaborated with peers and other stakeholders to enhance

Figure 3. Challenges Faced by Teachers in Enhancing Leadership With CRP



their students' teaching and learning, and developed plans and policies for implementation. These skills are crucial for novice teachers, as they often focus only on classroom behavior.

Preservice and novice EFL teachers could conduct CRP to enhance their leadership skills. Through this approach, they made decisions, discovered problems, and provided solutions collectively and developed professionally in a CoP (Arefian et al., 2024). Thus, they could learn to develop their leadership reflectively and collaboratively in an active, ongoing, and situated learning environment within a professional CoP. Preservice and novice EFL teachers who reflected on their practices could identify and solve problems, recognize strengths and weaknesses, and connect the theory and practice of leadership situationally and contextually (Arefian, 2023). They learned collaboratively by having social relationships and mutual engagement during reflections to make a supportive learning environment; share practice and ideas; receive constructive feedback; become critical friends; and co-plan, co-implement, and co-reflect (Esfandiari & Arefian, 2024). Furthermore, they improved the quality of their instruction by reforming and updating their practices, theories, and thoughts to reach the desired objectives. In this way, they took greater agency and voice to share, implement, and reflect on ideas and experiences. Moreover, they had more professional discourse while teaching and interacting with students. Thus, preservice and novice EFL teachers were able to access support, hold regular collaborative meetings, gain useful skills, use creativity, make informed decisions, develop their flexibility, and create a long-lasting learning environment. Current studies have pointed out the usefulness of CRP in encouraging teacher leadership (Meyer et al., 2023). Lee (2007), for instance, indicated that preservice teachers doing reflective practices enhanced their leadership skills, illuminated their vague thoughts, probed for the best decision and solution, resolved challenges, and gained communication skills.

By implementing CRP to enhance leadership, participants could develop their subject matter and pedagogical awareness of teaching by reflecting on and making sense of new teaching experiences, building collective wisdom and shared values, transforming and reforming educational practices, and investigating and discovering new areas for improvement (Ghamrawi & Tamim, 2023; Shen, 2023). Personally, participants became more autonomous in making decisions, developing plans, taking action, and changing practices with other teachers, students, and parents. They were also more mindful and resilient, as they used both their reflective cognitions and social collaborations within a supportive, constructive, and flexible professional learning context. They enhanced their self- and peer-assessment practices to evaluate their own and others' practices reflectively and critically. Additionally, they developed emotional and social intelligence by reflecting on their emotions, directing feelings, managing interactions, socializing their practices, and enhancing their cognitive understanding. Similar findings were reported by Whitehead and Greenier (2019), who explored perceptions of English language teacher leadership among 20 South Korean university students. The results of their study suggested that those English teachers who were passionate, built rapport, had purpose, reflected, collaborated to enhance practice, and were flexible could go beyond traditional classroom practices and take leadership roles.

Ghamrawi et al. (2024) stated that effective teacher leaders obtain a profound understanding of reflective teaching and learning, actively engage in collaborative contributions, and inspire both peers and students emotionally and professionally. Professionally, participants of our study could plan, act, observe, and reflect collaboratively and iteratively to enhance their leadership. They were able to show more reflective and collaborative teacher leadership, express their ideas and thoughts, obtain constructive feedback, and participate in experiential professional learning by trying

out new strategies analytically and socially (Karlberg-Granlund & Pastuhov, 2024). Socially, participants were part of a supportive and inclusive learning environment to develop professionally with other peers, trainers, and stakeholders. In addition, they gained a collective identity as they were fully engaged with others through reciprocal relationships within a democratic educational atmosphere. In addition, they received sufficient scaffolding and joint construction of knowledge, as well as improved communication skills and cultural competence. Askarpour et al. (2024) claim that the personal, social, and professional qualities mentioned above are crucial for preservice and novice EFL teachers to handle the challenges of classroom management, curriculum development, and communication with students, colleagues, and parents. Moreover, existing research investigations underscore the role of CRP in promoting teachers' skills, confidence, discipline, communication skills, rapport, and community building, as some vital characteristics of leaders (Keramati et al., 2024).

However, boosting teacher leadership with CRP faces several obstacles. Initially, the teachers' heavy workloads and time limitations were prevalent issues, as many participants had additional responsibilities. Secondly, certain participants required increased trust and honesty to express their emotions, ideas, and practical experiences, while minimizing group disagreements. Additionally, some individuals were hesitant to embrace change due to their exposure to a hierarchical educational structure during their academic life. To alleviate these challenges, several strategies can be adopted. First, institutions could invest enough time for CRP within teachers' plans or encourage "micro-reflections"—shorter, concentrated sessions—to work on substantial workloads. Second, trust-building activities (e.g., anonymized initial reflections or mentorship pairings) could help preservice teachers feel safe sharing vulnerabilities. In conclusion, resistance to hierarchical norms might be considered by regularly enabling teachers through small leadership roles (e.g., peer observations) while calling for institutional support to legitimize CRP as a professional development priority. Upcoming research could evaluate the efficacy of these interventions in contexts with embedded top-down structures.

Conclusion

Preservice and novice EFL teachers who face various challenges during their first teaching practices need to enhance their leadership skills to succeed, act professionally, and maintain their profession. Such leadership skills can help them enhance their professional development, their students' learning, and their school initiatives and policies. One way to develop preservice and novice EFL teacher leadership can be CRP. Hence, this study explored how preservice and novice EFL teacher leadership could be fostered by implementing CRP in professional development practices. The results of the narrative phenomenology indicated that preservice and novice EFL teachers could boost their leadership through CRP. Preservice and novice EFL teachers could obtain constructive feedback, generate a caring learning environment, divide their responsibilities, share thoughts and feelings, and plan, act, and reflect collectively to enhance their leadership skills and practices. Additionally, they improved their leadership reflectively and collaboratively through self-assessment, identifying areas for improvement, receiving constructive feedback, building a professional network, participating in mentoring and coaching sessions, becoming more creative and flexible, and increasing their confidence. In practice, preservice and novice EFL teachers could become more autonomous, adaptable, and emotionally intelligent by conducting CRP to enhance their leadership. Socially, they fostered their communication and cultural competence within a supporting CoP. The challenges of conducting CRP to improve leadership include time constraints, a lack of trust and openness, and resistance to change.

Whereas this study offers insights into how CRP nurtures leadership among preservice and novice EFL teachers, the brief duration of the leadership workshop and intervention period (three months) restricts the generalizability of the findings. A longer intervention with continuous reflective and collaborative cycles would yield deeper insights into leadership development and its longstanding influence. Moreover, the small sample size limits wider applicability. Upcoming research should extend this primary framework (Figure 1) by employing longitudinal studies with larger participant groups across different contexts. Such inquiries could also validate the role of CRP in teacher leadership and investigate how institutional support (e.g., dedicated time for collaboration) alleviates challenges posed by time constraints. Some limitations have to be considered, such as the lack of accessibility to a larger sample of preservice and novice EFL teachers. So, further investigations can conduct quantitative research using a larger sample to achieve generalizability. Other investigations can explore how preservice and novice language teachers can develop their leadership skills within different contexts. More inquiries can show how teachers from different disciplines can work together to gain distributed leadership, along with conducting collaborative reflections. This can inform teacher educators, teachers, stakeholders, policymakers, and school managers in using CRP to improve novice and preservice teachers' leadership skills and practices.

References

Arefian, M. H. (2022a). Collaborative action research as a reflective tool for pre-service EFL teachers' inclusion. *Reflective Practice*, *23*(6), 651–662. https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2022.2103107

Arefian, M. H. (2022b). Perceptions of self-assessment literacy and self-directed reflection during online learning for Iranian EFL student teachers. *Reflective Practice*, *23*(6), 623–634. https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2022.2096584

Arefian, M. H. (2023). Motivating teachers to reflect in a professional community of practice through collaborative action research. *International Journal of Educational Reform*. https://doi.org/10.1177/10567879231217457

Arefian, M. H., & Esfandiari, R. (2024). E-learning-oriented assessment and collaborative reflection for situated learning in language teacher education. *Language Testing in Asia*, *14*, 36. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-024-00305-0

Arefian, M. H., & Nami, H. (2025). Action research literacy as a reflective tool for unmonitored Iranian-novice EFL teachers. *International Journal of Educational Reform*, *34*(4), 689–704. https://doi.org/10.1177/10567879231163524

Arefian, M. H., Çomoğlu, I., & Dikilitaş, K. (2024). Understanding EFL teachers' experiences of ChatGPT-driven collaborative reflective practice through a community of practice lens. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2024.2412769

Arefian, M. H., Esfandiari, R., & Zarei, A. A. (2025). Exploring AI-based collaborative reflective practice in light of ChatGPT: Insights from EFL preservice teachers. *Applied Linguistics Inquiry*, *3*(1), 31–43.

Askarpour, A., Ganji, M., & Hayatolain, S. (2024). A comparative study of the teaching challenges faced by newly-hired and experienced teachers teaching at different age levels. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*, *16*(33), 74–96. https://doi.org/10.22034/elt.2024.60793.2617

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Campbell, T., Wenner, J. A., Brandon, L., & Waszkelewicz, M. (2022). A community of practice model as a theoretical perspective for teacher leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *25*(2), 173–196. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2019.1643500

Chung, E., & Fisher, L. (2022). A dialogic approach to promoting professional development: Understanding change in Hong Kong language teachers' beliefs and practices

regarding vocabulary teaching and learning. *System*, *110*, 102901. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102901

Ciampa, K., & Reisboard, D. (2024). Empowering teacher educators: Advancing culturally responsive practices through professional development. *Action in Teacher Education*, *46*(2), 350–371. https://doi.org/10.1080/01626620.2024.2357088

Collins, C. S., & Stockton, C. M. (2018). The central role of theory in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *17*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406918797475

Crawford, R. (2022). Action research as evidence-based practice: Enhancing explicit teaching and learning through critical reflection and collegial peer observation. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *47*(12), 53–75. https://doi.org/10.14221/1835-517X.6065

Esfandiari, R., & Arefian, M. H. (2024). Developing collective eyes for Iranian EFL teachers' computer-assisted language assessment literacy through internet-based collaborative reflection. *Education and Information Technologies*, *29*, 9473–9494. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-023-12201-w

Esfandiari, R., & Arefian, M. H. (2025). Exploring the role of imaginative and creative AI-oriented reflections in English language teachers' professional development: A complexity theory perspective. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies*, *17*(1), 73–94. https://doi.org/10.22111/ijals.2025.50352.2484

Esfandiari, R., Arefian, M. H., & Lam, R. (2025). Understanding collective and reflective learning-oriented assessment among Iranian EFL pre-service teachers in learner-centered language teacher education. *International Journal of Language Testing*, *15*(1), 91–106. https://doi.org/10.22034/ijlt.2024.460026.1347

Farrell, T. S. C. (2019). Reflective practice in L2 teacher education. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 38–51). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315659824-5

Freeman, L. (2007). An overview of dispositions in teacher education. In M. E. Diez & J. Raths (Eds.), *Dispositions in teacher education* (pp. 3–29). Information Age Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-60752-719-020251003

Ghamrawi, N. (2013). Teachers helping teachers: A professional development model that promotes teacher leadership. *International Education Studies*, *6*(4), 171–182. https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v6n4p171

Ghamrawi, N., Shal, T., & Ghamrawi, N. A. R. (2024). Cultivating teacher leadership: Evidence from a transformative professional development model. *School Leadership & Management*, *44*(4), 413–441. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632434.2024.2328056

Ghamrawi, N., & Tamim, R. M. (2023). A typology for digital leadership in higher education: The case of a large-scale mobile technology initiative (using tablets). *Education and Information Technologies*, *28*(6), 7089–7110. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-022-11483-w

Harris, A. (2011). Distributed leadership: Implications for the role of the principal. *Journal of Management Development*, *31*(1), 7–17. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621711211190961

Harris, A., & Spillane, J. (2008). Distributed leadership through the looking glass. *Management in Education*, *22*(1), 31–34. https://doi.org/10.1177/0892020607085623

Hennessy, S., & Davies, M. (2020). Teacher professional development to support classroom dialogue: Challenges and promises. In N. Mercer, R. Wegerif, & L. Major (Eds.), *The Routledge international handbook of research on dialogic education* (pp. 238–253). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429441677-21

Hockey, J., & Forsey, M. (2020). Ethnography is not participant observation: Reflections on the interview as participatory qualitative research. In J. Skinner (Ed.), *The interview: An ethnographic approach* (pp. 69–87). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003087014-4

Karlberg-Granlund, G., & Pastuhov, A. (2024). Being, becoming and sustaining: Learning professional learning in teacher education. *Professional Development in Education*, *50*(2), 372–385. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2023.2291360

Keramati, A., Keramati, M. R., & Arefian, M. H. (2024). Students' reflection on the effect of collaborative learning

on the learning environment and academic achievement in online reflective platforms. *Reflective Practice*, *25*(2), 117–131. https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2024.2305868

Klenke, K. (2016). *Qualitative research in the study of leadership* (2nd ed.). Emerald Group Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1108/9781785606502

Kolb, D. A., Boyatzis, R. E., & Mainemelis, C. (2014). Experiential learning theory: Previous research and new directions. In R. J. Sternberg & L.-F. Zhang (Eds.), *Perspectives on thinking, learning, and cognitive styles* (pp. 227–247). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410605986-9

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511815355

Lee, I. (2007). Preparing pre-service English teachers for reflective practice. *ELT Journal*, *61*(4), 321–329. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccm022

MacLeod, L. (2020). Shaping professional development of educators: The role of school leaders. In M. A. White & F. McCallum (Eds.), *Critical perspectives on teaching, learning and leadership: Enhancing educational outcomes* (pp. 189–217). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-6667-7_10

Meyer, A., Kleinknecht, M., & Richter, D. (2023). What makes online professional development effective? The effect of quality characteristics on teachers' satisfaction and changes in their professional practices. *Computers & Education*, *200*, 104805. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2023.104805

Nassaji, H. (2020). Good qualitative research. *Language Teaching Research*, *24*(4), 427–431. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820941288

Reeves, T. D., & Lowenhaupt, R. J. (2016). Teachers as leaders: Pre-service teachers' aspirations and motivations. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 57*, 176–187. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.03.011

Shen, J. (2023). The theory of bifurcated educational system and its implications for school improvement. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *26*(2), 223–243. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2020.1808708

Shen, J., Wu, H., Reeves, P., Zheng, Y., Ryan, L., & Anderson, D. (2020). The association between teacher leadership and student achievement: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *31*, 100357. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2020.100357

Takahashi, S. (2011). Co-constructing efficacy: A "communities of practice" perspective on teachers' efficacy beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *27*(4), 732–741. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.12.002

Taylor, M., Yates, A., Meyer, L. H., & Kinsella, P. (2011). Teacher professional leadership in support of teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *27*(1), 85–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.07.005

Wenger, E. (1998). Communities of practice: Learning as a social system. *The Systems Thinker*, *9*(5), 1–5.

Whitehead, G. E. K., & Greenier, V. T. (2019). Beyond good teaching practices: Language teacher leadership from the learners' perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, *53*(4), 960–985. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.526

Wiles, R. (2012). *What are qualitative research ethics?* Bloomsbury Academic. https://doi.org/10.5040/9781849666558

Yagata, K. (2017). A failure of dialogue? A critical reflection on a discussion between a teacher trainer and a preservice second-language teacher. *Reflective Practice*, *18*(3), 326–338. https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2016.1277342

York-Barr, J., & Duke, K. (2004). What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship. *Review of Educational Research*, *74*(3), 255–316. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543074003255

About the Authors

Alireza Karbalaei is an assistant professor in TEFL and Head of the Department of English Language at Farhangian University in Tehran (Iran). He teaches BA and MA courses in research methodology, academic writing, teaching skills, and translation, and has focused on teacher professional development.

Mohammad Hossein Arefian is a PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics from Imam Khomeini International University (Iran). He has published several papers on teacher professional development. His main interests are online teacher education, professional development, artificial intelligence, reflective practice, action research, and assessment literacy.

Roles: both authors contributed equally to the conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.119715

Peer Feedforward for Enhancing Preservice EFL Teachers' Academic Writing

Evaluación prospectiva entre pares para apoyar la escritura académica de profesores de inglés en formación

Lilian Gómez-Álvarez
Anita Ferreira
Universidad de Concepción, Concepción, Chile

This exploratory study investigated peer feedforward as a strategy to enhance academic writing coherence and cohesion among preservice EFL teachers. Employing a corpus content analysis of a three-week scaffolded process involving cycles of self-reflection and peer feedforward on academic writing tasks, findings revealed that implementing scaffolded peer reviews during the writing process, before task submission, improved the quality of participants' text coherence and cohesion, metacognitive awareness, and critical self-assessment skills, as revealed by peer comments. Results suggest that integrating peer feedforward may help participants address the dual demands of mastering and teaching academic writing while they develop as reflective, autonomous, and collaborative writers.

Keywords: academic writing, coherence, cohesion, EFL preservice teachers, peer feedforward

Esta investigación exploratoria sobre la evaluación prospectiva entre pares buscó mejorar la coherencia y la cohesión en la escritura académica de estudiantes de pedagogía en inglés como lengua extranjera. El análisis de corpus de un módulo de tres semanas, que involucró andamiaje en ciclos de reflexión y evaluación prospectiva entre pares durante el proceso de escritura académica, antes de la entrega final, evidenció una mayor calidad de los escritos en cuanto a coherencia y cohesión, y mayor consciencia metacognitiva y pensamiento crítico en las autoevaluaciones, según los comentarios de los pares. Esto sugiere que la estrategia empleada puede ayudar a los participantes a dominar la escritura académica mientras se desarrollan como escritores reflexivos, autónomos y colaborativos.

Palabras clave: coherencia, cohesión, escritura académica, evaluación prospectiva entre pares, formación docente en enseñanza de lenguas

Lilian Gómez-Álvarez https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8628-6913 • Email: ligomez@udec.cl
Anita Ferreira https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7979-6467 • Email: aferreir@udec.cl

This work has been funded by Proyecto ANID/FONDECYT/Regular 1230706: Feedforward online para mejorar la escritura académica del ensayo argumentativo en español como L1 y en inglés como L2.

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Gómez-Álvarez, L., & Ferreira, A. (2026). Peer feedforward for enhancing preservice EFL teachers' academic writing. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 55–71. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.119715

This article was received on May 6, 2025 and accepted on October 13, 2025.

Introduction

It is widely acknowledged that writing coherently and cohesively is essential for effective communication and teaching (Sun, 2020). While coherence requires logical flow and overall unity of ideas, cohesion is tied to the linguistic mechanisms that link sentences and paragraphs effectively (Brown, 2022; Chen & Cui, 2022). Learning to write coherently and cohesively seems more challenging to preservice English as a foreign language teachers (henceforth, PETs) since cohesion, consistency, and relevance—essential for coherence—are harder to attain in English as an additional language (Al-Issa et al., 2017; Nilopa et al., 2017; Tardy, 2025). Owing to the complexity of academic texts, EFL learners, particularly PETs, require explicit instruction to develop these language aspects; otherwise, they may struggle to model effective writing practices and provide adequate support to their learners (Kwan & Yunus, 2014). Unlike prior research that views peer feedforward as comments and advice towards future assignments (Gambhir & Tangkiengsirisin, 2017), our research seeks to unveil whether this strategy may enhance academic writing coherence and cohesion among PETs during their writing process prior to task submission, using reflection journals as precursors of more advanced academic writing.

While extensive research exists on feedback in L2 writing, much of the literature deals with corrective feedback, the effectiveness of which is debated (Cheng & Zhang, 2022). Recently, studies have shifted emphasis to the potential of feedback to encourage metacognitive awareness and self-regulatory practices, including critical self-assessment skills (Gao et al., 2018; Tran & Ma, 2024). Research suggests that engaging in assessment—whether by commenting on peers' texts or reflecting on one's own writing—sharpens learners' ability to identify and address gaps in their understanding (Gao et al., 2018; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009). This aligns with sociocultural theories of learning, which situate interaction as a catalyst for cognitive development and skill refinement (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Multiple benefits of both receiving and providing feedback (Yu & Lee, 2016) position learners as co-constructors of knowledge while they engage in reciprocal interactions, critique, and reflection. We propose that the dialogic approach to writing involved in peer feedback be extended into the realm of peer feedforward, by which insights gained through peer review serve as anticipatory strategies to improve students' drafts as they engage in peer-feedforward loops during the process prior to summative assessment, thereby transforming writing into a dynamic, iterative process (Carless & Boud, 2018) fed by collaboration.

Even if peer feedforward as a pedagogical strategy is gaining interest (Gambhir & Tangkiengsirisin, 2017), the concept is still evolving. Given limited knowledge of how best to implement it to address the specific challenges PETs face in mastering L2 academic writing (L2AW)—as introduced by Tardy (2025)—we agree with Carless (2020) that activating the learner role in peer-assessment processes is crucial. Further research is needed not only to explore how PETs may become more feedback literate but also to gain a deeper understanding of the types of peer-feedforward loops that may be more effective in promoting coherence and cohesion in this population (Baroudi et al., 2023). As Tardy (2025) suggests, a more intricate understanding of such concepts is necessary to develop effective interventions since current studies rely mostly on quantitative data, which may not capture the rich, contextualized experiences of PETs.

In our research, we posit that peer feedforward may provide a platform for learners to analytically engage with textual features through reflection, promoting an enhanced awareness of discourse organization, and enabling more purposeful revisions prior to summative submissions. In this context, coherence and cohesion emerge as focal points in L2AW, as L2 learners, including PETs, often struggle to meet the linguistic and rhetorical demands required to produce unified, logically structured texts. In this sense, we

hypothesize that, by participating in peer-feedforward reflective cycles, PETs may develop a deeper understanding of coherence and cohesion in L2AW, which means heightened awareness of decisions at both local and global levels to attain textual logical flow and lexicogrammatical accuracy.

Consequently, we address this complex gap by exploring how, when engaging in peer-feedforward loops regarding their peers' self-reflections on L2AW, PETs may develop greater sensitivity to textual coherence and cohesion while providing peer formative assessment as part of their learning. Besides offering a novel intervention explicitly targeting coherence and cohesion, we seek to contribute to the evolving conceptualization of peer feedforward by proposing its use within the framework of peer assessment as learning (Yu, 2024). We also offer a window to explore the interconnected roles of metacognition, reflection, and peer feedforward in promoting coherence and cohesion as PETs mutually collaborate in their writing process. Finally, we aim to contribute to the field of applied linguistics by enriching the knowledge of how peer feedforward may impact L2 learners' writing abilities, while providing empirical evidence on the effectiveness of this strategy as a pedagogical tool for PETs and offering practical implications for TESL/TEFL education programs.

In sum, we pursue a two-fold aim: to explore how peer feedforward as a recursive prospective strategy may support PETs' effective use of coherence and cohesion necessary for L2AW success, and to examine the potential of peer feedforward as a tool for ESL/EFL teacher formation.

Literature Review

This section includes theoretical tenets and empirical research. It focuses on two interrelated areas: (a) coherence and cohesion in L2AW and (b) the roles of peer feedforward and metacognition in supporting L2 writing development.

Coherence and Cohesion in L2 Academic Writing

It is well-known that L2AW is key in teacher education, requiring the ability to master linguistic accuracy and rhetorical conventions at an advanced level to articulate complex ideas, develop arguments, and engage critically with formal discourse. As an interdisciplinary field drawing on applied linguistics, rhetoric, composition, education, and anthropology, L2AW addresses how to teach, learn, and write in an additional language (Tardy, 2025), a process that presents unique challenges compared to writing in an L1. In Chile, both foreign and Chilean college students may indeed face particular challenges. The former need to communicate competently in Spanish (the country's official language) as a vehicular language (Pastor Cesteros & Ferreira Cabrera, 2018). The latter are required by national standards to achieve C1 level in English (according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* [CEFR]) before graduation. However, their texts in the foreign language often lack fluency and effectiveness (Silva, 1993) since they struggle with grammatical precision, lexical variety, and coherent organization, which contributes to the perception of L2AW as an onerous endeavor (Lin & Morrison, 2021; Pineteh, 2013).

Such difficulties seem greater for PETs, who must also demonstrate textual organization competence, genre awareness, and rhetorical precision (Lloyd, 2007; Sparks et al., 2014) as well as skills in synthesizing sources, maintaining coherence, using evidence persuasively, and, as in the case of our participants, mastering citation conventions when they work on their undergraduate thesis and other academic tasks. In fact, L2AW, rather than sentence-level accuracy, is more about critical thinking, analysis, and information synthesis (Castillo-Martínez & Ramírez-Montoya, 2021). It requires developing a specific style marked by a formal tone, discipline-specific terminology, and adherence to genre conventions (Septiwan & Hafizh, 2021). Since the development of coherence and cohesion in L2AW

is closely linked to learners' linguistic competence and their awareness of discourse structure, let us examine both in more detail.

The role of coherence and cohesion as prime textual features is acknowledged in theoretical and empirical work (Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2002; McNamara et al., 2010). Presenting ideas in a clear and logical manner is key to helping readers understand the writer's train of thought, which is central to effective writing (Brown, 2022; Chen & Cui, 2022). Coherence involves macro-organization of ideas relevant to the topic with clear development (Lee, 2002; Reinhart, 1980). Meanwhile, cohesion requires the use of lexico-grammatical devices—such as conjunctions, reference, substitution, ellipsis, and lexical connections, including pronouns—that link ideas across clauses and sentences to glue paragraphs together (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; McCarthy, 1991; Samuels, 2024; Saputra & Hakim, 2020). Empirical research suggests that these devices—particularly reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion—may predict fluency and writing quality (Tian et al., 2021). Indeed, discourse connectors provide the logical scaffolding for constructing persuasive arguments (Hyland, 2005), with more coherent L2 texts using more varied and appropriate connectors (Schiftner-Tengg, 2022). Thus, mastering the use of connectors compensates for limitations in vocabulary and syntax, enabling writers to communicate complex relationships effectively. Without such tools, writing seems disjointed, hindering comprehension and rhetorical impact (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Interestingly, texts that display cohesion might still not achieve coherence (Lee, 2002; Nilopa et al., 2017), as many learners overuse or misuse cohesive markers, resulting in technically cohesive texts that lack logical flow. McNamara et al. (2010) argue that cohesion is not merely about surface-level textual links but about underlying semantic and conceptual connections supporting overall comprehension. As Crossley et al. (2016) state, both local (e.g., within-sentence) and global (e.g., paragraph-level) cohesion contribute to text coherence. Their computational analyses of learner corpora evidenced that more proficient writers were more purposeful and strategic in their use of cohesive devices. For Mallia (2017), achieving coherence requires an understanding of rhetorical structure and awareness of audience and purpose, while Hyland (2011) posits that students learn what counts as good writing through an understanding of their discipline and the conventions and genres regarded as representative.

Hence, explicit instruction that targets both coherence and cohesion (Al Shamalat & Ghani, 2020; Bahaziq, 2016; Bui, 2022; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Kadiri et al., 2016) is important to align L2 learners' writing with disciplinary expectations that will enable them to effectively engage with academic communities. Indeed, explicit instruction is key to improving students' writing skills, enabling them to produce more organized, logically structured texts (Nilopa et al., 2017). Riazi's (1997) study on Persian ESL learners found that their use of lexical cohesion and reference increased as their proficiency improved. Conversely, overuse of certain cohesive devices, particularly conjunctions, among L2 students led to mechanical or unnatural-sounding texts, as Liu and Braine (2005) found when comparing texts written in English by Chinese students and native speakers. This suggests that, while cohesion may be taught explicitly, coherence seems to result from cognitive processes and rhetorical awareness (Connor & Johns, 1990; Hyland, 2003) that can be targeted through reflection.

Consequently, teaching coherence and cohesion poses significant challenges, particularly in ESL/EFL contexts, since students may lack the language resources or rhetorical knowledge to organize ideas logically and fluently (Hinkel, 2001). Instructional strategies aimed at improving coherence and cohesion typically include the use of model texts, rhetorical moves, and explicit instruction in cohesive devices; however, the literature points to approaches that integrate form-focused instruction with higher-order skills such as idea development and discourse organization. Wette

(2017) stresses logical progression and thematic development in writing tasks to enhance both discourse features. Knoch et al. (2015) allude to the importance of raising students' awareness of textual organization through targeted instruction on genre-based writing, metacognitive strategies, and feedback mechanisms. They argue that L2 learners tend to make more informed linguistic and structural choices when exposed to scaffolded instruction, aiding in their understanding of coherence and cohesion. From the teacher's perspective, writing instruction may overemphasize cohesive devices while neglecting idea development and discourse structure, thereby hindering genuine coherence (Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005; Silva, 1990). It seems sensible to teach coherence and cohesion as integral components of academic literacy in authentic writing tasks scaffolded by strategies that foster metacognitive awareness and reduce anxiety.

Peer Feedforward and Metacognition

Studies seeking to support learning during the writing process have largely focused on written corrective feedback (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferreira, 2017, 2022; Sheen, 2011), mostly by teachers. Fewer studies deal with prospective formative approaches (Contreras & Zúñiga, 2017), peer feedback, or agency (Farini & Scollan, 2023) through collaborative writing. Peer feedback, or peer assessment, is a well-known collaborative approach in which learners judge each other's work using given criteria, encouraging dynamic idea exchange and evaluative comments. This structured arrangement enables learners to assess and elaborate on their peers' work and engage in discussions that enhance understanding and skill development (Topping, 2017). In L2AW, peer feedback's unique contribution lies in promoting collaborative learning and audience awareness while reducing the perceived authority gap of teacher feedback (Nelson & Carson, 1998; Ruegg, 2015). Zaccaron and Xhafaj (2020) observed that students' uptake of teacher feedback (which the participants assumed was peer feedback) was "quite similar to the ones who received peer-feedback" [*sic*] (p. 50). This prompted the authors to disguise the teachers' comments on lexis and grammar as peers' comments (Zaccaron & Xhafaj, 2024), confirming their hypothesis that "the social representations of teachers and peers seem to bias their feedback processing" (p. 59)—authority and trust do play a role. When learners act as assessors, peer feedback enhances writing self-efficacy and promotes self-regulatory behaviors (Lee & Evans, 2019). Farini and Scollan (2023) posit that facilitating agency—the synergy between one's action and participation in social interactions—can help legitimate learners as "authors of knowledge" (p. 13). This is evident in Gambhir and Tangkiengsirisin's (2017) study on peer feedback and peer feedforward towards EFL argumentative writing, where comments in the form of praise, advice, and critique—including acknowledgment of progress for improvement and advice towards future tasks (a form of peer feedforward)—enabled learner uptake in a subsequent assignment, resulting in improved learner goal setting and positive perception of both strategies, indicating that receiving and giving both peer feedback and peer feedforward helped improve argumentative essay writing.

Similarly, Ubilla Rosales and Gómez Álvarez (2015) and Ubilla Rosales et al. (2017, 2020) applied cognitive and sociocultural principles of second language acquisition to design a learner-centered blended course for collaborative writing to improve Chilean PETs' argumentative essays, including peer-review cycles (as we understand feedforward now, though not coined at that time) while performing drafter, reviewer, and editor roles in triads. They found improvements in the L2AW process and text quality, a significant correlation between participants' perceptions of collaboration and written performance self-assessments, and evidence of the importance of using online writing tools in explicit instruction of writing as a process. Álvarez and Difabio

de Anglat (2017) noted that peer feedback enhanced reflective practice and improved writing at different educational levels.

With increased interest in strategies aiming at engaging students actively in the writing process by means of formative assessment, collaboration, and reflection, peer feedforward emerges as an alternative encompassing them all. In a systematic review on ESL/EFL learner gains from online peer feedback (OPF) in English writing, Cao et al. (2022) found that both writing cohesion and coherence improved in terms of local error correction and global text revisions. They also found that students perceived that OPF improved the flow, organization, and transitions of their essays, and helped them focus on local aspects such as grammar, sentence structure, and vocabulary. More recently, empirical research points at peer feedback and peer feedforward as tools not just for error correction but for enhancing critical evaluation skills and deeper awareness of writing issues (Yang & Zhang, 2023), encouraging planning and reflection to enable learners' self-regulation in their revision process (Chen et al., 2023; Li & Hebert, 2024; Yang & Zhang, 2023), and developing feedback literacy to empower learners to assess and act on peer comments strategically (Weng et al., 2024).

When Carless (2007) and Carless et al. (2006) introduced the concept of feedforward in education as learner-oriented assessment, they meant guidance offered before or during the writing process. Sadler (2010) contributed to this paradigm shift of learners actively developing evaluative judgment skills to become self-regulated learners with capabilities of assessing and improving their own work while also engaging in purposeful peer assessment during the learning process. In contrast to feedback, peer feedforward is designed to inform future performance and help writers anticipate challenges for strategic decision-making while writing (Carless & Boud, 2018). Understood as a feedback cycle, feedback loop, or feedback spiral (Carless, 2020), what makes feedforward innovative is the timing of its delivery: during the writing process and with a focus on future action (Carless, 2006; Carless & Boud, 2018; Orsmond et al., 2013; Sadler, 2010). We may add the potential to reflect on the writing process before summative assessment (i.e., assessment as learning; Yu, 2024).

Although a comprehensive review of assessment paradigms is beyond the scope of this work, suffice it to stress that assessment *of* learning typically centers on summative outcomes and grading; assessment *for* learning emphasizes formative, process-oriented feedback aimed at improvement; and assessment *as* learning takes a step further by engaging learners in reflection as they set goals, monitor progress, and participate in self-assessment (Yu, 2024). By actively engaging in assessment *for* and *as* learning, PETs may improve their own L2AW as they develop the evaluative and reflective skills needed in their teaching practice. In the context of peer feedforward, assessment as learning is particularly relevant, as it supports learners' development of self-regulation and metacognitive strategies (Lee & Evans, 2019), allowing students to receive and critically evaluate peers' comments and apply them thoughtfully while developing their rhetorical understanding and L2AW competence (Yu & Lee, 2016). Research suggests that peer feedforward can bridge writing instruction and professional development by helping learners consider real audiences and clarify their rhetorical intentions (Nelson & Carson, 1998; Ruegg, 2015), which are essential for PETs. When implemented through peer interaction, feedforward may serve a dual function—scaffolding writing development while encouraging critical reflection and evaluative judgment—providing students with opportunities for active learning as they give and receive constructive comments and suggestions on writing-in-progress.

Peer feedforward seems most effective when embedded in a pedagogical model integrating metacognition (Flavell, 1976, 1979; Hart, 1965), that is, learners' awareness and regulation of their own cognitive (and, in this case, writing) processes. Chen and Cui (2022) posit

that dialogic peer engagement promotes metacognitive growth and writing awareness. As part of learning processes, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) identify three types of metacognitive strategies: planning (organizing actions to perform a task), monitoring (awareness of what one is doing during a task), and evaluating (judging what has been done). To these, Cross and Vandergrift (2018) add problem solving (identifying and solving comprehension problems). In writing, evidence suggests that metacognitive strategies enhance coherence by promoting intentional revisions and reflective writing decisions (De Mello et al., 2023; Rosdiana et al., 2023). Yu and Lee (2016) claim that deciding whether to incorporate peer suggestions into one's own revisions is itself a metacognitive exercise. Indeed, it requires learners to assess the relevance, validity, and potential impact of feedback, mobilizing critical thinking, rhetorical judgment, and reflective practice. Mohamad and Tasir (2023) emphasize the importance of reflective questioning to help students assess whether their ideas are logically connected and clearly communicated, connecting metacognition to the act of providing feedback to others, as it requires learners to engage in reflection, compare their own writing with peer texts, and evaluate the effectiveness of various rhetorical choices.

In sum, the literature points to the advantages of blending peer feedforward and metacognitive instruction to support learners in developing cohesive and coherent texts, as well as the reflective skills needed for long-term academic and professional writing, and for effective L2AW instruction. Consequently, our research question is: How can peer feedforward—centered on coherence and cohesion—support metacognitive awareness and writing development among PETs?

Method

In this exploratory study, we used a non-experimental design (Creswell & Creswell, 2023) and conducted content analysis of a corpus of reflection journals and peer-feedforward moves. This was done in order to unveil evidence of improvement in PETs' L2AW coherence and cohesion, as shown in peer comments.

Context and Participants

This study was conducted within the context of a required advanced L2AW course offered by the first author and taught by a trained teaching/research assistant, at a publicly-supported private Chilean university. Data were collected for three weeks on a course management platform (Canvas) in a blended class that included a four-hour-per-week face-to-face writing lab, during the seventh semester of a five-year TEFL program, whose final year is devoted to writing an undergraduate thesis and conducting the professional teaching practicum for licensing. The course focused on developing students' ability to write academic texts aligned with international standards, with emphasis on coherence, cohesion, and rhetorical structure.

Although 35 Chilean PETs from intact classes initially signed up for the study via an online Google Forms form, 30 (nine men and 21 women) completed the writing tasks within the allotted period. These participants were native speakers of Spanish with a B2 level of English (according to the CEFR), as measured by a home-based IELTS mock-examination at the end of semester six. They had previously completed coursework in English grammar, composition, and language pedagogy, and received instruction in reflective writing and peer feedforward as part of the course introduction. The participants were familiar with the online platform, which was used throughout the study for submitting reflections and engaging in peer feedforward on the discussion board. This context provided an authentic environment to explore how peer feedforward, as a pedagogical strategy, could support the development of L2AW skills among PETs.

Analysis

The written corpus for analysis was downloaded from the course management platform. Each writing cycle

involved two tasks: (a) writing a 200-word reflection journal on personal writing development, and (b) providing peer feedforward on two classmates' reflections. Feedforward was in the form of comments of praise, advice, acknowledgment of progress, suggestions for improvements, and clarification questions. Participants had several means on which to base their comments, including exemplary texts to set clear expectations, content regarding academic writing, coherence and cohesion, the teacher's instructions they could use as a checklist, and the IELTS band descriptors (British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia, & Cambridge Assessment English, 2023) as a guide for their self- and peer-review process. The instructions explicitly stated that this process was not about opinions but about text quality appraisal. Once participants received peer comments, they individually revised their drafts for improvement before submitting them to the teacher for scoring. Since peer feedforward was not a common practice in previous courses and learner autonomy needs scaffolding, we thought involving the teacher as a final assessor would serve as a step towards agency in collaborative writing. The score was given strictly for adherence to task instructions and helping students transition from teacher-only feedback into student-based revision. The teacher did not participate in the discussion board to avoid influencing the participants' ideas. Only when students were off task did the teacher add a metacognitive comment to the score to redirect their task compliance; no comments on coherence, cohesion, or language use were provided, since the focus was on peer feedforward. This recursive process was designed to foster metacognitive engagement and support collaborative improvement of the task at hand, not subsequent writing tasks.

We used RStudio for statistical analysis and Python to generate figures. Qualitative coding and interpretation were conducted manually. After thematic coding of both peer comments and reflection entries, we analyzed the data quantitatively to identify patterns of improvement in coherence and cohesion. Quantitative data resulted from the categorization of peer feedforward across weekly cycles based on the linguistic focus of each comment (i.e., coherence and cohesion, vocabulary and lexical resources, or grammatical accuracy), extracted from peer responses to reflection journals submitted to Canvas. The categories that emerged from qualitative data analysis were confirmed through repeated discussions among researchers to ensure consistency. This approach enabled a week-by-week tracking of shifts in attention and writing focus, capturing the emergence of metacognitive awareness. By triangulating peer feedforward, self-reflections, and textual revisions, we were able to map patterns of development over time, particularly in relation to coherence and cohesion. This integrative analysis revealed how peer feedforward supported both the identification of areas of improvement and the internalization of organizational strategies in L2AW.

The study was approved by the institutional research ethics committee. Participants signed a consent form, which included a general description of the study and an invitation to participate voluntarily and anonymously. Participants who did not consent to the study or did not complete the tasks were excluded.

Findings

We collected 66 reflection journals and 122 peer comments. On average, each student submitted 2.2 reflections and received approximately four comments per reflection. Descriptive statistics tracked participation and engagement, while qualitative analysis focused on the discursive features in the reflections and comments.

As Table 1 shows, coherence and cohesion were the center of discussion each week, with 27 comments in week one and 34 in week two. Frequency dropped during week three, suggesting that as participants improved in coherence and cohesion, these features became less of a concern in their writing, and peer comments focused on idea organization and overall text coherence.

Table 1. Feedforward Categorization by Week

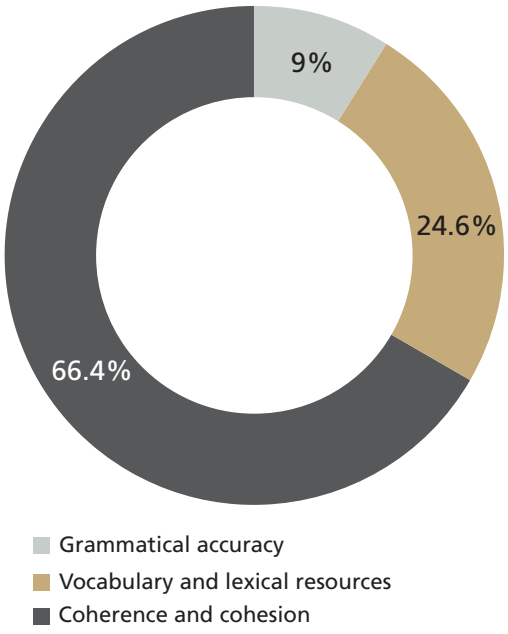
Ability	*f* (%)		
	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3
Coherence & cohesion	27 (60)	34 (73.91)	20 (64.52)
Vocabulary & lexical resources	13 (28.89)	10 (21.74)	7 (22.58)
Grammatical accuracy	5 (11.11)	2 (4.35)	4 (12.9)

Vocabulary and lexical resources decreased over time. Frequency started with 13 mentions, dropped to 10, and collapsed to seven in week three. This may indicate improvements in vocabulary usage and reduced attention to this aspect as coherence took precedence. Comments on grammar were minimal, ranging between two and five mentions, compared to the other categories, suggesting that grammatical issues were less significant or less emphasized compared to coherence and vocabulary. As students approach the CEFR C1 level, grammar seems to be less of a concern in favor of aspects such as coherence and cohesion.

In sum, coherence and cohesion seemed to be key aspects of peer feedforward in the discussion forum, as they received the most frequent comments. Vocabulary and lexical resources showed a declining frequency as weeks progressed, signalling improvement in this area.

Figure 1 shows that 66.4% of the peer comments addressed coherence and cohesion, reflecting their critical importance as a primary focus for improvement. Vocabulary and lexical resources accounted for 24.6% of the comments, indicating moderate emphasis on word choice and expression. Nine percent of the comments focused on grammar accuracy, reinforcing the idea that grammar was not a major concern in this context. In conclusion, peer feedforward to participants primarily focused on coherence and cohesion.

Figure 1. Feedforward Categorization (Overall Distribution)



The 122 peer comments revolved around three aspects of coherence and cohesion, as Table 2 shows: global coherence, local coherence, and use of connectors. These dimensions were discussed frequently, ranging from 27 to 34 mentions, which reveals improvement in these areas since participants incorporated their peers' comments into their revisions, anticipating possible mistakes in subsequent reflection journal drafts and hence feeding forward not only within the task at hand but also into future productions.

Table 2. Coherence: Examples per Week

Subcategories	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3
Global coherence ($f = 39$)	"I recommend you keep practicing so that you can organize your ideas more concretely." "It's a pleasure for me to read your texts. They are well-organized and easy to follow." "Great job following the 4-paragraph structure!"	"I also liked how you expressed your ideas, as it was easy to read." "I think your text is well-written and structured." "Your reflection is well-structured and precise."	"Your reflection is clear, concise, and coherent." "I think your ideas and comments are fully developed. Your response is easy to read, and the message is understandable." "Your reflection is well-organized and concise."
Local coherence ($f = 22$)	"I think a good option is to vary sentence lengths to avoid making your paragraphs hard to read." "Maybe as advice, you could combine smaller ideas to strengthen your paragraphs." "You should pay more attention to sentence length."	"I think you should review the punctuation, as the sentences in your paragraphs are quite long." "Your paragraphs are well-organized and easy to read."	"I think you could further develop the idea in the second paragraph, as it seems too short compared to the rest." "Your ideas per paragraph are well-developed."
Use of connectors ($f = 20$)	N/A	"I would suggest using connectors in the first paragraph to make it easier to read." "You could use more connectors." "I liked how you used connectors to make transitions."	"You could improve by including more transition words, such as connectors."

By the end of the intervention period, participants demonstrated significant improvements in organizing ideas and structuring arguments, achieving coherence at the global level, as per peer comments. Specifically, they emphasized overall text organization and clarity in writing, perceived as well-structured, clearly developed, and easy to follow. There was also mention of organizational structure, with praise for participants' paragraph flow and a suggestion to practice organizing ideas more concretely.

Local coherence addressed sentence-level clarity and paragraph balance. Comments showed that the paragraphs were well-organized and that the ideas in each were well-developed. Areas of improvement were length, punctuation, and shorter paragraphs.

Connectors or transition words were effective in shifting between ideas, according to peer comments. Recommendations included incorporating connectors more often to improve flow and cohesion within the text.

Finally, participants provided balanced, constructive advice, with a clear emphasis on improving readability and coherence, both globally and locally. This shows that participants were aware of the hierarchical nature of writing, as they observed and discussed elements from overall organization to finer details. It seems that peer feedforward prompted more purposeful revisions and enhanced participants' ability to identify gaps in their writing.

Conclusions

This study aimed to examine how peer feedforward, as a recursive and prospective strategy, supports PETs' development of coherence and cohesion in L2AW, and to assess its potential in ESL/EFL teacher formation. We have proposed a scaffolded peer-feedforward writing process, using reflection journals posted on an online discussion board as precursors to more advanced L2AW, in a recursive cycle of reflection and process writing.

Findings suggest that engaging as peer reviewers helped PETs become more reflective about their own writing processes and more aware of the role that organizational features, such as coherence and cohesion, play in effective L2AW. Participants' peer comments and journal reflections evidenced improvements in text organization and idea development, mirroring earlier findings that peer assessment benefits the reviewer's own writing (Lundstrom & Baker, 2009).

These findings expand our understanding of peer feedforward in EFL/ESL instructional settings, revealing benefits in metacognitive skills development as participants engaged in immediate revision as part of an assessment for learning (formative) process-approach to writing (Contreras & Zúñiga, 2017; Tardy, 2025) within—not across—(a) task(s), prior to submission (summative assessment) learning framework.

Through this evaluative and dialogic process, PETs began to internalize writing criteria and apply them meaningfully, developing autonomy, clarity of expression, and awareness of audience expectations (Ferreira, 2017, 2022). These results emphasize the pedagogical value of interaction and collaboration in developing both linguistic competence and reflective teaching practice.

Despite the need to prepare PETs to improve writing and their ability to teach it (Damnet, 2021), few targeted interventions exist so far, particularly in Latin American settings. Traditional approaches treat writing as a monological activity, emphasize product over process, and provide minimal feedback, which can lead to superficial engagement, low motivation, and poor results (Tao & Qin, 2025). The emphasis on coherence and cohesion in our dialogic model suggests that these aspects are key in developing writing skills beyond grammar and lexis and beyond written corrective feedback (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferreira, 2017, 2022; Ferris, 2010; Sheen, 2011; van Beuningen et al., 2012).

Although perceptions of digital tools were not directly assessed, the hybrid modality (face-to-face + discussion board) enabled asynchronous, scaffolded, and formative peer interaction, consistent with previous studies (Li & Hebert, 2024; Yang & Zhang, 2023).

Further research could focus on how peer feedforward develops coherence and cohesion over longer periods and across genres. Also warranted is an exploration of the role of self-assessment as a preparatory stage for effective peer feedforward. The development of a blended peer-feedforward model guided by clear rubrics could offer a replicable framework for L2AW instruction and teacher preparation.

In sum, this study contributes to the field by positioning peer feedforward as a meaningful pedagogical strategy to enhance writing quality (especially coherence and cohesion), prompt metacognitive skills, and develop teacher agency. Moreover, it invites a rethinking of writing as a dialogic, collaborative, and developmental process. While limitations such as the short timeframe, small sample, and descriptive focus constrain generalizability, the findings offer a valuable foundation for future pedagogical innovations in L2AW and teacher formation.

References

Al-Issa, A., Al-Bulushi, A., & Al-Zadjali, R. (2017). Perceptions of the selection criteria of Omani English language teachers: Implications for policy reconsideration. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *13*(2), 235–259. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1159162.pdf

Al Shamalat, R. Y. S., & Ghani, C. A. B. A. (2020). The effect of using conjunction as cohesive device on the undergraduates' quality of writing in argumentative essays of Jordanian EFL learners. *Arab World English Journal,* (6), 290–301. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/call6.19

Álvarez, G., & Difabio de Anglat, H. (2017). La actividad metalingüística en espacios de interacción entre pares: reflexiones en torno a un taller virtual orientado a la escritura de la tesis de posgrado. *Perfiles Educativos, 39(155), 51–67.* https://doi.org/10.22201/iisue.24486167e.2017.155.58102

Bahaziq, A. (2016). Cohesive devices in written discourse: A discourse analysis of a student's essay writing. *English Language Teaching, 9(7), 112–119.* https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n7p112

Baroudi, S., Aoun, S., & Hamam, D. (2023). Using feedforward to improve pre-service teachers' academic writing and critical thinking skills. *Frontiers in Education, 8.* https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2023.1126594

Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing.* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203832400

British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia, & Cambridge Assessment English. (2023, May). *IELTS writing band descriptors* [PDF file]. IELTS. https://bit.ly/3JrJmIU

Brown, G. T. L. (2022). The past, present and future of educational assessment: A transdisciplinary perspective. *Frontiers in Education*, *7*. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2022.1060633

Bui, H. P. (2022). Vietnamese EFL students' use and misconceptions of cohesive devices in writing. *SAGE Open, 12*(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440221126993

Cao, S., Zhou, S., Luo, Y., Wang, T., Zhou, T., & Xu, Y. (2022). A review of the ESL/EFL learners' gains from online peer feedback on English writing. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13.* https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1035803

Carless, D. (2006). Differing perceptions in the feedback process. *Studies in Higher Education, 31*(2), 219–233. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070600572132

Carless, D. (2007). Learning-oriented assessment: Conceptual bases and practical implications. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 44*(1), 57–66. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703290601081332

Carless, D. (2020). From teacher transmission of information to student feedback literacy: Activating the learner role in feedback processes. *Active Learning in Higher Education,* 23(2), 143–153. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787420945845

Carless, D., & Boud, D. (2018). The development of student feedback literacy: Enabling uptake of feedback. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 43*(8), 1315–1325. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2018.1463354

Carless, D., Joughin, G., & Mok, M. M. C. (2006). Learning-oriented assessment: Principles and practice. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *31*(4), 395–398. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930600679043

Castillo-Martínez, I. M., & Ramírez-Montoya, M. S. (2021). Research competencies to develop academic reading and writing: A systematic literature review. *Frontiers in Education, 5*. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2020.576961

Chen, M., & Cui, Y. (2022). The effects of AWE and peer feedback on cohesion and coherence in continuation writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 57*, 100915. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2022.100915

Chen, W., Liu, D., & Lin, C. (2023). Collaborative peer feedback in L2 writing: Affective, behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *14*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1078141

Cheng, X., & Zhang, L. J. (2022). Teachers helping EFL students improve their writing through written feedback: The case of native and non-native English-speaking teachers' beliefs. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.804313

Connor, U., & Johns, A. M. (Eds.). (1990). *Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives*. TESOL.

Contreras, R., & Zúñiga, L. (2017). La retroalimentación en la educación superior: un análisis de la literatura. *Estudios Pedagógicos, 43*(1), 169–185.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2023). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (6th ed.). Sage Publications.

Cross, J., & Vandergrift, L. (2018). Metacognitive listening strategies. In J. I. Liontas & M. DelliCarpini (Eds.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching*. Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0589

Crossley, S. A., Kyle, K., & McNamara, D. S. (2016). The development and use of cohesive devices in L2 writing and their relations to judgments of essay quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *32*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2016.01.003

Damnet, A. (2021). Enhancing pre-service EFL teachers' teaching skill through teacher training: A case study of a university in Thailand. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *12*(3), 1–8.

De Mello, G., Omar, N. H., Ibrahim, R., Ishak, N., & Rahmat, N. H. (2023). A study of the use of writing strategies from the social cognitive view. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 13*(5), 2531–2546. https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v13-i5/17033

Farini, F., & Scollan, A. (2023). *Pedagogical innovation for children's agency in the classroom: Building knowledge together.* Palgrave. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-28501-1

Ferreira, A. (2017). El efecto del *feedback* correctivo para mejorar la destreza escrita en ELE. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 19*(1), 37–50. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v19n1.10220

Ferreira, A. (2022). La precisión gramatical en un corpus de escritura académica de aprendientes africanos de ELE. *Revista Internacional de Lenguas Extranjeras*, (18), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.17345/rile18.3503

Ferris, D. R. (2010). Second language writing research and written corrective feedback in SLA: Intersections and practical applications. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(2), 181–201. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990490

Ferris, D. R., & Hedgecock, J. S. (2005). *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process, and practice* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Flavell, J. H. (1976). Metacognitive aspects of problem solving. In L. B. Resnick (Ed.), *The nature of intelligence* (pp. 231–235). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781032646527-16

Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive-developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, *34*(10), 906–911. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.34.10.906

Gambhir, R., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2017). Peer feedback and feedforward towards EFL argumentative writing. *The New English Teacher*, *11*(2), 63–84.

Gao, Y., Schunn, C. D. D., & Yu, Q. (2018). The alignment of written peer-feedback with draft problems and its impact on revision in peer assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation In Higher Education*, *44*(2), 294–308. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2018.1499075

Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing: An applied linguistic perspective*. Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. Longman.

Hart, J. (1965). Memory and the feeling-of-knowing experience. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 56*(4), 208–216. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0022263

Hinkel, E. (2001). Matters of cohesion in L2 academic texts. *Applied Language Learning*, *12*(2), 111–132.

Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667251

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book*. Routledge.

Hyland, K. (2011). Writing in the university: Education, knowledge and reputation. *Language Teaching*, *46*(1), 53–70. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000036

Kadiri, G. C., Igbokwe, U. L., Okebalama, U. N., & Egbe, C. I. (2016). The use of lexical cohesion elements in the writing of ESL learners. *Research in Language*, *14*(3), 221–233. https://doi.org/10.1515/rela-2016-0014

Knoch, U., Oon, S. P., & Storch, N. (2015). What happens to ESL students' writing after three years of study at an English medium university? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *28*, 39–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2015.02.005

Kwan, L. S. L., & Yunus, M. M. (2014). Cohesive errors in writing among ESL pre-service teachers. *English Language Teaching, 7*(11). https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n11p130

Lee, I. (2002). *Helping students develop coherence in writing*. *English Teaching Forum*, *40*(3), 32–39. https://bit.ly/4oxzIVo

Lee, M.-K., & Evans, M. (2019). Investigating the operating mechanisms of the sources of L2 writing self-efficacy at the stages of giving and receiving peer-feedback. *The Modern Language Journal, 103*(4), 831–847. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12598

Li, A. W., & Hebert, M. (2024). Unpacking an online peer-mediated and self-reflective revision process in second-language persuasive writing. *Reading and Writing, 37, 1545*–1573. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-023-10466-8

Lin, L. H. F., & Morrison, B. (2021). Challenges in academic writing: Perspectives of engineering faculty and L2 postgraduate research students. *English for Specific Purposes*, *63*, 59–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2021.03.004

Liu, M., & Braine, G. (2005). Cohesive features in argumentative writing produced by Chinese undergraduates. *System*, *33*(4), 623–636. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2005.02.002

Lloyd, M. (2007). Developing academic writing skills: The PROCESS framework. *Nursing Standard*, *21*(40), 50–56. https://doi.org/10.7748/ns2007.06.21.40.50.c4572

Lundstrom, K., & Baker, W. (2009). To give is better than to receive: The benefits of peer review to the reviewer's own writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *18*(1), 30–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2008.06.002

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2015). *Second language research: Methodology and design* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Mallia, J. (2017). Strategies for developing English academic writing skills. *Arab World English Journal, 8*(2), 3–15. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol8no2.1

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.

McNamara, D. S., Crossley, S. A., & McCarthy, P. M. (2010). Linguistic features of writing quality. *Written Communication*, *27*(1), 57–86. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088309351547

Mohamad, S. K., & Tasir, Z. (2023). Exploring how feedback through questioning may influence students' reflective thinking skills. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *41*, 101231. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2023.101231

Nelson, G. L., & Carson, J. G. (1998). ESL students' perceptions of effectiveness in peer response groups. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *7*(2), 113–131. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(98)90010-8

Nilopa, L. M., Miftāh, M., & Sugianto, A. (2017). Cohesive devices (CDs) in expository essay written by Indonesian students of English as a foreign language (EFL). *Premise: Journal of English Education and Applied Linguistics, 6*(2), 54–68. https://doi.org/10.24127/pj.v6i2.1003

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524490

Orsmond, P., Maw, S. J., Park, J. R., Gómez, S., & Crook, A. C. (2013). Moving feedback forward: Theory to practice. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 38*(2), 240–252. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2011.625472

Pastor Cesteros, S., & Ferreira Cabrera, A. (2018). El discurso académico en español como LE/L2: nuevos contextos, nuevas metodologías. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, *5*(2), 91–101. https://doi.org/10.1080/23247797.2018.1538306

Pineteh, E. A. (2013). The academic writing challenges of undergraduate students: A South African case study. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *3*(1), 12–22. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v3n1p12

Reinhart, T. (1980). Conditions for text coherence. *Poetics Today*, *1*(4), 161–180. https://doi.org/10.2307/1771893

Riazi, A. (1997). Acquiring disciplinary literacy: A social-cognitive analysis of text production and learning among Iranian graduate students of education. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *6*(2), 105–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(97)90030-8

Rosdiana, L. A., Damaianti, V. S., Mulyati, Y., & Sastromiharjo, A. (2023). The role of metacognitive strategies in academic writing skills in higher education. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *22*(6), 328–344. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.22.6.18

Ruegg, R. (2015). The relative effects of peer and teacher feedback on improvement in EFL students' writing ability. *Linguistics and Education*, *29*, 73–82. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.12.001

Sadler, D. R. (2010). Beyond feedback: Developing student capability in complex appraisal. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 35*(5), 535–550. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930903541015

Samuels, P. (2024). *Doctoral proposal writing: A guide for international students. Routledge*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003434344

Saputra, A., & Hakim, M. A. R. (2020). The usage of cohesive devices by high-achieving EFL students in writing argumentative essays. *Indonesian TESOL Journal, 2*(1), 42–58. https://doi.org/10.24256/itj.v2i1.1227

Schiftner-Tengg, B. (2022). Analysing discourse coherence in students' L2 writing: Rhetorical structure and the use of connectives. In A. Berger, H. Heaney, P. Resnik, A. Rieder-Bünemann, & G. Savukova (Eds.), *Developing advanced English language competence* (Vol. 22, pp. 237–255). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-79241-1_23

Septiwan, R., & Hafizh, M. A. (2021). An analysis of coherence in writing essays written by students at Universitas Negeri Padang. In H. Ardi, M. Adek, M. A. Arianto, S. Y. Sari, & D. Faisal (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Tenth International Conference on Languages and Arts (ICLA 2021)* (pp. 134–141). Atlantis Press. https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.211129.022

Sheen, Y. (2011). *Corrective feedback, individual differences and second language learning. Springer.* https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0548-7

Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and directions in ESL. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 11–23). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524551.005

Silva, T. (1993). Toward an understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing: The ESL research and its implications. *TESOL Quarterly*, *27*(4), 657–677. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587400

Sparks, J. R., Song, Y., Brantley, W., & Liu, O. L. (2014). Assessing written communication in higher education: Review and recommendations for next-generation assessment. *ETS Research Report Series*, *2014*(2), 1–52. https://doi.org/10.1002/ets2.12035

Sun, Y. (2020). Cohesion and coherence studies: Development, chaos and application. *Social Sciences, 9*(4), 113–120. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ss.20200904.15

Tao, S., & Qin, W. (2025). Feedback is communication between human beings: Understanding adolescents' conception of written qualitative feedback. *Frontiers in Language Sciences, 4*. https://doi.org/10.3389/flang.2025.1453230

Tardy, C. M. (2025). *Teaching second language academic writing*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009638326

Tian, Y., Kim, M., Crossley, S. A., & Wan, Q. (2021). Cohesive devices as an indicator of L2 students' writing fluency. *Reading and Writing, 37,* 419–441. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-021-10229-3

Topping, K. J. (2017). Peer assessment: Learning by judging and discussing the work of other learners. *Interdisciplinary Education and Psychology, 1*(1). https://doi.org/10.31532/InterdiscipEducPsychol.1.1.007

Tran, T. T. T., & Ma, Q. (2024). Online peer feedback training based on self-regulated learning in English as a foreign language writing: Perceived usefulness and students' engagement. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, *83*, 101418. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2024.101418

Ubilla Rosales, L., & Gómez Álvarez, L. (2015). Producción escrita de textos argumentativos en inglés como segunda lengua: innovación didáctica para su desarrollo con herramienta colaborativa web 2.0. *Paideia*, (56), 143–168. https://revistas.udec.cl/index.php/paideia/article/view/1511

Ubilla Rosales, L., Gómez Álvarez, L., & Sáez Carrillo, K. (2017). Escritura colaborativa de textos argumentativos en inglés usando Google Drive. *Estudios Pedagógicos*, *43*(1), 331–348. https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-07052017000100019

Ubilla Rosales, L., Gómez Álvarez, L., Sáez Carrillo, K., & Etchegaray Pezo, P. (2020). Collaborative writing of argumentative essays in an EFL blended course: Chilean pre-service teachers' perceptions and self-assessment. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *25*(2), 307–327.

van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F. (2012). Evidence on the effectiveness of comprehensive error correction in second language writing. *Language Learning, 62*(1), 1–41. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00674.x

Weng, F., Zhao, C. G., & Chen, S. (2024). Effects of peer feedback in English writing classes on EFL students' writing feedback literacy. *Assessing Writing, 61*, 100874. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2024.100874

Wette, R. (2017). Using mind maps to reveal and develop genre knowledge in a graduate writing course. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *38*, 58–71. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2017.09.005

Yang, L., & Zhang, L. J. (2023). Self-regulation and student engagement with feedback: The case of Chinese EFL student writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *63*, 101226. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2023.101226

Yu, S. (2024). *Peer assessment in writing instruction*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/97810094299 79

Yu, S., & Lee, I. (2016). Understanding the role of learners with low English language proficiency in peer-feedback of second language writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(2), 483–494. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.301

Zaccaron, R., & Xhafaj, D. C. P. (2020). Knowing me, knowing you: A comparative study on the effects of anonymous and conference peer-feedback on the writing of learners of English as an additional language. *System*, *95*, 102367. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102367

Zaccaron, R., & Xhafaj, D. C. P. (2024). Teacher and peer-feedback on English as an additional language writing: The role of social representations. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *26*(1), 49–64. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v26n1.107196

About the Authors

Lilian Gómez-Álvarez is an associate professor at the Universidad de Concepción, Chile. She obtained a PhD in Human Sciences from the University of Nebraska, USA, and a Master's in Linguistics from Universidad de Concepción, Chile. Her research interests include Applied Linguistics, English as L2, and academic writing.

Roles: conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Anita Ferreira is a full professor at the Universidad de Concepción, Chile. She received a PhD in Artificial Intelligence from the University of Edinburgh, Scotland, and a PhD in Linguistics from Universidad Católica de Valparaíso, Chile. Her research interests include Applied Linguistics, Spanish as L2, intelligent tutorial systems, and computer learner corpora (CLC).

Roles: conception of the research project, development of methods, analysis and interpretation of data, and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117239

Preservice English Teachers' Conceptual Change About Interlanguage: Findings From Online Disciplinary Literacy Tasks

Cambio conceptual sobre la interlengua en profesores de inglés en formación: hallazgos en tareas de alfabetización disciplinar

Rosa Isela Sandoval-Cruz
Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Quintana Roo, Chetumal, Mexico

This paper reports a case study of conceptual change about interlanguage. It aims to describe processes and factors of conceptual change in a group of 16 Mexican preservice English teachers. Phenomenography was the chosen method, with data collected through interviews and online disciplinary tasks via discussion forums. The results show that most participants experienced liminality (progress and regression) in conceptual change, with only three showing fuller conceptual change. Online written collaboration and reflection on prescriptivism and power issues in connection to interlanguage development seemed to drive conceptual change.

Keywords: conceptual change, interlanguage, literacy, online learning, preservice teacher education

Este artículo presenta un estudio de caso de cambio conceptual sobre la interlengua. Se describen los procesos y factores de cambio conceptual en un grupo de 16 profesores mexicanos de inglés en formación. Se utilizó el método fenomenográfico, con datos recolectados mediante entrevistas y tareas de literacidad disciplinar en forma de foros de discusión en línea. Los resultados muestran que la mayoría de los participantes experimentaron liminalidad (progreso y regresión) en el cambio conceptual; solo tres evidenciaron un cambio conceptual más completo. La colaboración virtual por escrito y la reflexión sobre el prescriptivismo y el poder en relación con el desarrollo de la interlengua impulsaron el cambio conceptual.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje en línea, cambio conceptual, interlengua, literacidad, profesores en formación

Rosa Isela Sandoval-Cruz https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2889-6078 • Email: rosa.sandoval@uqroo.edu.mx

This article is based on the doctoral dissertation completed by Sandoval-Cruz (2020).

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Sandoval-Cruz, R. I. (2026). Preservice English teachers' conceptual change about interlanguage: Findings from online disciplinary literacy tasks. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 73–87. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117239

This article was received on October 24, 2024 and accepted on September 20, 2025.

Introduction

The study of teachers' changing thinking about language teaching and learning is a well-established area of research in the psychology of language teaching/learning. A variety of constructs have been used to approach this topic, such as beliefs, attitudes, and conceptual change (Kubanyiova, 2012). Some scholars have embraced the term "language teacher cognition" (LTC), which encompasses "what teachers know, believe, and think" (S. Borg, 2003, p. 81).

The study of preservice teachers' LTC has tended to focus on the role of instruction in bringing about change in their LTC. This focus is due to the general assumption that "the cultivation of positive pedagogical beliefs in preservice teacher education is an important element in the preparation of teachers to support [English learners]" (Polat et al., 2019, p. 224). The multiplicity of paradigms and approaches used to examine LTC makes it difficult to synthesize the literature's findings in this area. Nevertheless, there seems to be a general agreement that preservice teachers' multiple manifestations of LTC can be both malleable and resistant to change (S. Borg, 2011; Polat et al., 2019), influenced by prior studentship experience (or the apprenticeship of observation; Lortie, 1975) and present contextual features and demands (Tsunemoto et al., 2020). Preservice teachers' LTC is also immersed in and impacted by their shifting identities and emotional experiences (Chen, 2023). LTC about corrective feedback seems to be particularly resistant to change (Pitychoutis, 2023).

Studies of both preservice and in-service teachers have tended to focus on general ideas about language teaching processes, such as teachers' beliefs about their roles (Qiu et al., 2021). Only a handful of studies have focused on teachers' changing cognition about specific disciplinary concepts that, while not intrinsically procedural, have important implications for practice. Svalberg (2015) combined complexity theory with a threshold-concepts perspective to explore the impact of an online, functional grammar course on a group of preservice and experienced teachers' developing understanding of key grammar knowledge. Threshold concepts are disciplinary concepts that transform a novice's understanding of the subject matter, often through cognitive and emotional conflicts (Meyer & Land, 2005). Svalberg (2015) considered constituency structure as a threshold concept. She found that cognitive conflicts and collaboration to resolve them were instrumental in bringing about new, more accurate, and more sophisticated understandings, or threshold crossings (Meyer & Land, 2005).

Dobbs and Leider (2021) conducted a critical study of teachers' beliefs about multilingualism. They found that teachers' beliefs evidenced awareness of linguistic hierarchies and the dominance of English, but less awareness of connections between language diversity issues and racism. Thus, while there have been many relevant decolonial studies, a critical focus on LTC change, especially as related to disciplinary concepts and literacy, seems to be missing.

It seems then that the study of LTC can benefit from inquiries originating in the Global South that look at innovative, critical practices in the context of promoting preservice teachers' LTC change. Further, an emphasis on LTC about disciplinary concepts is valuable, considering preservice teachers' difficulties in synthesizing practical abilities with theory-based knowledge and the negative impact of this issue on practice (Kartchava et al., 2020). In addition, in this digital, post-pandemic age, it is important to address the role of disciplinary literacy practices—particularly collaboration through written online discussion forums—in bringing about LTC change or failing to do so (Delahunty et al., 2023).

The present study focuses on online disciplinary literacy practices, aiming at developing the concept of interlanguage and related concepts from a critical perspective, as conducted at a Mexican university by a Mexican professor. To the best of my knowledge, no studies have examined LTC thoroughly in interlanguage. Perales-Escudero (2017) provided some preliminary

discussion and evidence, but not a thorough study. Pallotti (2017) reported an elementary school intervention that followed an interlanguage approach but did not focus on LTC. This paucity of research exists despite the potentially transformative role of teaching practices that approach interlanguage as a complex system and as a process to be interrogated (Larsen-Freeman, 2014; Tarone, 2014).

It is, of course, possible to learn about interlanguage in a reductive, surface-level way by focusing only on its formal definitions as a construct; this is of little value to teachers. However, it is also possible to take a deep-level, critical, threshold-concepts approach, which involves teachers abandoning received views of error that judge learners' output against target-language norms, and focusing on understanding learners' development in their own terms (Larsen-Freeman, 2014; Pallotti, 2017; Tarone, 2014). According to Perales-Escudero (2017), learning about interlanguage from a threshold-concepts perspective can induce the type of cognitive conflict conducive to positive LTC change. This type of learning can lead preservice teachers away from a prescriptivist, deficit perspective to a descriptivist one that embraces non-standard forms (or errors and mistakes) as learning opportunities.

LTC changes involved in the deep learning of interlanguage as a threshold concept, a complex system, and an inquiry-focused approach may lead to changes in teaching practices, such as corrective feedback and testing. In addition, as this study will show, when interlanguage development is taught critically, it can help preservice teachers to question oppressive, standard English-focused teaching and learning practices and develop new, critical ones. Hence, the importance of exploring LTC change about interlanguage and the factors that may influence it, particularly when such LTC change is promoted critically in multilingual contexts. However, as discussed by Polat et al. (2019), changing teachers' beliefs can be difficult, with the apprenticeship of observation being an important obstacle (M. Borg, 2005; Urmston, 2003). Nevertheless, some studies have reported changes due to online pedagogical interventions (e.g., Mahalingappa et al., 2018), with effective teacher–student or student–student collaboration appearing to be a driver of success (Qiu et al., 2021). Reflection also drives belief change (Asenjo & Yankovic-Allen, 2024). Consequently, the following questions were addressed:

1. How does the LTC about interlanguage of a group of Mexican preservice EFL teachers change or fail to change in the context of a second language acquisition (SLA) course taught using critical perspectives and online discussion forums?
2. What factors, in the participants' own conceptions, appear to influence LTC change or lack thereof?

Theoretical Framework

As exemplified by Svalberg (2015), the threshold concepts perspective is one research tradition from which to approach preservice teachers' conceptual change. A key assumption in threshold concepts research is that the process of learning a threshold concept is non-linear. While grappling with understanding a threshold concept, preservice teachers may experience emotional conflict and liminality (i.e., progress and regression). This is because fully comprehending a threshold concept frequently involves taking distance from received knowledge to which preservice teachers are cognitively and emotionally committed (Meyer & Land, 2005). This abandonment of received notions when the threshold concept is fully comprehended is called "crossing the threshold." It is akin to conceptual change in that it involves seeing the target phenomena through a new disciplinary lens, wherein the threshold concept is embedded in a web of other disciplinary concepts.

Taking an interlanguage approach to language teaching has been identified as a threshold concept as it involves abandoning received, deficit views of L2 errors and mistakes and embracing complex views (Perales-Escudero, 2017). As stated by Pallotti (2017),

this process is difficult and slow, and an interlanguage approach is not followed by many teachers. Following such an approach involves acknowledging interlanguage as a complex system in its own right (Larsen-Freeman, 2014). In assessment, a key point of a threshold concepts interlanguage approach is to focus on and reward what students can do with the language instead of centering on and punishing errors and shortcomings. Larsen-Freeman (2014) calls this process "self-referential assessment."

As Pallotti (2017) discusses, instructing teachers to follow an interlanguage approach involves adopting some of the ways of thinking of linguists and SLA specialists. An example is approaching the interlanguage system not in terms of what it lacks with respect to the target language, but in positive terms, "based on what is present and not what is missing" (Pallotti, 2017, p. 395). From a threshold concept perspective, it also involves seeing interlanguage as an integrative concept within a network of other disciplinary concepts. This adoption of a disciplinary lens is likely to be mediated by reading scholarly texts and writing school genres using those concepts. Therefore, it can be thought of as a process of disciplinary literacy.

Disciplinary literacy is defined as "the ability to engage in social, semiotic, and cognitive practices consistent with those of content experts" (Fang, 2012, pp. 19–20). One of the most widely used tools to promote disciplinary literacy is asynchronous, online discussion forums (ODFs; Wikle & West, 2019). When properly used, ODFs can facilitate interaction with peers and tutors as well as reflection (Delahunty et al., 2023). These have been identified as factors in LTC change (Qiu et al., 2021).

Method

This study reports a qualitative study of a single significant case (Patton, 2015) with embedded units (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The case was a five-week unit about interlanguage development in the context of a blended-learning SLA course in a BA program in English Language Teaching at a university in southeastern Mexico (hereafter "the university"). The virtual sessions were taught using Moodle ODFs.

The case is significant because the course professor is a scholar with international recognition in applied linguistics and literacy studies and explicitly adheres to a critical, disciplinary, literacy, and complexity perspective on interlanguage development and LCT change. His trajectory and teaching philosophy are not typical in the target context. For this reason, the case might provide a "deep understanding of the subject and breakthrough insights" (Patton, 2015, p. 411). I got access to the case because I have a personal relationship with the professor. The embedded units are the preservice teachers and the teams with which they collaborated to write during the ODF tasks.

To study LTC and its change (or lack thereof) and factors, I used phenomenography, which is a theoretical and methodological tradition that aims at describing collective learning experiences and conceptual change through "naturalistic investigations of the quality of learning, undertaken in natural educational settings . . . from the students' perspective" (Åkerlind, 2024, p. 2).

Phenomenography posits a non-dualist epistemology in which "the world [as experienced] is not constructed by the learner, nor is it imposed upon her; it is constituted as an internal relation between them" (Marton & Booth, 1997, as cited in Åkerlind, 2024, p. 7). This means that phenomenography allows for explorations of how different contextual factors impact LTCs, as it is open to those factors and may adapt to them. The experienced world in phenomenography is construed as "themes," that is, the different aspects of the world that are conceived of in certain ways (Marton & Booth, 1997).

Phenomenography has been used before to examine threshold concept learning and concept change (Åkerlind, 2024). From a phenomenographic perspective, LTC can be operationalized as a series of conceptions: ways of understanding learning as verbalized in dis-

course during interviews or verbal tasks (Marton & Booth, 1997).

The product of a phenomenographic study is an outcome space: a set of organized categories of experience resulting from the researcher's rigorous process of interpreting and organizing the participants' ways of understanding. Phenomenography assumes that some categories are more complex than others because they include more accurate or more comprehensive understandings. The outcome space is thus arranged to show this increasing complexity and is inclusive: the more complex categories include the less complex ones (Marton & Booth, 1997). The outcome space may show who achieved a category (Eglund et al., 2017). The collective categories can be applied to or found in individual cases to deepen understanding (González-Ugalde, 2014). Like the present study, other phenomenographic studies of conceptual change have explored changes retrospectively by looking chronologically at the participants' evolving conceptions (e.g., Eglund et al., 2017).

Context

The state where the university is located is characterized by contact between Spanish, Yucatec Maya, and English. The former is the dominant language. However, an undetermined number of native Spanish speakers are direct descendants of Yucatec Maya speakers and use Spanish in non-standard ways (Perales-Escudero et al., 2022). An SLA course is taught in the fifth semester.

The university's BA in ELT has followed a traditional approach to grammar. Prescriptivism, negative attitudes toward errors, and corrective feedback prevail (Perales-Escudero, 2017). Nevertheless, through interviews and class observation, I determined that the SLA course professor follows a critical, conceptual change approach.

Using an ODF (ODF 1), the professor attempted to make preservice teachers aware of prescriptive, received views of error in the L1 (e.g., the stigmatization of the non-standard subjunctive form of the verb "*haber*/to exist:" "*haiga*," and other non-standard forms in local Spanish that the preservice teachers themselves use) so that they come to see them as products of a legitimate linguistic system that happens to differ from standard Spanish. To the same end, the professor taught the preservice teachers about native varieties of English where the present simple third person -s is not used.

He then recruited this awareness of native non-standard forms to engage preservice teachers in ODFs 2 and 3, which dealt with interlanguage and how L2 non-standard forms (errors and mistakes) evince development rather than deficit. To the professor, this is a descriptive, decolonial, and complex approach to interlanguage development. He tied this approach explicitly to the concept of descriptivism. The prompts for the discussions required teams of preservice teachers to integrate concepts such as interlanguage, error, mistake, nontarget-like forms, prescriptivism, descriptivism, and power asymmetry, and then apply them to analyze their own and others' experiences with corrective feedback and language learning.

Next, the professor implemented a fourth ODF focused on Larsen-Freeman's (2014) self-referential assessment. In this ODF, preservice teachers discussed the grading of a hypothetical learner who has made morphological mistakes in aspect marking in a hypothetical test but nonetheless shows development of tense–temporality connections in the inclusion of auxiliary verbs and standard word order. In the fifth ODF, the preservice teachers reflected on their grading and how it contrasted with previous learning about interlanguage and related concepts. In all the ODFs, participants were required to write their individual views first, then negotiate agreements and disagreements, and finally collectively write a concluding paragraph defining and connecting the target concepts. The professor gave the participants the chance to write in Spanish in the ODFs. All of them but one native speaker of Belizean English did so.

The professor was aware of threshold concepts and explicitly followed this approach to conceptual change in that he sought preservice teachers to discard their

previously received views and embrace the deep learning of interlanguage and related concepts that he advocates.

Participants

The participants were all preservice teachers enrolled in the target course, taught in the fifth semester of the university's BA in ELT. By this point in their degree program, they were expected to have reached a B1 level of English competence. All but one were EFL learners who began their BA with a pre-A1 or A1 level of English. I recruited them by physically visiting the classroom, explaining the study, and obtaining written informed consent. Sixteen students agreed to participate, which meets the minimum recommended by Trigwell (2000) for phenomegraphic studies. Following Hajar's (2021) advice to contextualize conceptions in the participants' lifeworld, information was gathered on the following topics pertaining to their prior, contextualized experiences through a semi-structured interview conducted before the onset of the study (Interview 0):

1. Relevant apprenticeship of observation (i.e., experiences of error treatment and corrective feedback during their prior EFL learning)
2. Attitudes toward error and corrective feedback
3. Bi- or multilingual status
4. Previous knowledge of the construct of interlanguage and its implications for language learning/teaching

This interview, like all others, was designed and piloted using the Interview Protocol Refinement Framework (IPRF; Castillo-Montoya, 2016). Through content analysis of these interviews, the participant profiles in Table 1 were constructed. "Deficit" means a participant views errors and corrective feedback from a deficit perspective due to their prior experience. "Developmental" means that their views and prior experience are more aligned with recommended practices regarding interlanguage development and corrective feedback. "Mixed" means that the participant reported both types of views and experiences. "Maya" or "Belizean English" means the participant is bilingual in Spanish and one of these. "No" means they speak only Spanish. None of them knew anything about interlanguage or related constructs.

Table 1. Participants' Profiles

Participant	Biological sex	Bilingualism	Apprenticeship of observation
P1	Female	No	Deficit
P2	Female	No	Mixed
P3	Male	Maya	Mixed
P4	Male	No	Developmental
P5	Female	Belizean English	Deficit
P6	Female	No	Deficit
P7	Male	No	Developmental
P8	Male	No	Deficit
P9	Female	No	Mixed
P10	Female	No	Mixed
P11	Female	No	Developmental
P12	Female	No	Mixed
P13	Female	Maya	Mixed
P14	Female	Maya	Mixed
P15	Male	Maya	Deficit
P16	Female	No	Developmental

Data Collection

Data were gathered during the 5-week instructional unit focusing on interlanguage, using three semi-structured interviews designed according to phenomenographic guidelines (Åkerlind, 2005a, 2005b, 2024; González-Ugalde, 2014; Hajar, 2021) and the IPRF (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). Non-participant online ODF observations were also used, and the five written ODFs were collected by downloading them from Moodle. The interviews took place at three different moments: one during the second week, another during the fourth week, and the last one immediately after the fifth week. They were conducted face-to-face in Spanish either in the classroom or in the professor's office. This yielded 48 interviews. The written ODFs were used as prompts to bring participants' conceptions to consciousness and to build relational understandings of experience between the interviewer and the interviewee (Åkerlind, 2024).

Data Analysis

I conducted the analysis, and my supervisor audited it. The categories emerged from the data using a discovery approach first, followed by a more constructive approach when naming the categories (i.e., using theoretical labels; Walsh, 2000). Below are the analytic steps:

1. I transcribed the interviews and read them entirely, segmented the ODFs into messages, and assigned codes to each one.
2. I randomly selected four participants' interviews (12 interviews) and their messages in the five ODFs. I read them, manually noting similarities and differences in the ways they talked about the same concepts and keeping handwritten memos in a notebook. This resulted in a preliminary book code, which was then applied to the same interview transcripts in MAXQDA© v. 2018, yielding a first set of codes. These codes were presented at a doctoral seminar. Upon receiving feedback, changes were made accordingly. This is a type of phenomenographic validity (Åkerlind, 2005b).
3. The supervisor applied the resulting codes to two unanalyzed interviews and randomly selected ODF segments. This auditing is the main type of validity in phenomenographic research (Walsh, 2000). She found almost the same codes, but some new ones were negotiated in dialogue with me, which conferred dialogic reliability (Hajar, 2021).
4. I applied the new coding scheme to the remaining interviews and ODFs. Through constant comparison and reflection, conceptions were grouped into categories in MAXQDA© v. 2018, and an initial outcome space was produced as a Microsoft Word© document. I used the threshold-concepts literature to name the categories.
5. The supervisor read 12 randomly selected interviews and segments of ODFs to verify the applicability of the outcome space. Refinements to the outcome space were negotiated between the supervisor and the author through dialogue until it stabilized.
6. The outcome was presented at a doctoral seminar, where it received positive feedback (communicative validity, Åkerlind, 2005b).
7. Embedded units consisting of information-rich cases (Patton, 2015) that illustrate conceptual change and the outcome space were identified and extracted by re-reading the whole data set.

The next section presents the results. First, the outcome space is shown, followed by a chronological analysis of the evolving conceptions of selected, information-rich cases.

Results

There are several ways of presenting outcome spaces (Åkerlind, 2005b). We follow that in Perales-Escudero et al. (2023), where the themes (what is perceived) are organized in columns and the categories in rows. The intersecting cells describe the conceptions corresponding to each theme. Participants' codes are placed in their achieved category (i.e., the one they held at the end of

the study), but all participants held conceptions across all categories (see Table 2). The rightmost column presents the factors influencing conceptual change, or lack thereof.

By "isolated understanding," I mean that a concept was well understood, but its connections with others were not. "Integrated understanding" means that both the target concept and its connections with others were well understood. "Complex understanding" means that all definitional elements of a concept were present in the participants' discourse. "Descriptivist in practice" means that the participants applied developmental, descriptivist conceptions to the referential assessment task in ODF 4. The next sections turn attention to two information-rich cases or embedded units within the case: Team 1 (P4, P6, P8) and Team 2 (only P2 due to space limitations).

Team 1

The participants in this team run the gamut of achieved conceptions, with P6 and P8 in *no crossing*, P4 in *threshold crossing*, and P9 in *liminality*. There were important contrasts between their apprenticeship of observation and initial stances. P4 experienced a developmental apprenticeship of observation in high school, as shown in the following excerpt. Due to space limitations, only English translations of excerpts are presented:

> Since I was in high school, the teacher would tell me that sometimes we make grammar mistakes that aren't as important in communication; some are more serious than others, of course, and this idea stuck with me: that what's important is communication. (P4, Interview 0)

Table 2. The Outcome Space

Themes / Categories and participants	Interlanguage	Related concepts	Stance (prescriptivist vs. descriptivist)	Factors influencing LTC change or lack thereof
No crossing P3, P5, P8	Partial, inaccurate, or isolated understanding	Partial comprehension of a few concepts	Prescriptivist, misunderstanding of descriptivism as "anything goes"	No reflection, adherence to received deficit views from apprenticeship of observation
Liminality P1, P6, P7, P9, P11, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16	Complex, integrated understanding	Complex, integrated understanding of most or all concepts	Tendency to descriptivism in discourse with oscillations in practice	Partial adherence to received deficit views (apprenticeship of observation, present context), collaboration, cognitive conflict, and openness to teammates' developmental views
Threshold crossing P2, P4, P10	Complex, integrated understanding, connecting with power, prescriptivism, and descriptivism	Complex, integrated understanding of most or all concepts	Descriptivist in both discourse and practice	Critical reflection on received deficit views or acceptance of received developmental views (apprenticeship of observation), understanding of power imbalances

After ODF 1, "Feelings about correctness," P4 also reflected on the power imbalances involved in imposing standard varieties and the need to adopt a descriptivist stance toward speakers of contact Spanish. Although he is not bilingual, he grew up in a rural community with Maya speakers:

> I think corrective feedback is okay sometimes, and sometimes it is not. The Maya people were forced to learn Spanish, and this involved discrimination. I think we have to respect the way they speak Spanish; in a way, it's about taking a humanistic approach. (P4, Interview 1)

P4's experiences and initial stance contrasted with those of his teammates. For example, P6 experienced a deficit-oriented apprenticeship of observation that involved punishment for mistakes: "In high school, we answered English exercises on computers, and if we made a mistake, they forced us to start all over again from the beginning, and we couldn't leave for lunch break until everything was completed perfectly" (Interview 0).

During Interview 1, P6 also resisted the professor's descriptivist stance toward non-standard varieties of English, which is evidence of the conflicts that arise with grappling with threshold concepts that clash with the apprenticeship of observation:

> We need to speak correctly. When I saw that the professor wrote examples without the third-person s, I thought, "How can that be right?" I mean, we've been taught all the time that it's wrong, even our grammar teachers say it's wrong.

P8 also showed a strong adherence to prescribed standard norms coming from her apprenticeship of observation, which also caused conflict: "In all my English courses, we have always been taught that what is in the books is the way things must be done, like writing or conjugating verbs. How come native speakers decide to speak the wrong way?" (P8, Interview 1).

Interestingly, during ODF 2, "First concept connection activity," where participants had to define interlanguage and connect it to several other terms, P4 showed an inaccurate, partial understanding of interlanguage as "a system that helps us learn an L2 by realizing what's right and what's wrong" (P4, ODF 2, Message 2). This was corrected by P6, who wrote the following complex and integrated understanding of interlanguage:

> What I'm going to write is my opinion about how these terms can be defined and related. Interlanguage is the linguistic system of an L2 learner. I think it is a very personal version of the language based on the rules in each learner's mind. Many factors are involved in the process of interlanguage, like the input you get, whether you learn the L2 as a second or foreign language, and the result of this process, which can be target-like or non-target-like forms.

During Interview 2, P6 expanded on this definition:

> In my opinion, interlanguage is like a new version of the language, one's own individual version, and for that reason, we don't all have the same level of the language. And this is very stressful for me because there are many related concepts in interlanguage, but they all have their own meanings, and it's difficult to learn them all.

Despite her difficulties, the contribution of P6 was instrumental in helping her teammates understand interlanguage: "At the beginning, I had a lot of questions about what interlanguage was. But thanks to P6, who wrote an accurate definition, I was able to write the other concepts and relate them to one another" (P4, Interview 2). This illustrates the role of collaboration in conceptual change.

In ODF 3, these participants did not show an accurate understanding of descriptivism and how it may relate to interlanguage development:

> About interlanguage development, we may say there are two branches to this process: target-like forms and

> non-target-like forms. The former are correct ways of speaking, taking established rules into account, and the latter are deviations from the norm, incorrect ways of using the rules of a language. This whole process of interlanguage happens when a person is learning a new language and draws on their L1 to speak the L2. We can define two schools of thought when it comes to language learning. The first is prescriptivism, which is the way of teaching in schools, that is, following the grammar rules in books. For example, in a test, students must write verb tenses and words correctly, or they are penalized. The focus is on the correct way of speaking. Descriptivism is the opposite, as it allows us to express ourselves freely without following book rules. (ODF 3, Collective concluding paragraph)

My interview with the professor and my class observations showed that he was actually trying to get preservice teachers to distance themselves from the "correct vs. incorrect" dichotomy. He also did not define descriptivism as simply "speaking without rules" but rather as an inquiry-based attitude to non-standard forms that seeks to understand how and why they are produced for didactic and critical purposes, that is, to subvert the imposition of deficit views and the power imbalances and oppression inherent to native speakerism. Nevertheless, P6 and P8 did not understand this and, instead, adhered to prescriptivism: "Prescriptivism tries to follow the rules of a language, and it tries for people who speak this language to follow the rules. And prescriptivism is easier to understand because it's the opposite of descriptivism" (P6, Interview 2).

By contrast, P4 did reflect on the connections between prescriptivism and oppression:

> Prescriptivism is only about saying that something is right or wrong, without understanding why people speak that way. Prescriptive rules are based on the ways of speaking of those with more power or more social and economic prestige. But the fact that someone thinks the way I speak is wrong doesn't make it wrong. (Interview 2)

The prescriptivist stances and received deficit conceptions of P6 and P8 influenced their participation in ODF 4, an assessment task intended to be self-referential (Larsen-Freeman, 2014). In this task, the professor provided a simulated vocabulary test on past and present tenses that a hypothetical learner answered using target-like semantics and syntax, combined with some non-target-like morphological marking of tense, aspect, and/or subject–verb agreement. The test involved selecting the right verb and tense/aspect to complete sentences. The prompt asked participants to grade the test based on what they had learned about interlanguage development. The prompt suggested using decimals (i.e., .25 or .5 or .75) instead of a full point to reward the learner for what they could do. P6 and P8 were unanimous in awarding 0 points to all the answers: "To the answer to Question 1, 'I am walk home today because my car broke down' I give 0 points because the verb should have been in the present continuous with -ing" (P6, ODF 4, Message 2).

By contrast, P4 considered awarding decimals because the participants' answers made sense: "In Answer 4, I would consider giving .5 because the main verb is in the past participle. They just didn't conjugate the auxiliary verb correctly" (ODF 4, Message 13).

> Well, guys, it looks to me that we've only evaluated grammar, but what about semantics? I think it's important to evaluate this as well. As we can see, he has used each verb well. He knows what each one means. I would give him a 10 in semantics (P4, ODF 4, Message 20).

The other participants replied that the answers had to be perfect and, since they were not, it was inappropriate to award decimals: "For Number 8, I also thought about awarding .5, but I believe that, as in 5, both the main and the auxiliary verb must be correct, so *the verb tense is correct*. My grade is 0" (P6, ODF 4, Message 33, italics in the original text). These conceptions aligned with their deficit-oriented apprenticeship of observation and views of their current grammar teacher.

After ODF 4, the professor asked students to engage in a new discussion, ODF 5, where they had to reflect on their grading. P4 gave an extended, well-argued explanation that shows he crossed the threshold:

> The student knew the meanings of the verbs very well, and he knew word order because he placed the auxiliary verb before the main verb. He couldn't conjugate them well, but he clearly has a structure in his brain about how to speak. That's why, to me, it was unfair to grade him with 0 points because clearly there is a structure in his brain about how to use the tenses. (ODF 5, Message 4).

I see evidence of crossing the threshold because the answer displays an awareness of interlanguage as a developmental process and, consequently, an embracement of self-referential assessment. In ODF 5 and Interview 3, P8 remained adhered to prescriptivist views and showed no conceptual change, adhering to his apprenticeship of observation:

> I was able to notice all the grammar mistakes he made, and this is basic to me. I don't think it's right to make these mistakes, but I liked the activity because I could show my knowledge, what I have always been taught.

By contrast, P6 expressed openness to considering P4's perspective, which is evidence of the liminality category. P6 shows incipient reflection thanks to collaboration:

> Something that helped me learn from the ODF was P4's last message, where he said that we were only taking grammar into account, but we should consider that the student's sentences communicated something meaningful, so we should assess that too. We didn't think that way before, but it's true. (Interview 3)

Team 2

This section focuses on P2, who most clearly illustrates conceptual change. During Interview 1, following ODF 1, P2 expressed a strong prescriptivist stance against non-standard varieties: "To me, saying "*haiga*" is incorrect. My whole life, I have been taught what's correct, and that is completely incorrect."

However, by the second interview, after ODFs 2 and 3, P2's conceptions had begun to change in connection with a more accurate understanding of descriptivism:

> I used to say that being prescriptivist was better, but now I understand descriptivism better. I used to think that all the rules I've been taught during my studies are always better because they are established in books, and they must be followed. But now I realize that when teachers are like that, they tend not to explain anything when someone makes a mistake. They just say, "It's wrong," and that's it. That happened to me in middle school and high school when I was learning English. The teachers would just say "that's wrong," but didn't explain why. And maybe that's why I began to hold this belief that, well, this is how it's done, this is well done. But now I've realized it isn't. And if I'm going to be a teacher in the future, it's better to be a descriptivist. Because that's how people understand and learn more.

P2 experienced oscillation during ODF4, where she refused to reward the hypothetical learner's developmental gains. However, during ODF 5 and Interview 3, she distanced herself from that stance and restated her change in views:

> Thanks to the class, we realized we had to see things from the learner's perspective, that he did show some learning, and that we had to acknowledge it instead of just saying no, no, no. I remembered that something similar happened to me on a test, with a grade. So, I changed my perspective on things.

P2 became very critical of her deficit-oriented apprenticeship in observation, reflecting on how it had affected her as a learner and how she had come to accept, irreflexively, that it was the way things were done in English teaching (a deficit-oriented dimension of local professional identities). Her reference to negative feedback and testing experiences evinces reflection on

prescriptivism and power imbalances. It seems that these class-prompted reflections promoted conceptual change and led her to cross the threshold.

Discussion

This study aimed at understanding how LTC about interlanguage and related concepts changed or failed to do so in a group of Mexican preservice EFL teachers (Research Question 1) and what factors, from their own perspective, influenced change or stability (Research Question 2). The innovative, critical nature of the class being observed and of the study itself helped me to gain insights into change and its absence.

Regarding Question 1, the results evidence that LTC change, as proposed by the threshold-concepts approach, was non-linear when it happened. At the end of the study, 10 of 16 participants were in the liminality category. This means that they showed mostly accurate understandings of interlanguage and related concepts, but failed to integrate these understandings with practice. They also were not critical of the deficit views received during the apprenticeship of observation. Nevertheless, they were open to their teammates' opposite views and to reflecting on and possibly changing their practices in the future. Only three participants showed evidence of threshold crossing or deep learning of interlanguage. This deep learning led to a transformation in the treatment of errors in self-referential assessment (Larsen-Freeman, 2014; Tarone, 2014), as in P4, or to criticism and total rejection of the deficit views they received during their apprenticeship of observation, as in P2. These findings confirm those of Kartchava et al. (2020) regarding teachers' difficulties in integrating theory and practice, as well as the well-known difficulty in deeply learning threshold concepts (Meyer & Land, 2005). The next paragraph turns attention to Question 2.

As in previous studies (M. Borg, 2005; Urmston, 2003), conceptions derived from preservice teachers' own apprenticeship of observation were one factor influencing change. This influence was positive in P4, who had been exposed to developmental views, but negative in P8 and others who had been exposed to deficit-oriented views and remained in the no-crossing category. Conceptions rooted in the present, deficit-oriented contextual demands, such as P6's references to grammar university professors being strongly prescriptivist, also appeared to be negative influences, supporting the role of present contextual demands (Tsunemoto et al., 2020).

Other positive factors were ODF collaboration and cognitive conflict when reading and thinking about teammates' opposing views. This confirms findings on the roles of collaboration and cognitive conflict in LTC change (Qiu et al., 2021; Svalberg, 2015), specifically in ODFs (Delahunty et al., 2023; Mahalingappa et al., 2018). Confirmed too are findings that teachers' local professional identities apprenticed from observation (e.g., P2's claims about "the way things are done" or "what I have always been taught") and negative emotions (e.g., P6's "stress and difficulty") influence LTC change and threshold concept learning (Chen, 2023; Meyer & Land, 2005; Qiu et al., 2021). As in Asenjo and Yankovic-Allen (2024), reflection was an important factor, particularly in P4 and P2. As in Pitychoutis (2023), the treatment of error was most resistant to change. Similar to Dobbs and Leider (2021), deep, critical awareness of power issues was scarce. These similarities may signal deficit-oriented, glocally distributed professional identities and practices and speak to the importance of promoting a critical, interlanguage approach. The results confirm the phenomenographic assumption that learning involves deeply experiencing new, previously unseen dimensions of a concept (Marton & Booth, 1997).

Conclusions and Implications

This study was undertaken in light of the paucity of research from the Global South on preservice teachers' conceptual change regarding disciplinary concepts. Perhaps its two most important contributions lie in considering insufficient and sufficient factors leading

to LTC change. On the one hand, it was clear that an accurate and complex conceptual understanding of interlanguage and related terms was not enough to cross the threshold and change practices. On the other hand, the study's findings suggest that critical reflections on contextualized power asymmetries, either more explicit and abstract ones, as with P4, or more implicit and personal ones, as with P2, were crucial in helping these preservice teachers cross the threshold. This means that the recommended adoption of an interlanguage approach (not just the isolated concept) by language teachers (Larsen-Freeman, 2014; Pallotti, 2017; Tarone, 2014) can benefit from the inclusion of critical and complexity perspectives that consider the connection of interlanguage with concepts such as prescriptivism vs. descriptivism, power, oppression, and self-referential assessment. Reflecting on these concepts and practices in relation to local contexts and experiences can help preservice teachers undertake critical assessments of their apprenticeship of observation and, thus, change their LTC in ways conducive to better teaching practices in the future. Such critical considerations are also a contribution to the threshold concepts literature, where criticality has only begun to be addressed, albeit in non-political ways (Wason, 2025).

Another factor that proved conducive to change was collaboration with peers in ODFs, particularly in writing, reading, and reacting to conflicting views in the context of tasks that required the principled integration of several concepts into a single, descriptive paragraph and their application to simulated teaching tasks. These online disciplinary literacy practices are not common in the target context or in other contexts I know, so their promotion and adoption seem a worthy goal for future interventions. Explicit teaching of ways of collaborating in ODFs (e.g., Meskill & Sadykova, 2011) may prove fruitful in this regard.

The study's main limitation was the short timeframe that was used to establish the case study's boundaries. This was a strategic decision due to the large amount of data collected from three sources (face-to-face classes, ODFs, and interviews). Nevertheless, a longer timeframe might have allowed an examination of longer-term processes of LTC change and perhaps different findings regarding the number of students who managed to cross the threshold or remained in liminality. Future studies should address this issue by extending data collection periods.

Why three participants did not experience any conceptual change is a lingering question. While this finding may be due to the short data collection span, conducting detailed case studies of preservice teachers who show no conceptual change despite careful promotion thereof seems necessary to better understand and foster conceptual change.

References

Åkerlind, G. S. (2005a). Learning to do phenomenography: A reflective discussion. In J. A. Bowden & P. Green (Eds.), *Doing developmental phenomenography* (pp. 74–100). RMIT University Press.

Åkerlind, G. S. (2005b). Variation and commonality in phenomenographic research methods. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *24*(4), 321–334. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360500284672

Åkerlind, G. S. (2024). Common misunderstandings of phenomenographic research in higher education. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *43*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2023.2218804

Asenjo, N., & Yancovic-Allen, M. (2024). Chilean English language teachers transforming their beliefs and practices through reflection. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *26*(2), 43–57. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v26n2.108568

Borg, M. (2005). A case study of the development in pedagogic thinking of a pre-service teacher. *TESL-EJ*, *9*(2), 1–30.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81–109. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903

Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, *39*(3), 370–380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.009

Castillo-Montoya, M. (2016). Preparing for interview research: The interview protocol refinement framework. *The Qualitative Report*, *21*(5), 811–831. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2016.2337

Chen, W. (2023). Investigating novice EFL writing teachers' beliefs and practices concerning written corrective feedback across contexts: a case study from a complexity theory perspective. *Language Awareness, 32*(3), 465–486. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2022.2119993

Delahunty, J., Jones, P., & Verenikina, I. (2023). Collaborative knowledge building: The dynamic life of ideas in online discussion forums. In A. Thwaite, A. Simpson, & P. T. Jones (Eds.), *Dialogic pedagogy: Discourse in contexts from pre-school to university* (pp. 235–252). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003296744-20

Dobbs, C. L., & Leider, C. M. (2021). A LangCrit analysis of teachers' beliefs about language learning and language diversity. *Journal of Multilingual Theories & Practices*, *2*(1), 25–46. https://doi.org/10.1558/jmtp.19104

Eglund, C., Olofsson, A. D., & Price, L. (2017). Teaching with technology in higher education: Understanding conceptual change and development in practice. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *36*(1), 73–87. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2016.1171300

Fang, Z. (2012). Language correlates of disciplinary literacy. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *32*(1), 19–34. https://doi.org/10.1097/TLD.0b013e31824501de

González-Ugalde, C. (2014). Investigación fenomenográfica. *Magis, Revista Internacional de Investigación en Educación*, *7*(14), 141–58. https://doi.org/10.11144/Javeriana.M7-14.INFE

Hajar, A. (2021). Theoretical foundations of phenomenography: A critical review. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *40*(7), 1421–1436. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2020.1833844

Kartchava, E., Gatbonton, E., Ammar, A., & Trofimovich, P. (2020). Oral corrective feedback: Pre-service English as a second language teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research*, *24*(2), 220–249. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818787546

Kubanyiova, M. (2012). *Teacher development in action: Understanding language teachers' conceptual change*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2014). Another step to be taken: Rethinking the endpoint of the interlanguage continuum. In Z.-H. Han & E. Tarone (Eds.), *Interlanguage: Forty years later* (pp. 203–220). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.39.11ch9

Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study* (1st ed.). University of Chicago Press.

Mahalingappa, L., Hughes, E. M., & Polat, N. (2018). Developing preservice teachers' self-efficacy and knowledge through online experiences with English language learners. *Language and Education*, *32*(2), 127–146. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2017.1417996

Marton, F., & Booth, S. (1997). *Learning and awareness*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Merriam, S., & Tisdell, E. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Meskill, C., & Sadykova, G. (2011). Introducing EFL faculty to online instructional conversations. *ReCALL*, *23*(3), 200–217. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344011000140

Meyer, J. H. F., & Land, R. (2005). Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge (2): Epistemological considerations and a conceptual framework for teaching and learning. *Higher Education*, *49*(3), 373–388. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-004-6779-5

Pallotti, G. (2017). Applying the interlanguage approach to language teaching. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *55*(4), 393–412. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2017-0145

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (4th ed.). Sage.

Perales-Escudero, M. D. (2017). Conceptos umbrales y conceptos de trayectoria: el caso de los conceptos de interlengua y error en la formación de lingüistas aplicados y profesores de lenguas. In F. Encinas (Ed.), *Escritura y*

desarrollo cognitivo en un mundo intertextual: Diálogos con la obra de Charles Bazerman (pp. 123–141). Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla.

Perales-Escudero, M. D., Ramos Díaz, M., & Sima Lozano, E. G. (2022). Prácticas subalternas sobre el sistema ortográfico entre estudiantes universitarios indígenas y no indígenas: un estudio de literacidades académicas. *Perfiles Educativos*, *44*(177), 39–57. https://doi.org/10.22201/iisue.24486167e.2022.177.60078

Perales-Escudero, M. D., Sandoval-Cruz, R. I., & Bañales Faz, G. (2023). Pre-service EFL teachers' conceptions and ideologies about stance: A phenomenographic study. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *12*(3), 706–718. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v12i3.45552

Pitychoutis, K. M. (2023). Do online courses change teachers' beliefs? A study of Omani teacher-trainees' beliefs in second language acquisition. *MEXTESOL Journal*, *47*(2), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.61871/mj.v47n2-16

Polat, N., Mahalingappa, L., Hughes, E., & Karayigit, C. (2019). Change in preservice teacher beliefs about inclusion, responsibility, and culturally responsive pedagogy for English learners. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *13*(4), 222–238. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2019.1597607

Qiu, Q., Xie, Z., Xiong, Y., & Zhou, F. (2021). Belief change before and after the teaching practicum among Chinese pre-service ELT teachers. *SAGE Open*, *11*(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440211004934

Sandoval-Cruz, R. I. (2020). *La creación colaborativa de conocimientos en torno a la interlengua en modalidad b-learning* [Doctoral dissertation, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla]. Repositorio Institucional de Acceso Abierto de la Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla. https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12371/9880

Svalberg, A. M.-L. (2015). Understanding the complex processes in developing student teachers' knowledge about grammar. *The Modern Language Journal*, *99*(3), 529–545. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12241

Tarone, E. (2014). Enduring questions from the interlanguage hypothesis. In Z.-H. Han & E. Tarone (Eds.), *Interlanguage 40 years later* (pp. 7–26). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.39.03ch1

Trigwell, K. (2000). A phenomenographic interview on phenomenography. In J. A. Bowden & E. Walsh (Eds.), *Phenomenography* (pp. 62–82). RMIT University Press.

Tsunemoto, A., Trofimovich, P., & Kennedy, S. (2020). Pre-service teachers' beliefs about second language pronunciation teaching, their experience, and speech assessments. *Language Teaching Research*, *27*(1), 115–136. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820937273

Urmston, A. (2003). Learning to teach English in Hong Kong: The opinions of teachers in training. *Language and Education*, *17*(2), 112–137. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780308666843

Walsh, E. (2000). Phenomenographic analysis of interview transcripts. In J. A. Bowden & E. Walsh (Eds.), *Phenomenography* (pp. 19–33). RMIT University Press.

Wason, H. (2025). The troublesome nature of learning to teach critical thinking: Using threshold concepts theory to support teacher education. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *55*, 101661. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2024.101661

Wikle, J. S., & West, R. E. (2019). An analysis of discussion forum participation and student learning outcomes. *International Journal on E-Learning*, *18*(2), 205–228. https://doi.org/10.70725/2831950qnemo

About the Author

Rosa Isela Sandoval-Cruz is an Associate Professor of English at Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Quintana Roo. She is a member of Mexico's National Research System. She holds a PhD in Educational Systems and Environments from Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, Mexico.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117794

Araucanía Chilean EFL Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Their Intercultural Mediator Role

Creencias sobre el rol de mediador intercultural de profesores de inglés de La Araucanía, Chile

Maura Klenner-Loebel
Juan Carlos Beltrán-Véliz
Universidad de La Frontera, Temuco, Chile

Trevor Driscoll
Universidad de Tarapacá, Arica, Chile

The Chilean Ministry of Education has introduced an intercultural communication-oriented approach to teaching EFL in consideration of our globalized society and the local social composition of Chile. Although initial teacher education programs have progressively implemented this approach, in-service teachers have not necessarily been educated regarding their role as intercultural mediators. This study's objective was to analyze the beliefs EFL teachers from the La Araucanía region hold regarding their role as intercultural mediators. A qualitative approach was adopted. Sixteen teachers participated in semi-structured interviews and one focus group. Three beliefs teachers hold regarding the intercultural mediator role: (a) a proponent of positive intercultural attitudes, (b) an expander of intercultural contexts, and (c) a guide in finding purpose in learning.

Keywords: English as a foreign language, intercultural communicative competence, mediator role, teachers' beliefs

El Ministerio de Educación de Chile introdujo un enfoque de comunicación intercultural en la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera. Aunque los programas de formación inicial docente han adoptado progresivamente este enfoque, los docentes en servicio no necesariamente están preparados para reconocer su papel como mediadores interculturales. Este estudio analiza las creencias que los docentes de inglés como lengua extranjera de La Araucanía asumen sobre su rol como mediadores interculturales. Se adoptó un enfoque cualitativo. Dieciséis docentes participaron en entrevistas semiestructuradas y en un grupo de discusión. Las tres creencias que tienen los docentes respecto al rol de mediador intercultural son: (a) proponentes de actitudes interculturales positivas, (b) expansores de contextos interculturales y (c) guías para encontrar un propósito en el aprendizaje.

Palabras clave: competencia comunicativa intercultural, creencias de profesores, inglés como lengua extranjera, rol mediador

Maura Klenner-Loebel https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7664-3200 • Email: maura.klenner@ufrontera.cl
Juan Carlos Beltrán-Véliz https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4614-0650 • Email: juan.beltran@ufrontera.cl
Trevor Driscoll https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3070-5779 • Email: tdriscoll@academicos.uta.cl

This work has been sponsored by Universidad de La Frontera project IF23-0002.

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Klenner-Loebel, M., Beltrán-Véliz, J. C., & Driscoll, T. (2026). Araucanía Chilean EFL teachers' beliefs regarding their intercultural mediator role. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 89–104. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117794

This article was received on November 29, 2024 and accepted on October 16, 2025.

Introduction

The methodology for teaching English has changed worldwide in the last decades due to technological innovations and the social composition of globalized societies (Inomjonov, 2024; Mahyoob et al., 2024). Chile has not been the exception. English teaching moved from a grammar-centered approach in the 1990s to a communicative approach in the 2000s (Donoso, 2020), and then to a recent intercultural communication perspective (Bravo Araya, 2020; Klenner, 2018). This new framework, addressed as the intercultural language teaching and learning approach (Liddicoat, 2011), focuses on developing learners' ability to communicate effectively and appropriately across cultural contexts by fostering intercultural awareness, understanding, and reflection alongside language skills. More recently, this has been referred to as the intercultural communicative language teaching approach, which emphasizes integrating intercultural competence with language teaching by promoting learners' ability to communicate meaningfully across cultures through interaction, reflection, and understanding of cultural diversity (Munandar & Newton, 2021). A recent systematic review of intercultural communicative competence (ICC; Driscoll & Mondaca-Rojas, 2024) found that, in Latin America, Colombian researchers pioneered the study of the methodology (Barletta Manjarrés, 2009). These approaches understand the role of the English teacher as a mediator between students' culture and the cultures they may access using English.

The Chilean Ministry of Education (MINEDUC) has acknowledged this trend and now mandates that English teacher education programs explicitly enhance English as a foreign language (EFL) educators' roles as intercultural mediators. This requirement is cemented in the *2021 Disciplinary Standard E: Culture and Intercultural Competence* (Ministerio de Educación, 2021), which mandates that initial teacher education (ITE) in EFL programs prepare teachers to actively mediate between members of their own culture and those of others. Consequently, the development of this role is no longer optional; future teachers must acquire the didactic skills to design culturally relevant lessons, create inclusive activities, and implement assessments that consider cultural diversity, thereby positioning intercultural mediation as a core professional competency for English educators in Chile.

Before the current ministerial imposition, however, universities were not mandated to include the intercultural aspect in the curricula of English ITE. Thus, it is reasonable to hypothesize that EFL teachers might understand their role as intercultural mediators from preconceptions and informal knowledge about the development of intercultural communication.

Additionally, considering the context of the La Araucanía region, the commonly understood definition of interculturality is associated with the relationship between the Mapuche people and the Chilean State (Crow, 2016).[1] Chile, whose economic policy is neoliberal, has adopted a political approach to interculturality that is classified as functional (Walsh, 2010). Regardless, there is an ongoing struggle to incorporate critical emancipatory interculturality in all spheres of society (Quilaqueo & Sartorello, 2018). Thus, it is plausible that EFL teachers in La Araucanía conceptualize their role as intercultural mediators through the lens of critical interculturality, a framework deeply embedded in the historical and cultural dynamics of southern Chile.

Against this background, this study aims to analyze the beliefs EFL teachers in La Araucanía hold about their role as intercultural mediators. Understanding what teachers believe about their role as intercultural

1 La Araucanía is a southern region of Chile historically recognized as the main territory of the Mapuche people, the largest Indigenous group in the country. This makes it the epicenter of intercultural relations and the related socio-political tensions in Chile. The region's distinctiveness for this study lies in the ongoing conflict, often referred to as the Mapuche Conflict, which involves disputes over ancestral land and natural resources, as well as demands for greater autonomy and political recognition. These historical and current tensions profoundly shape local educational practices and the understanding of interculturality.

mediators in the EFL classroom will inform professional development on developing ICC.

Literature Review

In today's globalized society, learning English has become essential due to its status as a lingua franca, facilitating intercultural communication, granting access to global knowledge, and contributing to global citizenship skills. In the context of EFL learning, promoting global citizenship involves developing learners' ability to communicate across diverse cultural and linguistic boundaries, thus equipping them with the skills necessary to participate actively and responsibly in a globalized world (Byram, 2008; UNESCO, 2015). However, being a global citizen also requires considering the needs of the local context. In the case of foreign language learning, it is relevant to understand the interplay between global influences and local realities. This local–global interplay has been conceptualized as "glocal" (Feng & Kim, 2023). Adopting a glocal approach involves recognizing and valuing learners' local cultural identities while developing their capacity to engage with global issues and diverse cultural contexts through English (Canagarajah, 2018; Holliday, 2019). Thus, in this glocal context of EFL learning, the role of teachers as intercultural mediators becomes significant, as this mediation occurs between their students and the cultures and people they encounter while learning English.

English Teachers as Intercultural Mediators

Recent contributions to intercultural studies in language teaching have highlighted the importance of developing ICC among EFL teachers and learners (Byram, 2021). For both, ICC involves more than just linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge; it requires interpreting and understanding different worldviews and cultural perspectives, interacting and communicating effectively with individuals from different cultural backgrounds beyond anglophone contexts (Fantini, 2020), being aware of and respecting cultural differences, and resolving any conflicts that may arise (Polat & Metin, 2012). Several theoretical models have been produced to understand ICC. Influential examples include Hammer's (2009, 2012), who offers the Intercultural Development Continuum model, and Chen's (2017), who presents a triangular ICC model comprising intercultural sensitivity (Chen & Starosta, 2000), intercultural effectiveness (Portalla & Chen, 2010), and intercultural awareness (Chen & Starosta, 1998). In the TEFL area, the most influential is Byram's (2021) *savoirs* model, organized around five knowledge components. Particularly for teachers, it requires them to adopt the role of an intercultural mediator. Mediation, in this sense, is understood as facilitating learners' ability to bridge cultural differences, promoting intercultural understanding and communication skills for interacting with people from other cultures through English (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). As intercultural mediators, EFL teachers guide students in developing awareness of their own and others' cultures and encourage reflection, critical thinking, and effective interaction in culturally diverse contexts (Byram, 2021).

EFL teachers can motivate students to explore and reflect on cultural differences without judgment or prejudice by creating a supportive classroom environment that encourages students to challenge their assumptions and biases, promoting a more open-minded and inclusive approach to intercultural communication (Padua & Gonzalez Smith, 2020). EFL teachers also need to overcome cultural imbalances (Eno et al., 2019; Klenner Loebel et al., 2021), address reconciling contradictions between culturally related ideologies in materials and teaching practices (Hoff, 2020), and embrace critical pedagogies that promote intercultural understanding and challenge homogenizing approaches (Fang & Baker, 2021; Fang et al., 2024).

Effective intercultural mediation in the EFL classroom requires implementing various teaching strategies, including (a) incorporating authentic

literature, videos, and articles from different cultures into the curriculum to expose students to different cultural perspectives (Gómez, 2012); (b) prompting discussions on cultural topics that encourage students to share their experiences and perspectives while also respecting and valuing the viewpoints of others (Gómez Rodríguez, 2015); (c) providing opportunities for collaborative projects where students from different cultural backgrounds can work together to solve problems (Reid & Garson, 2016); and (d) creating a safe and inclusive classroom environment where students express opinions and beliefs without fear of judgment or discrimination (Terare, 2019). These strategies foster intercultural understanding and empathy, and enhance students' foreign and first language skills.

EFL Teachers' Beliefs About Their Intercultural Mediator Role

Teachers' beliefs are the implicit understandings, assumptions, and perceptions that teachers hold about teaching, learning, and their professional roles (Borg, 2003). They play a crucial role in shaping teachers' classroom practices and interactions. These beliefs are constructed through formal education and professional development and are influenced by personal experiences, cultural backgrounds, and contextual factors (Levin, 2015). Teachers' perceptions of their responsibility as intercultural mediators significantly influence their pedagogical choices, the selection of materials, and how they address cultural aspects in their language teaching practices.

Assuming an intercultural mediator role requires teachers' self-reflection on their beliefs about their identities and praxis (Cuartas Álvarez, 2020). Teachers can develop their identity as intercultural mediators through educational interventions, practical experience, and ongoing critical reflection (Gong et al., 2022). Through educational interventions, such as professional development programs, teachers can gain theoretical knowledge and pedagogical strategies to address intercultural communication in the EFL classroom effectively. Practical experience should further help shape teachers' identities as intercultural mediators. During practical teaching experiences, teachers should find the opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge and expertise to real-life intercultural encounters in the classroom. They ought to learn to adapt their teaching methods, integrate culturally responsive materials, and foster intercultural dialogue among their students. Ongoing critical reflection allows teachers to develop a strong sense of self and be confident in their cultural identities (Mede & Gunes, 2019).

EFL teachers, as intercultural mediators, know and understand the diversity of their students' backgrounds and the power dynamics that may be present in the classroom (Wang et al., 2022). By critically reflecting on the power dynamics present in intercultural dialogue, teachers can take steps to challenge and disrupt unequal power structures. Lastly, teachers can actively seek opportunities to learn about different cultures and languages and incorporate this knowledge into their teaching practices.

Method

This study used qualitative research with an interpretative approach, chosen to assess participants' beliefs through their discursive constructions. These were then interpreted by the research team in light of existing literature. Triangulation was further enhanced by involving multiple researchers in the analysis (Patton, 1999).

Participants and Data Collection

EFL teachers who have been teaching in primary and/or secondary schools in the La Araucanía region in Chile participated in 13 semi-structured interviews and one focus group. Descriptive data regarding the teachers who participated in the study are presented in Table 1. Participants were recruited using convenience

Table 1. Description of Participants

ID	Gender	Age	Teaching experience	School context of teaching experience	Participation
P1	Female	33	8 years	Urban public, urban charter	Individual interview
P2	Male	32	9 years	Urban public, urban charter, urban private	Individual interview
P3	Female	33	9 years	Urban public, urban charter	Individual interview
P4	Male	31	7 years	Urban public	Individual interview
P5	Female	24	2 years	Rural public, urban charter, urban public	Individual interview
P6	Male	32	9 years	Urban public, urban charter	Individual interview
P7	Male	36	9 years	Urban public, urban charter	Individual interview
P8	Female	32	8 years	Urban charter	Individual interview
P9	Female	55	18 years	Urban charter	Individual interview
P10	Female	41	10 years	Urban private	Individual interview
P11	Female	32	10 years	Urban charter	Individual interview
P12	Female	60	25 years	Rural, urban charter, urban private	Individual interview
P13	Female	56	20 years	Rural public, university	Individual interview
F14	Male	50	20 years	Rural public, urban private, university	Focus group
F15	Female	45	15 years	Rural public	Focus group
F16	Female	40	17 years	Urban charter, rural public	Focus group

(Golzar et al., 2022) and snowball sampling (Parker et al., 2019). The sample size was determined by data saturation, as no new information emerged in the final interviews. Inclusion criteria included teachers with at least 2 years of teaching experience and without formal education in ICC in TEFL. This criterion was important since it would contribute to identifying gaps in the teachers' knowledge, contrasted with the new standards for ITE of MINEDUC. The individual interviews lasted 30 minutes, and the focus group, 45 minutes. The interview guide was developed by the principal author, piloted by one teacher, and approved by external experts. Samples of the questions include, "How can the EFL teacher prompt intercultural communication?" and "What are the characteristics of a teacher as an intercultural mediator?" among others. The interviews and focus group were conducted by the principal researcher. The research was approved by the ethics committee of the university where the research originated, and each participant signed an informed consent form to participate in the study.

In the analysis, the first interview subject is designated Participant 1 (P1). The focus group participants are designated with an F. The interviews, recordings, and transcriptions were in Spanish, and the authors translated the extracts for this publication.

Data Analysis

The interviews were analyzed following the thematic analysis steps proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006). The first step was an initial approach to the data contained in the transcriptions, which involved reading and re-reading the texts to have an in-depth understanding of participants' reflections. The second step was to identify initial codes from the data. These corresponded to descriptive labels for data fragments that expressed similar ideas or topics. The work was conducted by identifying units of meaning that allowed the analyst to understand participants' utterances in depth. The third step was to look for patterns that emerged from these initial codes and to identify themes in participants' discourse. Themes are broader than codes and represent central ideas or issues expressed

in the data. This step allowed us to reach the first thematic organization around the attributions made by participants. The fourth step was to review and refine themes. At this stage, researchers' triangulation was relevant to ensure data stability. The fifth and last step was to define and name the resulting beliefs assigned to the role of EFL teachers as intercultural mediators. The researchers clearly defined what each belief is and what it is not, and then named it to encapsulate the themes that compose it. The themes emerging from the interviews were interpreted in light of the existing literature on ICC models, EFL learning contexts for developing ICC, and teachers' roles in the learning process. Atlas Ti 8.0 was used to aid analysis.

Findings

The themes emerging from the interviews regarding EFL teachers' role as intercultural mediators were organized into three main beliefs: (a) a proponent of positive intercultural attitudes, (b) an expander of intercultural contexts, and (c) a guide in finding purpose in learning. Each of these beliefs entails specific features of intercultural mediation. Table 2 presents a synthesis of the findings. Each belief is related to the corresponding features of the teachers' intercultural mediation.

The following sections describe each belief and its themes. They are accompanied by excerpts from participants to illustrate the findings.

Belief A: A Proponent of Positive Intercultural Attitudes

EFL teachers believe that being a proponent of positive intercultural attitudes is one of their most essential responsibilities. Participants see intercultural mediation when an EFL teacher openly inculcates positive attitudes toward intercultural communication, such as curiosity, reflection on stereotypes and prejudice, and positive values. These positive attitudes have two facets: one related to the affective sphere of intercultural relations (how their students feel about interacting) and the other to the cognitive sphere (what students learn from interacting).

The first feature of this belief is an attitude of curiosity. Teachers characterize the affective sphere of curiosity as prompting interest in engaging with people with different worldviews. The second facet of curiosity is a cognitive desire to learn about the culture and its aspects, such as beliefs, values, norms, and behaviors. Hence, curiosity can then be characterized as a mixture of a willingness to interact and a willingness to learn. This can be observed in the

Table 2. EFL Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Their Intercultural Mediator Role

	Belief A: A proponent of positive intercultural attitudes	**Belief B: An expander of intercultural contexts**	**Belief C: A guide to finding purpose in learning**
Intercultural mediation features. Mediation is performed when teachers:	Motivate attitudes such as: • curiosity • reflection on stereotypes and prejudice • positive values	Consider contexts such as: • home • learning space (teaching/ learning conditions and materials) • the global context for learning EFL	Lead the learning process in: • establishing a learning purpose • being a co-learner • motivating the least privileged

following excerpt, in which P4 highlights the importance of knowing the traditions and customs of the cultures associated with the target language and mentions the importance of creating this feeling of positive curiosity towards interacting with others:

> It is about understanding the culture you are learning about. To learn a language, you need to know the culture; you need to be immersed in the traditions and customs of the target language so that you can understand what is said and the context in which it is said.

The second feature of intercultural mediation is the need to motivate students to develop a reflective attitude towards stereotypes and prejudice based on ethnocentric views of culture. Reflecting on stereotypes and prejudice would allow students to enhance their positive attitudes toward learning about other cultures from an affective facet, since they would be able to develop empathy toward others and, from a cognitive facet, know the rationales behind cultural differences. As described in the following excerpt, teachers consider this reflection to be fundamental.

> First, I think we should be aware of stereotypes [when teaching EFL] because students also need to be aware of them, and perhaps start educating them about the formation of stereotypes, labels, and prejudices. There are ways to address that; one can address it in discussion classes. I think we must be careful with that. (P13)

Prompting curiosity and critical reflection on stereotypes and prejudice leads to another feature of this belief: the motivation behind attitudes that entail positive values, such as respect for differences, acceptance of cultural diversity, and an interest in engaging with people and realities that might be alien to the individual but could enrich their worldviews. According to the participants, these positive values result from contrasting cultural patterns and contribute to students' integral formation. In the following excerpts, P7 elaborates on how contrasting cultural patterns is the first step to understanding and respecting cultural differences. The participant ponders that the EFL teacher's role is to guide that reflection, while F15 focuses on the EFL teacher's role in contributing to the integral formation of students and how intercultural communication contributes to reflecting on diverse areas of human development, such as global communication, moral development, and personal wellness, as positive values. These attitudes align with the development of global citizenship competencies.

> The teacher has to teach in English elements that are proper to their students' culture. If you can make students contrast this with others, then they can respect other cultures as well, so our role is very important. (P7)
>
> I believe that this allows you to approach not only concepts but also the integral formation of people. You can discuss communication, values formation, self-care, or any topic you propose. In this sense, the role of teachers is very important because they know about the different subjects and are open to approaching many topics. (F15)

Belief B: An Expander of Intercultural Contexts

This belief describes the role of the English teacher as overseeing diverse cultural realities (local and foreign) and expanding students' cultural backgrounds, enabling them to broaden their worldviews through intercultural awareness. The intercultural mediation in this role happens when the teacher considers (a) students' home contexts, (b) the learning context, and (c) the global context for learning EFL.

For the participants, it is relevant to understand different sociocultural realities of the students' home context, such as being children of migrants or Indigenous people, and how these might influence the learning process. P4 reflects on the importance of connecting EFL with students' daily lives, thus incorporating students' contexts into the learning process:

"We try to incorporate culture without leaving aside the children's context because that is important. In other words, we cannot try to teach English out of the context of what they have in their daily lives."

This home context theme connects with Belief C, which is related to finding purpose in learning the language. By understanding students' cultural backgrounds, EFL teachers would better understand students' learning rationales and motivations for learning the language. In this way, they could provide their students with the most suitable strategies to prompt interest in intercultural communication.

Another feature of this belief is understanding the learning context in terms of the appropriate teaching/learning materials and conditions. Participants mention that selecting appropriate materials is crucial to prompt interest in intercultural communication. In this regard, teachers reflect critically on the materials (e.g., planning samples, textbooks) provided by governmental institutions, which they consider to be biased and stereotypical. Participants indicated that EFL teachers should be cautious about the materials they select, adapt, or create to teach the language, connecting this topic to Belief A regarding reflection on prejudice and stereotypes. Participant F16 reflects on the stereotypes in the textbooks provided by MINEDUC, exemplifying the representation of the Mapuche:

> The Ministry's English language textbooks are adapted, but they contain some misconceptions about other cultures or local cultures; for example, at the beginning, the language used for that culture is not appropriate, saying that the Mapuche people "existed," when they still exist. So, I question whether the adapted texts sometimes omit information that is true in real life.

Concerning students' teaching/learning conditions, participants said that the learning settings, whether rural or urban, or different school dependencies such as private, state/municipal, or charter, could influence students' learning dispositions, for example, how students find a purpose in learning EFL. Thus, in underprivileged contexts, it becomes the teacher's role to expand students' cultural capital. This connects with Belief C by understanding and managing the contextual conditions. EFL teachers become guides in helping students find purpose in learning EFL. Participant F14 elaborates on their teaching experience in diverse contexts by specifying the differences between rural and urban private schools regarding students' motivation and support to learn a foreign language:

> The teacher is the one who transmits a subject and culture, but it also depends on the type of school. . . . In the rural area, it is difficult for students to accept English as something that will serve them. As a teacher, I was frustrated because I did not have an answer to help them see something functional they would value. On the other hand, it is different in the context of private schools. They have their families, a whole cultural context behind them, and life goals that help your mediation through the English classes.

Intercultural mediation also occurs when teachers consider the global context of EFL learning. Teachers see English as a global language that enables communication with English-speaking cultures and other EFL speakers. Social media, gaming, and leisure activities allow students to connect with the global context of English. Teachers recognize that students interact in various intercultural scenarios, some of which are more familiar than others, and that they need to expand their range of intercultural experiences. For example, P5 invites students to consider interculturality as broader than communication with the local Indigenous peoples:

> Intercultural does not refer only to people of other ethnicities in a country, but also to something more global. So, I think it allows kids to learn about and recognize that there are other realities and cultures, and that learning from them is always meaningful.

Belief C: A Guide to Finding Purpose in Learning

The participants expressed that the EFL teacher should lead a process that reveals the purpose of learning the language, helping students find meaning and significance in their learning activities. One reason to learn English is that it will allow students to connect with people and cultures different from their own. This reason might seem evident in contexts where English is used in students' daily lives. However, in the La Araucanía context, students do not usually have the opportunity to interact with foreigners in English. In this way, the role of the EFL teacher as a guide in finding a purpose for learning the language becomes relevant, as it allows students to broaden their worldviews.

Regarding this belief, the participants mention three features of the intercultural mediation process. Intercultural mediation is performed when the teacher leads the learning process in (a) establishing a learning purpose, (b) being a co-learner, and (c) motivating the least advantaged.

Establishing the learning purpose does not correspond to presenting the class objectives or the learning outcomes, but to the general purpose of learning a foreign language. P1 states that teachers should first develop their own intercultural sensitivity to help students perceive the English language as useful. Then, they would be able to make this sensitivity explicit for their students:

> How that intercultural approach is developed should be much more explicit . . . how [the English culture] is developed in terms of sensitivity because that is the only way English teachers are going to convince themselves first and then make their students see the language as a real tool and as something that really applies to the world, as a life skill.

This excerpt also links to the next theme of this belief, teachers as co-learners. This means that teachers should learn alongside their students and that a co-learner is more than a mediator. By teachers modeling the learning process, students will see a clear route to develop skills, attitudes, and knowledge regarding the language and the cultures they access. In the following excerpt, P11 elaborates on the EFL teacher as a co-learner:

> I believe that a teacher, more than a mediator, should be a participant. What is the difference? The mediator may try to facilitate that this works with the other or generate spaces for what is useful. I see the teacher as a mediator but also as a participant or someone who learns alongside their students.

Another feature of intercultural mediation regarding this belief is motivating the least privileged students, which relates to Belief B, expanding students' intercultural contexts. Teachers understand that not all students have the same opportunities to practice the language in their local context. For example, it was mentioned that students from rural areas and lower socioeconomic levels might encounter difficulties in finding a purpose for learning English, contrary to students from urban areas in higher socioeconomic levels, who might have more opportunities to travel abroad or have relatives living in English-speaking countries, providing them opportunities to use the language in authentic conversations and real-life experiences. In this regard, P2 explains perceived contextual differences and reflects on the greater responsibility teachers have in motivating less privileged students to find purpose in learning:

> Depending on the context, it is also a little different. What we try to do at levels where the children are more constrained by their life context is to try, for example, to provide them with authentic materials or, through different types of work or projects, to show them other realities and cultures. Not only those that directly have to do with English, because oftentimes one goes to everything that has to do with English culture, but

through the development of the language itself to show them other realities, other peoples, other customs, and there are different ways to do it, through large projects, research, and presentations.

Discussion

This study sought to analyze the beliefs that EFL teachers in La Araucanía hold about their role as intercultural mediators, which may have originated in informal intercultural experiences. The findings report three main beliefs: that the EFL teacher is seen as (a) a proponent of positive intercultural attitudes, (b) an expander of intercultural contexts, and (c) a guide in finding purpose in learning. Each of these beliefs entails features regarding how mediation takes place.

This study started from the premise that English teachers' beliefs regarding their role as intercultural mediators might originate in informal intercultural experiences lived by the participants and that the tense relationship between the State and the Mapuche people in the La Araucanía Region might influence participants' discourse. The results show that participants included more professional than informal experiences in their discourse, which indicates that teachers are aware of the importance of the topic and that, even when they had not been formally educated, they understood that intercultural communication is part of teaching/learning a foreign language. Teachers introduced how they distinguished local critical interculturality from global citizenship skills and integrated the two. These experienced teachers, who had not been formally instructed in ICC, agreed with Fang et al. (2024) regarding the importance of context in understanding cultural diversity and creating positive outcomes for all students.

Regarding the beliefs encountered, the first relates to being a proponent of positive intercultural attitudes like curiosity, reflecting on stereotypes and prejudices, and positive values. This feature can be connected to intercultural awareness and intercultural sensitivity (Chen & Starosta, 1998, 2000). The affective sphere of curiosity is closely connected to what the authors describe as intercultural sensitivity, defined as the active desire to appreciate, accept, and hence understand the difference between one's own culture and the culturally distinct interlocutor. The cognitive sphere relates to Chen and Starosta's (1998) intercultural awareness, defined as being aware of how our own cultural conventions affect our reasoning and behavior. However, they highlight only the affective and the cognitive aspects and do not explicitly reference the behavioral aspects (intercultural effectiveness/adroitness; Portalla & Chen, 2010). Developing positive attitudes also relates to what Byram (2021) describes as *savoir-etre*, or a temporary willingness to suspend belief in the correctness or superiority of one's own cultural traits over those of another culture, which is a gateway to initiating interaction. In other words, teachers conceptualize that, to be effective in communicating, students first need to activate an affective dimension of openness to difference, which also relates to the minimization stage in Bennett's (2004) continuum model of intercultural sensitivity, in which subjects de-emphasize cultural differences and start appreciating them as valid representations of reality. De-emphasizing cultural differences would enhance the development of what Byram (2021) describes as *savoir-engager*, which is the ability to critically evaluate one's and others' cultural practices and products based on explicit criteria. In this case, the criteria would be the stereotypes and prejudices that need to be considered and reflected upon when developing ICC. This evaluation requires self-relativization, which means questioning one's beliefs and values and accepting that what other cultures regard as valid or acceptable might differ from one's perspective.

A second belief concerned the EFL teacher as an expander of intercultural context. As the local context for EFL does not allow for actual interaction between students and foreigners in English, teachers

might mainly focus on imaginary future encounters and a sense of curiosity about cultural differences and cultural patterns. This lack of real interaction may affect students' performance in the foreign language, particularly for students from low socioeconomic levels who have fewer opportunities to practice English in real contexts. This aligns with the information national agencies provided regarding students' English proficiency according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2020). The most recent national assessment (Gobierno de Chile, 2014) found that only 0.8% of students from low socioeconomic levels reach the A2 and B1 levels of the CEFR, while 83.3% of students from high socioeconomic levels do. Regarding this belief, participants also expressed concerns about how the teaching/learning materials were a manifestation of stereotypical societies. This coincides with findings that indicate that textbooks provided by national Ministries of Education for EFL instruction can fail to represent national realities by underrepresenting Indigenous minorities as foreign language learners (Gómez Rodríguez, 2015; Toledo-Sandoval, 2020). Being an expander of intercultural contexts resonates with the current debate regarding the understanding of intercultural communication as a glocal phenomenon (Guilherme, 2007). From this perspective, intercultural education is viewed as cosmopolitan, in which specific interculturalities are immersed and should be considered within the global context (Waghid, 2023).

The third belief was being a guide in finding a purpose in learning. EFL is a compulsory subject in the Chilean national curriculum. Students' lack of choice has been studied as a factor influencing both their goal-setting and motivation (Fryer et al., 2014). It seems relevant for teachers to establish intercultural communication and intercultural communication skills as extrinsic motivation goals (Ryan & Deci, 2000) to encourage further learning purposes. Students might appraise these goals in terms of future orientation, for example, in the expectation of engaging in intercultural relations that are interesting or might serve an educational or work-related goal, hence experiencing a sense of self-determination to learn the language (Miller & Brickman, 2004). De Volder and Lens (1982) argue that the teacher's role is crucial in ensuring students' understanding of the instrumental value of a task (i.e., its perceived usefulness), which aids the student in setting real and enduring motivational goals. Another way in which mediation occurs regarding this belief is when teachers take the role of co-learners, which has been described in EFL literature as a horizontal figure, a friendly companion who is not dominating the learning process nor is a fountain of knowledge, but rather someone students can trust (Mezrigui, 2015). It has been studied that this role prompts students' autonomy (Le et al., 2023).

Finally, intercultural didactic strategies can also serve as a tool to motivate students who do not have a stimulating learning environment for EFL. For example, exposure to authentic materials, such as reading authentic texts, has been found to increase motivation towards learning EFL (Namaziandost et al., 2022). Motivation to read in a foreign language can also be prompted by involving family and texts in the native language (Balderas, 2017). For this to be successful, the teacher must understand students' local context, including their families, to avoid misunderstandings and misconceptions about cultural backgrounds, both local and foreign.

Projections and Limitations

The findings point to a need for more effective professional development for in-service teachers, specifically to help them apply this approach to foster deep intercultural sensitivity and awareness in their students. In this regard, teaching experiences such as collaborative online international learning (COIL; O'Dowd, 2016, 2018), developed in contexts of telecollaboration and virtual exchanges, seem viable for

helping students connect effectively (Hackett et al., 2023) with foreign people and their cultures. This teaching/learning strategy is feasible, considering the technology available in Chilean schools and universities. However, some effort would be required from school authorities and government organizations to establish international relations with other institutions pursuing the same objectives.

Regarding possible future research, the qualitative nature of the study could be expanded to develop reliable quantitative instruments to evaluate the in-service and preservice teachers' development of ICC, considering their lived experiences as intercultural mediators. These instruments would reveal the aspects of ITE and professional development that must be addressed to formally educate teachers in incorporating the intercultural approach to EFL teaching. Along this line, identifying group differences in larger samples would also be necessary. Moreover, longitudinal research involving larger numbers of participants could significantly enrich understanding of the aspects of ICC that need to be addressed in professional development.

Conclusions

This study examined the beliefs of EFL teachers in La Araucanía regarding their role as intercultural mediators and identified three key beliefs: being a proponent of positive intercultural attitudes, an expander of intercultural contexts, and a guide in finding a purpose for learning. Findings suggest that professional experiences shape teachers' intercultural mediation beliefs more than informal encounters, and while they emphasize affective and cognitive aspects of intercultural competence, they overlook behavioral dimensions. Teachers recognize the importance of integrating local critical interculturality with global citizenship competencies, addressing stereotypes in teaching materials, and linking language learning to students' future aspirations to enhance motivation. However, the need for structured ICC instruction remains, particularly in developing intercultural effectiveness. Future research should focus on reliable assessment tools and structured programs such as COIL to better equip teachers for their evolving role as intercultural mediators in diverse learning contexts.

References

Balderas, J. L. (2017). *Seeking reading motivation within English language learners in an economically disadvantaged environment* [Doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M International University]. Theses and Dissertations. https://rio.tamiu.edu/etds/107

Barletta Manjarrés, N. (2009). Intercultural competence: Another challenge. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *11*(1), 143–158.

Bennett, M. (2004). Becoming interculturally competent. In J. S. Wurzel (Ed.), *Toward multiculturalism: A reader in multicultural education* (pp. 62–77). Intercultural Resource Corporation.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(2), 81–109. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Bravo Araya, C. (2020). *Teaching politeness to develop intercultural competence in EFL students in the Chilean context* [Master's dissertation, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile]. Repositorio Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile. https://doi.org/10.7764/tesisUC/LET/49281

Byram, M. (2008). *From foreign language education to education for intercultural citizenship: Essays and reflections*. Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847690807

Byram, M. (2021). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence: Revisited* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781800410251

Canagarajah, S. (2018). Translingual practice as spatial repertoires: Expanding the paradigm beyond structuralist

orientations. *Applied Linguistics, 39*(1), 31–54. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx041

Chen, G.-M. (2017). Issues in the conceptualization of intercultural communication competence. In L. Chen (Ed.), *Intercultural communication* (pp. 349–368). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501500060-016

Chen, G.-M., & Starosta, W. J. (1998). A review of the concept of intercultural awareness. *Human Communication*, *2*, 27–54.

Chen, G.-M., & Starosta, W. J. (2000). The development and validation of the intercultural communication sensitivity scale. *Human Communication*, *3*(1), 1–15.

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (Companion volume). Council of Europe Publishing. https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages

Crow, J. (2016). Troubled negotiations: The Mapuche and the Chilean State (1818–1830). *Bulletin of Latin American Research, 36*(3), 285–298. https://doi.org/10.1111/blar.12481

Cuartas Álvarez, L. F. (2020). Intercultural communicative competence: In-service EFL teachers building understanding through study groups. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 22*(1), 75–92. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v22n1.76796

de Volder, M., & Lens, W. (1982). Academic achievement and future time perspective as a cognitive-motivational concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 42*(3), 566–571. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.42.3.566

Donoso, E. (2020). Using Spanish in English language Chilean classrooms? Perspectives from EFL teacher trainees. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *22*(1), 93–107. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v22n1.77494

Driscoll, T., & Mondaca-Rojas, C. (2024). Systematic review of intercultural communicative competence in English classrooms of Latin America. *Diálogo Andino*, (74), 144–155. https://doi.org/10.4067/S0719-26812024000200144

Eno, M. A., Ahad, A. M., & Shafat, A. (2019). Perceptions of academic administrators and policymakers on ESL/EFL education. *Journal of Somali Studies*, *6*(1), 93–119.

Fang, F., & Baker, W. (2021). Implementing a critical pedagogy of Global Englishes in ELT from the lens of EMI and intercultural citizenship. In Y. Bayyurt & M. Saraceni (Eds.), *World Englishes Volume 3: Pedagogies* (pp. 177–191). Bloomsbury Academic.

Fang, F., McConachy, T., & Yuan, R. (2024). Intercultural learning and identity development as a form of teacher development through study abroad: Narratives from English language practitioners. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 37*(2), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2024.2323453

Fantini, A. E. (2020). Reconceptualizing intercultural communicative competence: A multinational perspective. *Research in Comparative and International Education, 15*(1), 52–61. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745499920901948

Feng, M., & Kim, H. K. (2023). The role of teacher knowledge and practice in shaping EFL teachers' glocal identity. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688231170441

Fryer, L. K., Ozono, S., Carter, P., Nakao, K., & Anderson, C. J. (2014). Instrumental reasons for studying in compulsory English courses: I didn't come to university to study English, so why should I? *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 8*(3), 239–256. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2013.835314

Gobierno de Chile. (2014). *Estrategia nacional de inglés 2014–2030*. https://bit.ly/3SbiZZ9

Golzar, J., Noor, S., & Tajik, O. (2022). Convenience sampling. *International Journal of Education & Language Studies, 1*(2), 72–77. https://doi.org/10.22034/ijels.2022.162981

Gómez, L. F. (2012). Fostering intercultural communicative competence through reading authentic literary texts in an advanced Colombian EFL classroom: A constructivist perspective. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *14*(1), 49–66.

Gómez Rodríguez, L. F. (2015). The cultural content in EFL textbooks and what teachers need to do about it. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *17*(2), 167–187. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v17n2.44272

Gong, Y. F., Lai, C., & Gao, X. A. (2022). Language teachers' identity in teaching intercultural communicative competence. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *35*(2), 134–150. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2021.1954938

Guilherme, M. (2007). English as a global language and education for cosmopolitan citizenship. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *7*(1), 72–90. https://doi.org/10.2167/laic184.0

Hackett, S., Janssen, J., Beach, P., Perreault, M., Beelen, J., & van Tartwijk, J. (2023). The effectiveness of collaborative online international learning (COIL) on intercultural competence development in higher education. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, *20*(5). https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-022-00373-3

Hammer, M. R. (2009). The intercultural development inventory: An approach for assessing and building intercultural competence. In M. A. Moodian (Ed.). *Contemporary leadership and intercultural competence: Exploring the cross-cultural dynamics within organizations* (pp. 203–218). Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452274942.n16

Hammer, M. R. (2012). The intercultural development inventory: A new frontier in assessment and development of intercultural competence. In M. Vande Berg, R. M. Paige, & K. H. Lou (Eds.), *Student learning abroad: What our students are learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it* (pp. 115–136). Stylus Publishing. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003447184-7

Hoff, H. E. (2020). The evolution of intercultural communicative competence: Conceptualisations, critiques, and consequences for 21st-century classroom practice. *Intercultural Communication Education*, *3*(2), 55–74. https://doi.org/10.29140/ice.v3n2.264

Holliday, A. (2019). *Understanding intercultural communication: Negotiating a grammar of culture* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Inomjonov, A. (2024). *Impact of globalization in ELT.* Kokand University. https://bit.ly/3SeBzzy

Klenner, M. (2018). *El profesor de inglés como mediador intercultural: concepciones respecto del desarrollo de la competencia comunicativa intercultural de profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera de la Región de la Araucanía* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Universidad de La Frontera, Chile.

Klenner Loebel, M. P., Merino Dickinson, M. E., & Beltrán Véliz, J. C. (2021). Jóvenes mapuche: aprendiendo inglés y reflexionando sobre su identidad cultural. Una aproximación desde el Sistema de Valoración. *Revista Latinoamericana de Estudios del Discurso*, *21*(2), 121–141. https://doi.org/10.35956/v.21.n2.2021.p.121-141

Le, Q. H. T., Dang, T. T., & Bui, Q. T. T. (2023). Tertiary EFL students' learner autonomy: The roles of teachers in the classroom. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 13*(8), 1880–1887. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1308.03

Levin, B. B. (2015). The development of teachers' beliefs. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teachers' beliefs* (pp. 48–65). Routledge.

Liddicoat, A. J. (2011). Language teaching and learning from an intercultural perspective. In *E. Hinkel (Ed.), Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 837–855). Routledge.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Scarino, A. (2013). *Intercultural language teaching and learning.* Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118482070

Mahyoob, M., Algaraady, J., & Elmahdi, O. E. H. (2024). Challenges and sustainability of e-learning adoption among EFL teachers in the post-COVID-19 era. In D. D. Carbonara & L. A. Tomei (Eds.), *Instructional technology theory in the post-pandemic era* (pp. 428–454). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/979-8-3693-7645-4.ch017

Mede, E., & Gunes, G. (2019). Integration of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in an EFL course: Perceptions of students and teachers. *İnönü University Journal of the Faculty of Education, 20*(2), 352–363. https://doi.org/10.17679/inuefd.445793

Mezrigui, Y. (2015). The qualities of a successful EFL teacher in the eyes of learners. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies, 2*(3), 507–523.

Miller, R. B., & Brickman, S. J. (2004). A model of future-orientated motivation and self-regulation. *Educational Psychology Review*, *16*, 9–33. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:EDPR.0000012343.96370.39

Ministerio de Educación. (2021). *Estándares de la profesión docente carreras de pedagogía en inglés: educación básica/media*. Centro de Perfeccionamiento, Experimentación e Investigaciones Pedagógicas.

Munandar, M. I., & Newton, J. (2021). Indonesian EFL teachers' pedagogic beliefs and classroom practices regarding culture and interculturality. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 21*(2), 158–173. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2020.1867155

Namaziandost, E., Razmi, M. H., Tilwani, S. A., & Gilakjani, A. P. (2022). The impact of authentic materials on reading comprehension, motivation, and anxiety among Iranian male EFL learners. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *38*(1), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.1080/10573569.2021.1892001

O'Dowd, R. (2016). Emerging trends and new directions in telecollaborative learning. *Calico Journal, 33*(3), 291–310. https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.v33i3.30747

O'Dowd, R. (2018). From telecollaboration to virtual exchange: State-of-the-art and the role of UNICollaboration in moving forward. *Journal of Virtual Exchange, 1,* 1–23. https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2018.jve.1

Padua, J., & Gonzalez Smith, M. (2020). Intercultural communicative competence in teacher education: Cultural simulation insights from Hawai'i. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, *8*(3), 59–76. https://doi.org/10.22492/ije.8.3.04

Parker, C., Scott, S., & Geddes, A. (2019). *Snowball sampling*. SAGE research methods foundations.

Patton, M. Q. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Services Research*, *34,* 1189–1208.

Polat, S., & Metin, M. A. (2012). The relationship between the teachers' intercultural competence levels and the strategy of solving conflicts. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *46*, 1961–1968. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.411

Portalla, T., & Chen, G.-M. (2010). The development and validation of the intercultural effectiveness scale. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, *19*(3), 21–37.

Quilaqueo, D., & Sartorello, S. (2018). Retos epistemológicos de la interculturalidad en contexto indígena. *Alpha: Revista de Artes, Letras y Filosofía*, (47), 47–61.

Reid, R., & Garson, K. (2016). Rethinking multicultural group work as intercultural learning. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *21*(3), 195–212. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315316662981

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*(1), 54–67. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020

Terare, M. (2019). Transforming classrooms: Developing culturally safe learning environments. In D. Baines, B. Bennett, S. Goodwin, & M. Rawsthorne (Eds.), *Working across difference: Social work, social policy and social justice* (pp. 26–37). Macmillan.

Toledo-Sandoval, F. (2020). Local culture and locally produced ELT textbooks: How do teachers bridge the gap? *System, 95*, 102362. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102362

UNESCO. (2015). *Global citizenship education: Topics and learning objectives. UNESCO Publishing.* https://doi.org/10.54675/DRHC3544

Waghid, Z. (2023). Cultivating critical thinking, social justice awareness and empathy among pre-service teachers through online discussions on global citizenship education. *Journal of Creative Communications*, *19*(1), 74–93. https://doi.org/10.1177/09732586231194438

Walsh, C. (2010). Interculturalidad crítica y educación intercultural. In J. Viaña, L. Tapia, & C. Walsh (Eds.), *Construyendo interculturalidad crítica* (pp. 75–96). Instituto Internacional de Integración del Convenio Andrés Bello.

Wang, S., Moskal, M., & Schweisfurth, M. (2022). The social practice of silence in intercultural classrooms at a UK university. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, *52*(4), 600–617. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2020.1798215

About the Authors

Maura Klenner-Loebel (EdD in Educational Sciences, Universidad de La Frontera, Chile; MA in TEFL, Universidad Católica de Temuco, Chile) is an English teacher at the Languages, Literature, and Communication Department at Universidad de La Frontera, Temuco, Chile. She has researched and published on intercultural communication competence in the teaching of EFL and other educational areas.

Roles: conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Juan Carlos Beltrán-Véliz (EdD in Educational Sciences, Universidad de La Frontera, Chile; EdD in Educational Sciences, Universidad de São Paulo, Brazil; MEd Universidad Mayor, Chile) is an academic and researcher of the Scientific and Technological Nucleus in Social Sciences and Humanities, Universidad de La Frontera (Chile). He researches and publishes on intercultural communicative competence, interculturality, and intercultural education.

Roles: interpretation of data and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Trevor Driscoll is an EdD candidate at Universidad de Tarapacá. He holds an MEd, Northwest Nazarene University, USA. He has taught EFL and TEFL in the Teacher Education Program at Universidad de Tarapacá since 2012, and has also researched and published on intercultural communicative competence in the EFL classroom, intercultural education, and interculturality.

Roles: analysis and interpretation of data and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.118525

Teacher Capabilities Valued by English Language Teacher Educators: Insights From Ecuador

Capacidades docentes valoradas por formadores de docentes de inglés: perspectivas desde Ecuador

Adeline De Angelis
University of Wisconsin, Madison, USA

Efforts to ensure quality English language teacher education often impose external criteria that emphasize predetermined language proficiency and pedagogical skills. Inspired by the capabilities approach, this paper describes teacher capabilities valued by English language teacher educators in Ecuador. I analyze focus group interviews with 37 teacher educators from 18 universities about their language use practices and instructional goals, providing insights into how educators may think about content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, teacher identity and cognition, and their importance relative to or together with English proficiency. Drawing on insights from Ecuador, I encourage programs in varied global contexts to critically explore how and by whom the desirable outcomes of English language teacher education are defined and valued in everyday practice.

Keywords: English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, teacher capabilities, teacher identity, teacher knowledge base

Los esfuerzos por garantizar una formación de calidad para docentes de inglés suelen imponer criterios externos que enfatizan competencias predeterminadas en dominio del idioma y en pedagogía. Inspirado en el enfoque de capacidades, este artículo describe las capacidades docentes valoradas por formadores de docentes de inglés en Ecuador. Analizo entrevistas de grupos focales con 37 instructores de 18 universidades sobre sus prácticas de uso del idioma y sus metas instruccionales, para revelar varias maneras de concebir el conocimiento de contenido, el conocimiento pedagógico, la identidad y la cognición docente, así como la importancia de esas áreas en relación con el dominio del inglés. Partiendo de las experiencias de Ecuador, aliento a explorar cómo y quiénes definen y valoran el dominio del inglés y la buena enseñanza.

Palabras clave: base de conocimiento docente, capacidades docentes, conocimiento pedagógico, dominio del inglés, identidad docente

Adeline De Angelis https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5115-1031 • Email: adeangelis2@wisc.edu

This article is based on the dissertation completed by De Angelis (2024a).

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): De Angelis, A. (2026). Teacher capabilities valued by English language teacher educators: Insights from Ecuador. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 105–122. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.118525

This article was received on January 27, 2025 and accepted on September 25, 2025.

Introduction

How English language teacher education (ELTE) should prepare English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teachers is a matter of much discussion in ELTE literature (Barahona, 2016; Richards, 2017). Barahona and Darwin (2021) observe that concerns about student learning outcomes across Latin America regularly raise "broad questions as to the quality of teacher preparation" (p. 2281) in ELTE programs. National efforts to ensure the quality of teacher education have too often disparaged teachers and imposed external criteria, though ELTE should be rooted in the knowledge and experiences of local educators (Calle et al., 2019; González Moncada, 2021).

The teaching knowledge, skills, attitudes, and states of being that are important for student learning and for teachers' own well-being can be thought of as teacher capabilities (Buckler, 2016; Tao, 2016). I use the term "capabilities," as defined by the capabilities approach (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021), to refer to what teachers-in-formation have the opportunity to be and do. With this approach, capabilities do not refer to decontextualized skills, but rather to opportunities that arise from the interplay of educational resources, sociocultural, and material factors that vary by context and learner, and individuals' agency.

Inspired by the capabilities approach, which holds that stakeholders should engage in dialogue about what capabilities constitute desirable ends in a given educational context (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021), this paper describes the capabilities valued by English language teacher educators in Ecuador. It is based on focus group data from a larger mixed-methods study exploring links between teacher educators' reported language use practices and the teacher capabilities they most valued. This research offers insights into what teacher educators valued (the capabilities they mentioned and ascribed importance to) when reflecting on a specific decision in practice (how they use language).

In studying valued teacher capabilities in this way, I sought to make sense of what I, in my own work as a (North American) teacher educator in Ecuador, perceived as tension between prioritizing English proficiency and prioritizing other capabilities. I also saw that tension in ELTE literature from the region (e.g., Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019). While designing, implementing, and writing about this study, I grappled with whether it is meaningful to categorize and ascribe relative importance to teacher capabilities. As argued by Castañeda-Londoño (2019), attempts to categorically define teacher knowledge are rooted in colonial/modern scientific discourses that obscure other ways of conceptualizing valuable teacher knowledges. I recognize the influence of those discourses in this study. Nonetheless, I believe the findings are worth sharing, not to define categories and priorities, but to engage in an ongoing dialogue with educators in Ecuador, South America, and beyond about what we believe matters in ELTE and how the most-discussed types of teacher knowledge come together in practice.

Literature Review

Teacher Capabilities in Ecuadorian ELTE

Ecuadorian English language teaching (ELT) literature consistently identifies English proficiency and pedagogical skill as essential teacher capabilities that ELTE should better address. Policymakers and the media have long critiqued local teachers and teacher preparation in those regards (González Moncada & Llurda, 2016).

Since 2012, the Ministry of Education has required English teachers to obtain an international certification of a minimum B2 level on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2020) to qualify for tenure and promotion, and ELTE programs have set related requirements (Acosta et al., 2023). Most teachers performed poorly on a

standardized proficiency assessment conducted at that time. Serrano et al. (2015) describe a subsequent collaboration between the U.S. Embassy and Ecuadorian universities to standardize ELTE based on their diagnosis that "the majority of English teachers in Ecuador have neither the language proficiency nor the methodologies to teach English effectively" (p. 109). A more recent Embassy-funded project by a network of Ecuadorian researchers based in ELTE programs reached a similar conclusion after surveying 3,813 public school EFL teachers (Acosta et al., 2023). Just 35% of respondents self-reported having the mandated minimum B2 level of English proficiency, and the reported use of specific pedagogical methods that are often considered best practices was not as consistent as hoped. These publications evidence local scholar-practitioners' ongoing efforts to develop Ecuadorian ELTE while also elevating international standards and U.S. or British cooperation, a problematic pattern in the region that positions local educators as inadequate (González Moncada & Llurda, 2016; Granados-Beltrán, 2022).

Regarding pedagogy, some local publications evoke a "theory and practice divide" (Barahona & Darwin, 2021, p. 2281) observed in the region. A rare study documenting classroom practices at scale, including observation of 92 public-school EFL teachers in Cuenca, pointed to "the teacher-centered approach, the lack of interaction with and among students in the target language, and the confusion of teachers when applying different communicative strategies" (Calle et al., 2012, p. 1). Burgin and Daniel (2017) observed that nine public high school EFL teachers in the Highlands region used teacher-centered, transmission-based rather than participatory methods, though these teachers were skilled at managing activities and engaging learners. Similarly, Ortega-Auquilla and Minchala-Buri (2019) observed eight EFL teachers in rural schools during an academic school year and found that the grammar-translation method was predominant. These authors observe that "meaningful communicative interaction[s] in English…are almost non-existent" (p. 66), contrary to the ostensible requirement of communicative and content-based methods in the national curriculum.

Teachers themselves voice a variety of concerns. Sevy-Biloon et al. (2020) held roundtable discussions with 40 experienced public school EFL teachers from central Ecuador who had demonstrated proficiency at the B2 level in English. They discussed findings from classroom observations conducted with 15 of these teachers. Salient topics in these discussions were the difficulty of planning under the mandated national curriculum, large class sizes, insufficient preparation to support students with special needs, and the low prioritization of English within the school system. On Acosta et al.'s (2023) large-scale survey of public-school EFL teachers, over 75 % agreed that class size affects the quality of instruction, and about half agreed that the required B2 English level for teachers ensures effective teaching. These studies evoke a disconnect between top-down recommendations for curriculum and testing and teachers' actual experiences in the classroom. In a theoretical critique of Ecuador's education reforms from 2009 to 2015, Fajardo-Dack (2016) emphasizes the disconnect and argues that the standardized approach has disempowered teachers.

Concern for balancing English language learning with other objectives, especially when student-teachers' proficiency levels are low, is conspicuous in the Ecuadorian context (Abad et al., 2019; Argudo et al., 2018). Cajas et al. (2023) quote a program coordinator who participated in their study of ELTE curricula:

> According to the Ministry of Education, when students finish their secondary school, they need to have a B2 level of English. We all know that it is not the case. Some students finish with an A2 level and, in some cases, they even have an A1 level. These are the type of students who come to the university pursuing a career in English language teaching. Regrettably, we cannot deviate much

> from the standardized curriculum requirements and increase the number of English proficiency teaching hours to improve language proficiency among our students. (p. 26)

Argudo et al. (2018) note that at the University of Cuenca (Ecuador), most students enter the undergraduate ELTE program with a basic level and, despite several semesters of language instruction, "students have issues when learning content courses taught in English" (p. 82). The authors observe that "according to the students' perceptions, it seems they are acquiring the necessary subject knowledge; nevertheless, language is being relegated to second position, and it is not being developed with content, simultaneously" (p. 82). According to the authors:

> The main objective of the Pre-Service EFL Teaching program is for students to achieve an adequate oral and written use of the target language at a B2 level, with relevant knowledge about English linguistics, as well as its literary and cultural manifestations. (p. 72)

Much of this literature emphasizes language and pedagogy and presents teacher knowledge as a specific set of skills, with little attention to how those are mediated by identity and beliefs. Yet, growing research on teachers' and students' experiences shows the influence of a sociocultural understanding of education. ELTE curricula include learning through experience and reflection, as well as teacher research. One sign that educators may value teacher identity and cognition in ways that are not yet broadly documented is a literature review—conducted by Heredia-Arboleda et al. (2021) as part of a preliminary study for the development of a new master's program in ELTE—on "personal traits that [English language teachers] should empower themselves with" (p. 1526). Furthermore, Calle et al. (2019) note a need for more bottom-up teacher professional development based on assessment of teacher needs and contexts rather than predetermined technical skills, drawing in part on literature from Colombia on critical ELTE.

Regional Perspectives on Teacher Capabilities in ELTE

The literature from the region includes both mainstream and critical perspectives on ELTE. Policy-oriented literature emphasizes linguistic and pedagogical shortcomings of EFL teachers and teacher education programs. For instance, Cronquist and Fiszbein (2017) assert that in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Peru, and Uruguay, "the quality of [teacher] training is varied and overall poor" (p. 6). In a subsequent report, Stanton and Fiszbein (2019) call for language-proficiency certification requirements for EFL teachers and more rigorous, standardized criteria for preservice ELTE. Those recommendations reflect the view that teachers need a defined set of skills—with language proficiency foremost—and have been incorporated into regional policy. González Moncada (2021) critically describes how approaches to EFL teacher education in Colombia espoused the view that "teachers required intervention to 'fix' their limitations, mainly in English proficiency and ELT methodologies" (p. 141).

While there are common trends in the region, ELTE programs vary in how they approach teacher capabilities. Based on their review of the literature from three countries, Banegas and Martínez Argudo (2019) observe that Colombian university-based ELTE programs seem to place greater emphasis on pedagogy and decision-making, while Chilean and Ecuadorian programs tend to emphasize English proficiency. Buendía and Macías (2019) describe Colombian ELTE as "transitioning" towards critical models. In contrast, Martin (2016) found that Chilean ELTE took an "applied science" approach and did little to connect curricula to local contexts. Barahona and Darwin (2021) consider that ELTE programs in the Southern Cone aim to be contextually responsive, in part due to "the theory and

practice divide" (p. 2281) impeding teachers' implementation of what they learn. Yet, those authors note that ELTE priorities are largely defined elsewhere, citing Díaz Maggioli's (2017) observation about ELTE policies shared by Chile, Ecuador, and Uruguay.

As in Ecuador, tensions appear between dedicating time to English proficiency and other teacher capabilities. Barahona (2016) describes this as the challenge "for pre-service teachers to appropriate pedagogical knowledge and language proficiency concurrently" (p. 39). Banegas and Martínez Argudo (2019) describe the difficulty of balancing future teachers' "English language proficiency and the development of higher-thinking skills to take control of their own teaching development" (p. 198). Drawing parallels with Ecuador and Chile, they describe an Argentine ELTE program that admits students at varying levels of English proficiency due to teacher shortages and concerns about equity. As in Ecuador, this poses challenges for cohort-based curricula taught in English (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019). While Cajas et al. (2023) argue that curricular standardization in Ecuador has been detrimental by *constraining* the number of hours dedicated to English language development, Barahona and Darwin (2021) and Martin (2016) suggest an *over*emphasis on language proficiency in Chile.

Critical approaches to ELTE in South America offer a different perspective on what teachers should have the opportunity to do and be. They view teachers as becoming creators of knowledge about teaching, language, and society rooted in particular contexts (Buendía & Macías, 2019). This approach is most visible in the ELT literature from Colombia, where scholars such as Castañeda-Peña and Méndez-Rivera (2022), González Moncada (2021), and Granados-Beltrán (2022), among others, have produced research on critical and decolonial ELTE. As participants in a network of critical language teacher educators in Brazil, Borelli et al. (2020) describe additional examples of decolonial ELTE practices. These scholars and programs emphasize teacher identities, beliefs, and critical thinking, along with social justice aims. Dávila (2018) highlights the impact of policies in Colombia that make achieving international certifications of English proficiency central to EFL teacher identity. He considers that the emphasis on standard CEFR levels leads teacher educators to "give more relevance to formal aspects of the language rather than the social, political, cultural and pedagogical aspects of the process of education" (p. 229).

In summary, mainstream ELTE in Ecuador and the region gives considerable attention to whether and how teachers acquire determined skills, often characterized as language and pedagogy. The types of teacher learning that are of most concern vary, and critical ELTE offers a different perspective. Yet, there are common tensions regarding the role of language among teacher capabilities.

Types of English Language Teacher Capabilities

Before continuing, it is relevant to specify some key aspects of the teacher capabilities discussed thus far—more commonly presented as elements of a "knowledge base" (Castañeda-Londoño, 2019), "core practices" (Barahona & Darwin, 2021), or "competencies" (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019). I overview four types of capabilities: English proficiency, content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and teacher identity and cognition. These categories are interconnected and have been conceptualized and problematized by ELT scholars in a variety of ways (for a critical historical view, see Castañeda-Londoño, 2019). I identify these "types" as a manner of briefly synthesizing complex concepts relevant to this paper.

English Proficiency

Mainstream perspectives on ELTE emphasize English proficiency as a requisite for teacher effectiveness, though the relationship between proficiency and effectiveness is difficult to specify (Faez et al., 2021; Freeman,

2020). Accepted theories of language development indicate that significant amounts of input and output in the target language are necessary; thus, teachers need to be able to use English and support their learners in using it (Barahona & Darwin, 2021; Richards, 2017). Some suggest teachers need to reach a "proficiency threshold," beyond which non-linguistic factors are more important (Richards, 2010; Tsang, 2017). In Ecuador, Abad et al. (2021) studied the relationship between proficiency and observed pedagogical practice of 17 private-school EFL teachers. They found no significant relationship between proficiency level and classroom management or activities, while more English-proficient teachers did provide clearer explanations and less-routine exchanges. There was no significant correlation between teachers' proficiency and students' ratings of instructional efficacy (Argudo Serrano et al., 2021).

English proficiency may be valuable as a contributor to teachers' own belief in their professional abilities (Faez et al., 2021). In a quantitative meta-analysis of 20 studies across various national contexts, Faez et al. (2021) found a moderate relationship between proficiency and teacher efficacy. Being proficient in English is certainly important to many EFL teachers (Argudo Serrano et al., 2021; Richards, 2017). A core practice identified by ELTE instructors in Barahona and Darwin's (2021) study was "building discourse communities" (p. 2294) of classroom interaction in English, suggesting how using English may intersect with pedagogy and identity.

There is no clear consensus on the level and nature of proficiency that is desirable. Teacher proficiency is often measured with mainstream tests (e.g., the TOEFL or Cambridge B2 First) and general scales of language competence (e.g., the CEFR), suggesting that EFL teachers need broad, general English proficiency (Faez et al., 2021; Freeman, 2020). An alternative position is that ELT requires a kind of "English for specific purposes," limited to how teachers use language while teaching (Freeman, 2020; Richards, 2017).

Content Knowledge

Language is an incontrovertible part of teachers' ELT knowledge and includes knowledge *about* language, in addition to proficiency. ELT content knowledge also involves *more* than language, though scholars debate what it encompasses (see Richards, 2010, for an introduction to that debate). ELTE course topics suggest what content the field considers relevant but vary by program, ranging from applied linguistics and sociolinguistics to literature and culture to research methods (Richards, 2017). Argudo et al. (2018) characterize content knowledge in an Ecuadorian program by listing courses that include English literature, history of English, second language acquisition, language learning theories and methods, and assessment. Undergraduate programs also require courses that impart general education knowledge (Cajas et al., 2023), though this is not specifically part of ELT content knowledge.

Following Shulman's (1987) seminal work, Richards (2010) notes that ELT content knowledge has both theoretical and applied components that may be distinguished as "disciplinary knowledge" and "pedagogical content knowledge." In the ELTE literature introduced previously, content knowledge is sometimes discussed in connection with teaching practices and teacher identity development. For instance, Barahona and Darwin (2021) describe the practice of "focusing on cultural products, practices, and perspectives" (p. 2291). Buendía and Macías (2019) describe research as an area of teacher learning for becoming "knowers" and changemakers. What constitutes essential content knowledge depends somewhat on the model of pedagogical knowledge employed.

Pedagogical Knowledge

Pedagogical knowledge involves the ability to identify and apply teaching strategies, methods, and approaches that are appropriate to the learners and the context (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019). This

includes planning and executing learning activities, managing the learning environment, communicating with students, assessing learning, and responding to problems (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Richards, 2010).

There are several approaches to pedagogical knowledge, which Barahona (2016) characterizes as "craft," "applied science," and "reflective" models. The craft model sees expert teachers' practice as the source of pedagogical knowledge, while the applied-science model looks to research-based theories of learning and language acquisition. Both view teacher education as the imparting of a set of techniques. In contrast, the reflective model considers good pedagogy to be situational and to involve unforeseeable possibilities. Teachers-in-formation are themselves the source of pedagogical knowledge, so teacher education should develop capabilities to experience and reflect on teaching (see Barahona, 2016, for further discussion of these models in South America).

Critical ELTE offers yet another approach, based on critical pedagogy (see Cruz Arcila, 2018). Thus, pedagogy should not only be responsive to context but also involve identifying and acting on issues of power and justice. Critical approaches go beyond contextualizing traditionally recognized teaching skills to make them more effective; they question "effectiveness" as the only measure of value and conceptualize a broader set of "knowledges" (Castañeda-Londoño, 2019). Both reflective and critical models emphasize teacher identity and cognition, rather than pedagogical knowledge as an object.

Teacher Identity and Cognition

Attention to teacher identity arises from a broader "sociocultural turn" in ELTE (Johnson, 2016), where teaching and learning to teach are:

> No longer viewed as a matter of simply translating theories of linguistics and/or second language acquisition (SLA) into effective instructional practices but as a dialogic process of co-constructing knowledge that is situated in and emerges out of participation in particular sociocultural practices and contexts. (p. 122)

Barkhuizen (2017) conceptualizes language teacher identities as "cognitive, social, emotional, ideological, and historical" (p. 4). He further clarifies that these identities are "dynamic, multiple, and hybrid" (p. 4). Teacher identities are constructed in relationship to the self, others, and material and immaterial objects, and deeply impact how teachers engage with ELTE and their work (Johnson, 2016). From the sociocultural perspective, "the extent to which teacher education leads to positive changes is believed to be largely determined by the identities teachers bring to courses and how they are reconstructed" (Abednia, 2012, p. 707).

The sociocultural perspective is associated with both the "reflective" and "critical" models mentioned above. Content and pedagogical knowledge remain relevant, but the focus of ELTE shifts from developing knowledge and skills to developing behaviors and beliefs (Singh & Richards, 2006). ELTE programs may aim to "socialise teachers into particular ways of conceptualising themselves as teachers, carrying out their teaching practices and supporting student learning" (Johnson, 2016, p. 127). This socialization occurs through learning the professional discourse and canon ideas of the field, which "enact" teacher identity and group membership (Singh & Richards, 2006, p. 158).

Thinking critically about ELT and co-constructing teaching knowledge are important teacher capabilities in this area, particularly for EFL teachers who have been positioned as "non-native." Those teachers have been marginalized by the dominant ways knowledge has been constructed in the field and "have suffered from a lack of self-confidence and a feeling of illegitimacy" (Llurda, 2016, p. 58). To address that, as well as the limits of uncritical reflection, Kumaravadivelu (2003) emphasizes teachers being "transformative intellectuals" who use their situated expertise to trans-

form society. Examples can be seen in decolonial ELTE in the region (Borelli et al., 2020; Castañeda-Peña & Méndez-Rivera, 2022). I refer to teacher identity *and cognition* to highlight teacher knowledge construction, though knowledge is not only cognitive, nor is it distinct from identities. Readers are encouraged to consult Barkhuizen (2017) and Kumaravadivelu (2003) for more nuanced discussions of these concepts.

Method

I sought for this study to foster dialogue about the valued capabilities that inform teacher educators' everyday practices, specifically their approaches to language use. It employed a convergent mixed-methods design grounded in a pragmatist paradigm, which considers the interplay of constructivist and postpositivist research perspectives to be valuable for practical applications (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Thus, I used complementary quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses to examine links between teacher educators' language use practices and valued teacher capabilities in the case of university-based ELTE in Ecuador (see De Angelis, 2024b, on the overall design). This paper focuses on part of the qualitative component.

Participants and Data

I collected data in 2023 after an ethics review and with participants' informed consent. Focus group participants were a subset of 115 respondents to a survey that drew from 22 of the 24 universities offering ELTE in Ecuador and achieved a 34% response rate (see De Angelis, 2025a, for the survey design and results). All survey respondents who indicated willingness to participate in focus groups were invited. The 37 teacher educators from 18 universities who participated (see Table 1) had a similar breakdown of demographic and teaching circumstance characteristics as the quantitative sample, which is likely representative of ELTE educators in Ecuador.

I conducted nine focus group interviews virtually via Zoom, primarily in Spanish, following a semi-structured guide. Interviews grouped together participants based on the type of language use practices they reported on the survey: English only or primarily English ($n = 16$; Groups 1, 2, 6, 8) and multilingual or primarily Spanish ($n = 16$; Groups 4, 5, 7, 9). The five non-Ecuadorian participants were invited to a separate group ($n = 5$; Group 3). I began with questions about language use practices and then inquired about goals, specifically:

- Does your use of language help you achieve your goals as a teacher educator? If it does help, how?
- Does your use of language impede you from achieving those goals in any way? If it does impede, how?
- What goals are most important to you in teaching English teachers?

Final questions addressed beliefs about language and the purposes of teacher education. I recorded and transcribed the interviews in the original language.

Analysis

I coded the data in NVivo using a combination of inductive and deductive approaches (Saldaña, 2021). I initially coded comments pertaining to teacher educator goals inductively using in vivo codes, then consolidated codes into themes. Themes related to broader visions of ELTE purposes, such as "teacher accountability" and "serving society," are discussed elsewhere (see De Angelis, 2025b). Here, I focus on the themes related to what is sometimes described as a teacher's knowledge base, which I conceptualize as specific teacher capabilities. My analysis of those themes was guided by the questions:

- What specific teacher capabilities do teacher educators refer to when discussing their language use practices and goals?
- What types of teacher capabilities are prominent?
- How do teacher educators characterize the importance of English proficiency relative to other capabilities?

Table 1. Participant Demographic and Teaching Circumstance Characteristics (*n* = 37)

Variable	Number	Percentage
Gender		
Female	22	59%
Male	15	41%
Race or ethnicity		
Mestizo	27	73%
Montubio	5	13%
White	3	8%
Afro-Ecuadorian or Black	1	3%
Other	1	3%
Origin		
Ecuador	32	86%
North America	3	8%
Europe	2	5%
Type of university employer		
Public	32	86%
Private	5	14%
Level of program taught		
Undergraduate only	25	68%
Both undergraduate and graduate	10	27%
Graduate only	2	5%
Type of employment at the university		
Tenure	19	51%
Contract	18	49%
Courses taught (some teach multiple)		
Pedagogical methods	19	51%
Research methods	18	49%
Teaching practicum	15	40%
Linguistics	15	40%
Various other courses	15	40%

I deductively grouped themes by "types" I had identified in the literature (see Appendix A). Because my analysis focused on areas of emphasis, I associated each theme with just one type. However, I considered that individual teacher educators could express multiple themes and value multiple types of capabilities. I re-read each teacher educators' focus group comments and identified which types of teacher capabilities they mentioned and which type(s) they attributed most importance to when asked about their most important goals (see Appendix B). In doing so, I noted where participants explicitly commented on the relative importance of various teacher capabilities.

To enhance the trustworthiness of the findings, I checked for any discrepancies between the survey results and my coding of the focus group data at both group and individual levels and sought clarification from two participants. I also invited feedback from all focus group participants on a draft of the study's qualitative component. Twenty-six participants

acknowledged they had received the draft and nine sent comments. The findings and interpretations presented should, nonetheless, be viewed as arising from my own approach as a researcher. That approach was shaped by my positionality as a North American, White, English-as-a-first-language, multilingual educator working in Ecuadorian ELTE at the time of this study and particularly interested in multilingual approaches.

Findings

The findings relate to the four types of teacher capabilities, which I first present separately, and to how participants characterized their importance relative to English proficiency.

English Proficiency

Given the context of discussing language use, it is unsurprising that developing and demonstrating English proficiency was the most prominent theme related to specific teacher capabilities, and that 20 participants described it among their most important goals. Of interest is how participants expressed that theme, as EFL teachers' English language capability can be understood in various ways. Fourteen teacher educators referred generally to "proficiency" or "knowing English," perhaps implying a commonly understood expected level. Yet, more specific descriptions varied. Sometimes, teacher educators referred to teachers' desired English proficiency as having a certification or meeting standards for a specific CEFR level; others spoke in terms of communication, as in having "an absolute capacity to communicate, to be able to adequately educate their future students" (Edison, Group 2). Participants also referred to the act of using English as a valued capability, related to being an example of language and behavior in classrooms. For instance, Laura (Group 1) stated: "We have to create habits of using English all the time." Such comments focused on developing English proficiency while implying its relevance to pedagogy.

Pedagogical Knowledge

While no single aspect of pedagogical knowledge stood out, the themes in this category, taken together, were nearly as prominent as English proficiency in participants' remarks. References to teacher pedagogical knowledge revolved around three themes: knowing how to teach, knowing how to design instruction, and knowing how to enact instruction. The first of these themes was expressed in general comments, such as noting the importance "that [our students] know how to teach" (Rosa, Group 8). The latter themes involved more specific remarks, such as references to lesson planning, classroom management, and the ability to engage and support students. Some teacher educators saw being able to adapt to varied local realities as a key pedagogical capability. For example, Olga (Group 9) stated that given varied access to technological resources, good pedagogy involved being prepared to teach "in places where we have everything and sometimes in places where we have absolutely nothing and we have to be creative." Teacher capabilities related to pedagogical knowledge were among the most important goals for 15 of 37 participants.

Teacher Identity and Cognition

Taken together, themes in the category of teacher identity and cognition were similarly prominent as themes in the category of pedagogical knowledge. The three themes focus on teacher dispositions: developing dispositions towards the profession, the self, and learners. Developing teachers' dispositions towards the profession was the theme evoked by the highest number of participants, across categories, after English proficiency. Those dispositions included vocation, commitment to continuous learning and reflection, and an interest in professional collaboration. Seven participants used the word "love" (Félix, Gloria, Mercedes, Nancy, Teresa [Group 4]; Jaime [Group 5]; Olga [Group 9]), as in Mercedes's comment that "they should love their

profession and love what they do so they do it in the best way."

Regarding dispositions toward the self, some teacher educators highly valued helping ELTE students construct a professional identity. Ricardo (Group 9) described that process as follows:

> At the beginning the mindset is hard for them, to get out of [the mindset] that they are students…you see that change when eventually they end up taking ownership in the classroom and looking to become teachers, trying to teach…already teaching, already changing their mindset to "I'm a teacher and that what I'm preparing for is to live in this space and to be a person and to help with being a person and not just to transmit content."

Relatedly, participants spoke about ethical and empathetic dispositions towards learners. Six teacher educators referred specifically to the importance of seeing EFL students as "human beings" (Fernando [Group 2]; Mercedes, Teresa [Group 4]; Walter, [Group 8]; Milton, Ricardo, [Group 9]). Fourteen of the 37 participants most valued capabilities related to teacher identity and cognition.

Content Knowledge

While participants considered content knowledge goals beyond English proficiency, these elements were less prominent than pedagogical knowledge or identity and cognition in teacher educators' discussions of their practices and priorities. Setting aside English proficiency in its own category, content knowledge appeared in comments across five themes: linguistics, ELT terminology, culture, research methods, and language acquisition, with linguistics being the most referenced. Just nine teacher educators described aspects of content knowledge other than English proficiency as among the most important goals of ELTE.

Valuing Teacher Capabilities

I identified four ways in which teacher educators characterized the importance of English proficiency relative to other teacher capabilities: *primary*, *integral*, *competing*, or *secondary*. Those who characterized *English as primary* emphasized language proficiency as foremost among their goals for teachers. For instance, Blanca (Group 8) stated that her priorities were "first, that they use the language they are going to teach and, second, that they have classroom management." Franklin (Group 2) initially said what mattered most was "being good professionals," but then immediately pivoted: "though, the most important quality of any English teacher will always be that they know English and that they are fluent in it." Participants who characterized *English as integral* described English proficiency as inseparable from non-linguistic teacher capabilities, sometimes suggesting the former gives rise to the others. Thus, Sonia (Group 8) stressed that "their pedagogical capabilities and their linguistic capabilities . . . go hand in hand, they're exactly the same."

In contrast, those who saw *English as competing* with other capabilities they valued expressed feeling torn between language and content goals. Teacher educators referred to tensions between engaging in deep reflection and fostering a love of the profession, on the one hand, and prioritizing English practice, on the other. Mariana (Group 7) described this as a "battle between two worlds." Teacher educators who characterized *English as secondary* reported similar tensions but expressed clear priorities that placed English after other teacher capabilities. Diana (Group 6) thus explained her focus on developing dispositions towards the profession and self, saying "we're teaching *teachers*, we're not teaching *language*" (original emphasis). This analysis does not suggest that English *should* be, nor that it *is*, more or less important than other capabilities; rather, it illustrates how teacher educators may think about the relative importance of multiple capabilities when considering their language use.

Discussion and Conclusion

With many potentially valuable teacher capabilities for ELTE to address and with limited time and other constraints (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Cajas et al., 2023), teacher educators make instructional decisions based on individual and collective understandings of what matters most. Teacher educators in this study valued teacher capabilities that sometimes echoed dominant discourses in the region, where teachers are expected to acquire predetermined skills in proficiency and pedagogy (Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019). At the same time, themes of teacher identity and cognition were prominent, reflecting the trend towards conceptualizing ELTE as the cultivation of behaviors and beliefs rather than simply knowledge and skills (Singh & Richards, 2006). Both the "applied science" and "reflective" models for pedagogical knowledge (Barahona, 2016) were notably present. These insights are relevant in and beyond Ecuador, as educators and program designers may see more clearly what they value when it is echoed or contradicted here.

While regional policies emphasize general measures of English proficiency—such as the required CEFR B2 level in Ecuador (Cajas et al., 2023)—these teacher educators, as a group, offered a more nuanced picture of what they hoped teachers-in-formation would do with English. If they did consider English proficiency a priority, it was not necessarily seen as a discrete skill, but as a capability that comes before or integrates or competes with other teacher capabilities like dispositions to the profession and knowing how to teach. In fact, specific teacher capabilities were important to educators as one piece of their broader theories of change for ELT (De Angelis, 2025b). How educators understand English proficiency within a set of valued capabilities has implications for the sequence and nature of courses and assessments, for when and to what extent language and content goals are integrated, and for language-of-instruction approaches and policies.

These data show that pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition were also valued—more so than English, for some participants. The interest in dispositions that teachers-in-formation develop towards the profession, themselves, and learners is important given that such outcomes have been less prominent than language and pedagogy in ELTE literature in Ecuador and parts of the region. However, it is unclear to what extent teacher educators valued capabilities emphasized by critical models of ELTE, such as analyzing systems of power and understanding themselves as legitimate producers of pedagogical knowledge (Castañeda-Londoño, 2019). Teachers-in-formation need those capabilities if they are to challenge deficit discourses that position teachers as problems to be fixed and to embrace "creative contextualized practices" (Cruz Arcila, 2018, p. 67) mentioned by a few participants in this study. Without critical perspectives, sociocultural approaches to ELTE risk socializing teachers into dominant ELT models that do not fit their contexts.

Creating opportunities for teachers to be critical and responsive ELT professionals requires contextualized approaches from ELTE practitioners themselves, rather than top-down policy solutions. The focus group conversations in this study offer participants and readers one place to explore such approaches. My choice of a pragmatist research paradigm, my focus on language use practices, and my identities as an insider-outsider to Ecuadorian ELTE doubtlessly shaped our conversations. This study's findings are not generalizable nor contextualized within participants' varied programs and communities. Whether in South America or other global contexts, educators should critically explore how and by whom the desirable outcomes of English language teacher education are defined and valued in everyday practice.

References

Abad, M., Argudo, J., Fajardo-Dack, T., & Cabrera, H. (2019). English proficiency and learner individual differences: A

study of pre-service EFL student-teachers. *MASKANA*, *10*(1), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.18537/mskn.10.01.01

Abad, M., Argudo, J., Fajardo-Dack, T., & Cabrera, P. (2021). An exploration of EFL teaching practices in light of teachers' language proficiency. *ELIA: Estudios de Lingüística Inglesa Aplicada*, *21*, 13–50. https://doi.org/10.12795/elia.2021.i21.02

Abednia, A. (2012). Teachers' professional identity: Contributions of a critical EFL teacher education course in Iran. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*(5), 706–717. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.02.005

Acosta, H., Almeida, E., Barragán Camacho, M. J., Cajamarca Illescas, C. M., Cajas, D., Campuzano Díaz, J. M., Carabajo Romero, Í., Cazco Maldonado, C. D., Cherres Fajardo, S. K., Chicaiza Redín, V. E., Criollo Vargas, M. I., Encalada Trujillo, E. G., García Villao, T., Gibson, S. T., Herrera Caldas, V. A., Iza Pazmiño, S. J., Jordán Buenaño, C. del R., León Abad, E. G., Lizaldes Espinosa, O. V., . . . Yambay de Armijos, K. (2023). *English language education in Ecuador: Assessing opportunities for teaching and learning in a developing nation*. USFQ Press. https://doi.org/10.18272/USFQPRESS.m70

Argudo, J., Abad, M., Fajardo-Dack, T., & Cabrera, P. (2018). Analyzing a pre-service EFL program through the lenses of the CLIL approach at the University of Cuenca-Ecuador. *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning*, *11*(1), 65–86. https://doi.org/10.5294/laclil.2018.11.1.4

Argudo Serrano, J. C., Fajardo-Dack, T. M., Abad Celleri, M. P., & Cabrera-Tenecela, H. P. (2021). Students' perceptions on their EFL teacher efficacy: A study on EFL teachers' language proficiency and their self-efficacy. *MEXTESOL Journal*, *45*(1). https://doi.org/10.61871/mj.v45n1-8

Banegas, D. L., & Martínez Argudo, J. de D. (2019). Professional competency profiles for quality teaching in TESOL: Challenges for teacher educators. In J. de D. Martínez Argudo (Ed.), *Quality in TESOL and teacher education* (pp. 194–202). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429198243-20

Barahona, M. (2016). *English language teacher education in Chile: A cultural historical activity theory perspective*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315689937

Barahona, M., & Darwin, S. (2021). Exploring tensions in integrating core practices into initial EFL teacher education programs in the Chilean context. *Language Teaching Research*, *28*(6), 2276–2299. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211054145

Barkhuizen, G. (Ed.) (2017). *Reflections on language teacher identity research*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315643465

Borelli, J. D. V. P., Silvestre, V. P. V., & Pessoa, R. R. (2020). Towards a decolonial language teacher education. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, *20*(2), 301–324. https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-6398202015468

Buckler, A. (2016). Teachers' professional capabilities and the pursuit of quality in sub-Saharan African education systems: Demonstrating and debating a method of capability selection and analysis. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities*, *17*(2), 161–177. https://doi.org/10.1080/19452829.2014.991706

Buendía, X. P., & Macías, D. F. (2019). The professional development of English language teachers in Colombia: A review of the literature. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *21*(1), 89–102. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.12966

Burgin, X., & Daniel, M. C. (2017). Exploring English language teaching in an Ecuadorian urban secondary institution. *GIST: Education and Learning Research Journal*, (14), 107–134. https://doi.org/10.26817/16925777.364

Cajas, D., Chicaiza, V., & Cherres, K. (2023). ¿Cómo estamos preparando a los futuros profesores de inglés?: Un estudio de las variaciones curriculares entre carreras que preparan profesores de inglés. *Revista Kronos*, *4*(1), 20–30. https://doi.org/10.29166/kronos.v4i1.4237

Calle, A. M., Calle, S., Argudo, J., Moscoso, E., Smith, A., & Cabrera, P. (2012). Los profesores de inglés y su práctica docente: un estudio de caso de los colegios fiscales de la ciudad de Cuenca, Ecuador. *MASKANA*, *3*(2), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.18537/mskn.03.02.01

Calle, M. D., Calle, A. M., Heras, G. E., & León, V. (2019). Percepciones de los profesores de inglés sobre experiencias de capacitación: un estudio de caso. *Pucara: Revista de Humanidades y Educación*, *1*(30), 133–156. https://doi.org/10.18537/puc.30.01.06

Castañeda-Londoño, A. (2019). Revisiting the issue of knowledge in English language teaching, a revision of literature. *GIST: Education and Learning Research Journal*, (18), 220–245. https://doi.org/10.26817/16925777.452

Castañeda-Peña, H., & Méndez-Rivera, P. (2022). Engaging in decolonial 'pedagogizations' at a Colombian doctoral teacher education program in English language teaching. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *27*(3), 804–821. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v27n3a12

Council of Europe. (2020). *CEFR Descriptors*. https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/cefr-descriptors

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). Sage.

Cronquist, K., & Fiszbein, A. (2017). *English language learning in Latin America*. The Dialogue. https://bit.ly/3Tm2aeh

Cruz Arcila, F. (2018). The wisdom of teachers' personal theories: Creative ELT practices from Colombian rural schools. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *20*(2), 65–78. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n2.67142

Dávila, A. (2018). Who teaches the teachers? Analyzing identities of English language teacher educators at English language teaching education programs. In Doctorado Interinstitucional en Educación (Ed.), *ELT local research agendas I* (pp. 223–243). Editorial Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas.

De Angelis, A. (2024a). *Linking language use practices and valued teacher capabilities: A mixed methods study of English-as-a-foreign-language teacher educators* [Doctoral dissertation, SIT Graduate Institute]. Dissertation Collection. https://digitalcollections.sit.edu/dissertations/1

De Angelis, A. (2024b). Professors' English-only or multilingual approaches in English language teacher education at Ecuadorian universities. *Journal of Comparative & International Higher Education*, *15*(5S), 5–14. https://doi.org/10.32674/jcihe.v15i5(S).5861

De Angelis, A. (2025a). Practices, purposes, ideologies: A quantitative study of language use in English language teacher education. *Journal of Global Higher Education*, *1*(1), 128–158. https://doi.org/10.25774/jghe.v1i1.8

De Angelis, A. (2025b). Teacher educators' languaging for more just English language education in Ecuador. *Journal of Comparative & International Higher Education*, *17*(4), 20–35. https://doi.org/10.64899/641533cptxvp

DeJaeghere, J., & Walker, M. (2021). The capabilities approach in comparative and international education: A justice-enhancing framework. In T. D. Jules, R. Shields, & M. A. M. Thomas (Eds.), *The Bloomsbury handbook of theory in comparative and international education* (pp. 459–474). Bloomsbury Academic. https://doi.org/10.5040/9781350078789.ch-027

Díaz Maggioli, G. (2017). Ideologies and discourses in the standards for language teachers in South America: A corpus-based analysis. In L. D. Kamhi-Stein, G. Díaz Maggioli, & L. C. de Oliveira (Eds.), *English language teaching in South America: Policy, preparation, and practices* (pp. 86–127). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.2307/jj.22730618.7

Faez, F., Karas, M., & Uchihara, T. (2021). Connecting language proficiency to teaching ability: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, *25*(5), 754–777. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688819868667

Fajardo-Dack, T. M. (2016). Teacher disempowerment in the education system of Ecuador. *World Journal of Education*, *6*(3), 82–89. https://doi.org/10.5430/wje.v6n3p82

Freeman, D. (2020). Arguing for a knowledge-base in language teacher education, then (1998) and now (2018). *Language Teaching Research*, *24*(1), 5–16. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777534

González Moncada, A. (2021). On the professional development of English teachers in Colombia and the historical interplay with language education policies. *How Journal*, *28*(3), 134–153. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.28.3.679

González Moncada, A., & Llurda, E. (2016). Bilingualism and globalisation in Latin America: Fertile ground for native-speakerism. In F. Copland, S. Garton, & S. Mann (Eds.), *LETs and NESTs: Voices, views and vignettes* (pp. 90–109). British Council.

Granados-Beltrán, C. (2022). Disrupting colonial tensions in initial language teacher education: Criteria based on critical interculturality. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *27*(3), 627–645. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v27n3a03

Heredia-Arboleda, E. E., Torres-Cajas, M. J., Yépez Oviedo, D. R., & Lara-Velarde, A. C. (2021). Qualities of effective EFL teachers in the 21st century: A reflection from Ecuador. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *11*(12), 1526–1533. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1112.03

Johnson, K. E. (2016). Language teacher education. In G. Hall (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 121–134). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315676203-12

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. Yale University Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt1np6r2

Llurda, E. (2016). 'Native speakers', English and ELT. In G. Hall (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 51–63). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315676203-6

Martin, A. (2016). Second language teacher education in the expanding circle: The EFL methodology course in Chile. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *18*(1), 24–42. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n1.9471

Ortega-Auquilla, D. P., & Minchala-Buri, O. E. (2019). Explorando las aulas de clase de inglés en Cañar: currículo, instrucción y aprendizaje. *Ciencia UNEMI*, *12*(30), 57–73. https://doi.org/10.29076/issn.2528-7737vol12iss30.2019pp57-73p

Richards, J. C. (2010). Competence and performance in language teaching. *RELC Journal*, *41*(2), 101–122. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688210372953

Richards, J. C. (2017). Teaching English through English: Proficiency, pedagogy and performance. *RELC Journal*, *48*(1), 7–30. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217690059

Saldaña, J. (2021). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (4th ed.). Sage.

Serrano, M. E., Vizcaíno, C. G., Cazco, D., & Kuhlman, N. A. (2015). Transformation: A model for restructuring the preparation of English teachers in Ecuador. *GIST: Education and Learning Research Journal*, (11), 103–117. https://doi.org/10.26817/16925777.289

Sevy-Biloon, J., Recino, U., & Munoz, C. (2020). Factors affecting English language teaching in public schools in Ecuador. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *19*(3), 276–294. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.19.3.15

Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, *57*(1), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.57.1.j463w79r56455411

Singh, G., & Richards, J. C. (2006). Teaching and learning in the language teacher education course room: A critical sociocultural perspective. *RELC Journal*, *37*(2), 149–175. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206067426

Stanton, S., & Fiszbein, A. (2019). *Work in progress: English teaching and teachers in Latin America*. The Dialogue. https://bit.ly/4kvuRBx

Tao, S. (2016). *Transforming teacher quality in the Global South: Using capabilities and causality to re-examine teacher performance*. Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137495457_2

Tsang, A. (2017). EFL/ESL teachers' general language proficiency and learners' engagement. *RELC Journal*, *48*(1), 99–113. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217690060

About the Author

Adeline De Angelis, Ed.D., is Teaching Faculty in ESL Education at the University of Wisconsin–Madison. She lived and worked in English language teaching and teacher education in Ecuador from 2013 to 2024. She is particularly interested in multilingual pedagogies and the role of local teacher expertise in teacher education.

Appendix A: Categories, Themes, and Sample Codes Describing Teacher Capabilities

Category from literature	Theme	Sample in vivo codes	Participants with theme present (*n* = 37)
English proficiency	Developing & demonstrating English proficiency	"*Dominio*" (Competence) "*Nivel B2*" (B2 Level) "*Comunicarse*" (To communicate) "*Usar el idioma*" (Using the language)	29
Pedagogical knowledge	Knowing how to enact instruction	"*Llegar a sus alumnos*" (Connecting with students) "*Flexibilidad*" (Flexibility)	12
	Knowing how to teach (general)	"Pedagogy" "*Estrategias*" (Strategies) "Approaches"	10
	Knowing how to design instruction	"*Actividades*" (Activities) "*Plan*" "*Recursos*" (Resources)	7
Teacher identity & cognition	Developing dispositions towards the profession	"*Amar su profesión*" (Love the profession) "*Reflexión*" (Reflection) "*Trabajo en equipo*" (teamwork)	21
	Developing dispositions towards self	"*Confianza*" (Trust) "*Ser docente*" (Be a teacher)	9
	Developing dispositions towards learners	"*Seres humanos*" (Human beings) "*Valores*" (Values)	6
Content knowledge	Knowing linguistics	"Linguistics" "Phonetics"	9
	Knowing terminology	"*Terminología*"	6
	Knowing culture	"*Cultura*" "Literature"	4
	Knowing research methods	"*Investigación*" (Research) "*El contenido*" (The content, referring to research courses)	3
	Knowing language acquisition	"Language acquisition" "Theories"	3

Appendix B: Types of Teacher Capabilities Mentioned and Most Valued by Teacher Educators

	English proficiency	Pedagogical knowledge	Teacher identity and cognition	Content knowledge
Participant pseudonyms	Alice	**Alice**	Blanca	**Alexandra**
	Blanca	Blanca	**Daniel**	Alice
	Daniel	**Daniel**	**Diana**	Blanca
	Diana	**Diana**	**Fernando**	**Darwin**
	Edison	Fernando	**Félix**	Diana
	Fernando	Franklin	Franklin	**Fernando**
	Franklin	Gloria	**Gloria**	Franklin
	Gloria	**Jaime**	Jaime	Jaime
	Jaime	Lindsay	**Janet**	**Janet**
	Johanna	Luz	Johanna	**Laura**
	Julia	**Mariana**	**Luz**	**Lindsay**
	Laura	**Mark**	Mariana	Mariana
	Lindsay	**Mayra**	**Mark**	**Mayra**
	Luz	**Mercedes**	Mayra	Nancy
	Mariana	**Miguel**	**Mercedes**	Sonia
	Mario	Nancy	**Milton**	**Verónica**
	Mark	**Olga**	**Nancy**	Walter
	Mayra	Pedro	Olga	**Yolanda**
	Mercedes	Robert	Pedro	Zoila
	Miguel	**Rosa**	**Ricardo**	
	Milton	**Sonia**	Robert	
	Nancy	**Teresa**	**Teresa**	
	Pedro	**Verónica**	Walter	
	Robert	**Walter**	**Zoila**	
	Rosa			
	Sonia			
	Teresa			
	Verónica			
	Walter			

Note. Pseudonyms appear in bold if participants described at least one capability of that type as most important to them.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117864

English Language Teachers' Grit and Pronunciation Teaching Practices in a Time of Crisis

La perseverancia de los profesores de inglés y sus prácticas de enseñanza de la pronunciación en tiempos de crisis

Amanda Baker
University of Wollongong, Wollongong, Australia

Michael Burri
Wenzhou-Kean University, Wenzhou, China

Bianca Mister
CQ University, Brisbane, Australia

Longitudinal research contributes to the understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices, but few such studies have examined teacher development during a time of crisis. This gap is particularly significant in pronunciation pedagogy, where research on teachers' adaptive strategies remains limited. Building on a six-year study, this paper explores the development of second language teachers' practices and cognitions (knowledge, beliefs, perceptions) regarding English pronunciation pedagogy during the COVID-19 pandemic. Findings demonstrate a complete initial cessation of pronunciation instruction, but its later reemergence as a priority once lockdown conditions relaxed. These findings further highlight the dynamic nature of teacher cognition in response to crises, and the need for gritty teachers and an enhanced focus on hybrid learning in second language teacher education programs.

Keywords: COVID-19 pandemic, L2 teacher cognitions, longitudinal research, pronunciation teaching, student wellbeing

La investigación longitudinal ayuda a comprender las creencias y prácticas docentes, pero pocos estudios han examinado el desarrollo del docente en tiempos de crisis. Este artículo, basado en un estudio de seis años, explora cómo evolucionaron las prácticas y las cogniciones de docentes de segunda lengua en la enseñanza de la pronunciación del inglés durante la pandemia de COVID-19. Los hallazgos demuestran una interrupción inicial completa de la instrucción, seguida de su reaparición tras el levantamiento de las restricciones. Se destaca la naturaleza dinámica de la cognición docente ante las crisis, así como la necesidad de contar con docentes resilientes y de integrar el aprendizaje híbrido en los programas de formación de docentes de segundas lenguas.

Palabras clave: pandemia de COVID-19, cogniciones de profesores de L2, investigación longitudinal, enseñanza de la pronunciación, bienestar estudiantil

Amanda Baker https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5806-4419 • Email: abaker@uow.edu.au
Michael Burri https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0115-5349 • Email: mburri@kean.edu
Bianca Mister https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7923-5002 • Email: b.mister@cqu.edu.au

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Baker, A., Burri, M., & Mister, B. (2026). English language teachers' grit and pronunciation teaching practices in a time of crisis. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 123–137. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117864

This article was received on December 3, 2024 and accepted on September 9, 2025.

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic had a profound impact on teachers worldwide, affecting both their practices and cognitions (knowledge, beliefs, perceptions). In response to the unexpected onset of the pandemic in early 2020, many teachers had to rapidly shift from face-to-face teaching to online formats (Meirovitz et al., 2022). This required significant adjustments to their pedagogical knowledge and practices while they learned to teach remotely. Although longitudinal research has contributed substantially to the understanding of teacher learning (Crandall & Christison, 2016), such research conducted during a time of crisis remains scarce (Jandrić et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2024). This gap is particularly important to address given that crisis-induced shifts in teaching practices can have lasting effects on pedagogy (Zhao & Watterston, 2021) and negative impacts on teacher wellbeing (Kim et al., 2024). In second language (L2) English pronunciation, a skill essential for successful oral communication (Goh & Burns, 2012), longitudinal studies on teachers' practices and cognitions during crisis situations appear to be absent. Without this insight, educators and researchers lack the evidence base needed to inform crisis-responsive teaching strategies that ensure critical skill development during a global crisis. Research has shown the importance of improving the crisis management plans of educational institutions (Tan et al., 2025). By addressing this gap, this study provides a deeper understanding of teacher adaptation and practical implications for strengthening pedagogical resilience in future crises.

Considering this gap, and building on earlier stages of this ongoing longitudinal study (e.g., Burri & Baker, 2021; Burri et al., 2017), this paper continues the exploration of the development of four L2 instructors' practices and cognitions about English pronunciation pedagogy, focusing specifically on the impact of COVID-19. The qualitative longitudinal study originally began with an examination of the development of student-teachers' cognitions during a pronunciation pedagogy course taken as part of their postgraduate education in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). The study continued for four more years, tracking the development of the participants' careers and focusing specifically on their cognitions and pedagogical practices concerning the teaching and learning of English pronunciation (see Burri & Baker, 2021; Burri et al., 2017 for more details). This study continues this line of inquiry by examining the teachers' developing practices and cognitions both at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic (Phase 4) and a year and a half later (Phase 5), and further contributes to Burri and Baker's (2021) framework for preparing pronunciation instructors. This study aims to provide insights into what happens to both pronunciation teaching and teachers' cognitions and practices when a global emergency arises in order to better inform future developments of flexible hybrid learning approaches for pronunciation instruction.

Literature Review

Challenges of Emergency Distance Education

In 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic brought unprecedented challenges to educators worldwide, forcing them to adapt to new learning environments created by physical distancing regulations. This resulted in education leaders swiftly shifting face-to-face programs to be delivered fully online; however, poor leadership often exacerbated the challenges of this transition, leaving many educators unsure of how to do their jobs effectively. This uncertainty was closely linked to increased stress and anxiety related to a lack of experience and training in teaching in online environments (Bailey & Lee, 2020; Crawford et al., 2020; Gao & Zhang, 2020; Majed et al., 2024; Panisoara et al., 2020; Shevchenko et al., 2024); minimal access to online learning tools (Majed et al., 2024; Shevchenko et al., 2024); inadequate

time to prepare for online teaching (Majed et al., 2024; Panisoara et al., 2020); shortage of hardware/software (Crawford et al., 2020) or insufficient network conditions (Gao & Zhang, 2020; Karataş & Tuncer, 2020); absence of real-time feedback (Majed et al., 2024; Popa et al., 2020); and, specifically in English as a foreign language contexts, the need to find opportunities for real-time communication (Bailey & Lee, 2020). This supports the findings of Benson et al. (2011) and Jeffrey et al. (2014), who found that educators struggle to shift from traditional classroom instruction to online teaching. In sum, research has consistently shown that, in emergency response contexts, educational institutions have been unable to rapidly adjust existing face-to-face curricula for online delivery.

Benefits of Hybrid Learning

While fully online or remote learning is typically the initial response in emergency situations, educators and students who are already familiar with hybrid learning may be better equipped to navigate and overcome challenges of emergency distance education (EDE) in the long term (Shevchenko et al., 2024). Hybrid teaching is an instructional approach that integrates in-person teaching with online or remote learning, providing flexibility and adaptability in education (Gudoniene et al., 2025). Such teaching approaches are thought to foster learning environments that emphasise student engagement, active participation, critical thinking, problem-solving, and collaboration (Azizah & Aloysius, 2023; Fu & Wang, 2021; Gudoniene et al., 2025).

However, hybrid learning is not without its own challenges, such as adapting to workloads, frequent technical issues, and initial difficulties with telepresence (Capello et al., 2022; Gudoniene et al., 2025), issues similar to those faced by educators in EDE. The successful implementation of hybrid learning relies on the provision of extensive support, including both technical infrastructure and professional learning opportunities, to ensure educators can effectively design and deliver hybrid learning environments (Alhusban, 2022; Capello et al., 2022). This requires not only enhancing teachers' digital competencies but also ensuring access to technological resources and sustained organisational support to facilitate adaptation to virtual and blended instructional formats (Alhusban, 2022). While many educators have become accustomed to online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, some continue to assume that remote students can engage with in-person classes the same way as their on-campus peers. However, Gudoniene et al. (2025) point to multiple recent studies highlighting a growing shift towards more deliberate technology adoption, with institutions and educators developing structured pedagogical models to optimise hybrid learning. This shift is particularly relevant in the context of pronunciation instruction, where technological integration offers new opportunities for interactive and immersive learning experiences.

Hybrid Learning in L2 Pronunciation Teaching

Providing L2 teachers with instruction on pronunciation is essential, especially when teaching pronunciation online. However, according to Murphy (2014), few language teachers acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to teach English pronunciation in their tertiary studies. Research has shown that without pronunciation-related content knowledge and familiarity with appropriate teaching methods, teachers feel less confident and less capable in teaching the different elements of English pronunciation (e.g., Baker, 2014; Couper, 2017; Henderson et al., 2015). Foote et al. (2016) found that pronunciation instruction accounted for only 10% of all language-related instruction. These authors found that pronunciation instruction was not planned as part of the lesson and mostly occurred through corrective feedback in response to individual student errors. Subsequently,

Kochem (2022) recommends that teacher education programs provide opportunities for practical experiences in which student-teachers create and implement a variety of communicative activities. This research indicates a correlation between a teacher's knowledge of pronunciation techniques and the need for instruction in pronunciation pedagogy (Baker, 2014; Murphy, 2014). If teacher education programs do not provide sufficient focus on pronunciation pedagogy, the question lingers as to whether they address how to teach pronunciation in an online L2 teaching context.

Despite this potential problem in L2 teacher education programs, research has demonstrated the positive effects of hybrid learning on pronunciation teaching. Inceoglu (2019), for example, observed that segmental errors of French learners reduced after receiving online pronunciation instruction; whilst Martin (2020) reported significantly improved comprehensibility of German learners who participated in homework-based computer-assisted instruction compared to in-class pronunciation instruction. Furthermore, Meritan (2022) found that using short online videos for explicit pronunciation instruction improved intelligibility and comprehensibility for all participants. However, the effectiveness of formative assessment in hybrid learning in any context depends on technological advancements, such as adaptive learning platforms, as well as organisational support for course redesign and teacher workload management (Gudoniene et al., 2025). Despite the efficacy of online pronunciation instruction in supporting intelligibility and comprehensibility (Lee et al., 2015; Saito & Plonsky, 2019), the abrupt transition to online learning exacerbated existing constraints, pushing pronunciation instruction to a lower priority (Meritan, 2022). Collectively, these studies suggest that while hybrid learning in pronunciation teaching presents some challenges, it also offers opportunities for innovation and the integration of new technologies, necessitating comprehensive instruction and support for educators to navigate challenges effectively. Therefore, research is needed to understand how teachers' practices and cognitions about pronunciation are affected when instruction shifts to an online or remote learning environment during a crisis, such as the COVID-19 pandemic. This will inform the development of flexible hybrid learning approaches for pronunciation teaching as a standard practice, enabling teachers to be better prepared for EDE contexts.

Thus, the present study seeks to explore responses to the following research questions in relation to L2 English teachers in our ongoing longitudinal study:

1. What happens to pronunciation-oriented cognitions and practices held by teachers when a pandemic strikes?
2. What factors impacted teachers the most during the COVID-19 pandemic?
3. What enabled the teachers to persevere (if they did) in their work throughout the pandemic?

Method

Participants

Of the original 15 student-teachers who participated in Phase 1 of the longitudinal study, four participants from the first three phases volunteered for this current study (Phases 4 & 5): Aoi, Georgia, Lucy, and Rio (pseudonyms). This attrition was due to teachers leaving the profession, reduced desire to continue in the study, and/or changing contact details over time. As reported in previous stages of this longitudinal research, these participants were all students in a postgraduate course on pronunciation pedagogy in an Australian university, and we have traced their professional trajectories as practitioners for the past several years.

In Aoi's case, after completing her postgraduate degree, she returned to Japan and took up a position as a junior high school English teacher. She made a concerted effort to incorporate pronunciation instruction into her teaching as much as possible over the

next six years; prior to her postgraduate studies, she rarely did so. Georgia, a highly experienced primary and tertiary school teacher in Australia, had limited experience in pronunciation pedagogy prior to her postgraduate degree. However, over the next few years, she progressed from incorporating her pronunciation knowledge into her English for academic purposes classes to taking on a more administrative role as a student advisor. Nonetheless, she did occasionally teach a pronunciation seminar at the university. Lucy also had experience teaching mainstream classes in both primary and secondary schools in Australia, but had no experience in pronunciation teaching before taking the course. Following the course, she incorporated pronunciation instruction into her classes at a local intensive English centre, teaching mainly adolescent refugees, migrants, and international students. Rio, unlike the other participants, had several years of experience teaching pronunciation to adult learners in Iran prior to taking the course. But, as with the other three participants, he never undertook any formal coursework in pronunciation methodology. Following his postgraduate coursework, he took up a new position at a vocational institution in Australia, initially teaching English across multiple proficiency and age levels, incorporating some pronunciation work. This instruction was limited in its focus on novel approaches learned during his postgraduate degree, but pronunciation nonetheless played a role in his regular classroom teaching. Over several years, Rio began to take on more administrative responsibilities at the institution and consequently taught classes less frequently.

Procedures

This paper focuses on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the professional trajectories of the four participants. What we refer to as "trajectories" represents the participants' cognitions and practices over a particular period. Semi-structured interviews were used to explore the influence of the pandemic because they were the only data collection tool both realistic and permissible to apply during the height of the pandemic. During this period, most educational institutions, including schools, were in lockdown or under significant in-person restrictions, and not only were our participants affected by these lockdowns/restrictions, but our university ethics committee also required empirical research to be conducted remotely. Participants thus participated in two rounds of semi-structured interviews. Phase 4 interviews (P4I) occurred in June–July 2020 (ranging from 44 to 85 minutes), and Phase 5 interviews (P5I) took place approximately 1.5 years later (ranging from 33 to 57 minutes). All interviews were conducted on Zoom and were transcribed verbatim. Examples of interview questions included: "Do you teach pronunciation online? If yes, what does this look like? (P4I)" and "In your last interview, it seemed that pronunciation instruction was not a priority due to all the COVID-related challenges. Has this changed? Why or why not? (P5I)."

All participants provided informed consent to participate, and the analysis of their cognitions and practices in the interview transcript data largely drew on our previous research from earlier stages of the longitudinal study. To answer the first research question, the same procedures used in developing Burri and Baker's (2021, p. 15) "Extended framework for preparing pronunciation instructors" and Baker's (2021, p. 30) "Pronunciation pedagogy model: From awareness to clear and fluent pronunciation" (derived from Baker, 2014) were used in coding and examining the techniques discussed by participants. These included the broad categories of language awareness (T-LA), controlled practice (T-CP), guided practice (T-GP), and free practice (T-FP). An examination of the techniques used by teachers provided insights into teachers' knowledge of pronunciation pedagogy and their beliefs about what techniques or practices are most useful or appropriate, based on their knowledge of their students (Baker, 2014).

To answer the second research question, we again used the "Extended framework for preparing pronunciation teachers" model reported in Burri and Baker (2021) to identify the external factors that inhibited or supported teachers during the COVID pandemic. These factors included: personal-professional factors (F-PP) such as emotions, personal interests, imagination of self and others; teacher preparation factors (F-TP) such as postgraduate course content and professional self-learning activities; language factors (F-L) such as variety of English dialect spoken or accent; and contextual factors (F-C) such as learner needs, curriculum, colleagues, and even parents that teachers encounter as part of their daily teaching activities.

To address the third research question, an inductive, data-driven thematic analysis was initially used. However, this changed during the first author's reading of Duckworth (2016) and her notion of grit, which she previously described as "working strenuously toward challenges, maintaining effort and interest over years despite failure, adversity, and plateaus in progress" (Duckworth et al., 2007, pp. 1087–1088). However, it is important to note that, concurrent with the data analysis for this paper, other researchers worldwide were also making connections to Duckworth's grit theory or an adapted version referred to as second language teacher grit (e.g., Namaziandost et al., 2022; Sudina et al., 2021). Yet most of these studies were quantitative in design, aiming to determine how "gritty" a person is using a scale. The current study differs in that it is qualitative, examining teachers' profiles, or "snapshots," based on interview data, specifically using Duckworth's four psychological assets as the basis for the thematic analysis. According to Duckworth (2016), these four assets tend to grow from one to the next in the following order:

- *Interest*: genuine enjoyment derived from what we do.
- *Practice*: the conscious and consistent effort to improve day by day in our area of interest.
- *Purpose*: the belief that our work is meaningful both to ourselves and to others.
- *Hope*: a constant trait of grit that allows us to persevere in the face of challenges. Although hope is discussed after interest, practice, and purpose, it is not just present in the final stage, but permeates all stages of grit.

Based on these definitions, the initial grit analysis appeared to align with Duckworth's (2016) conceptualisation of "grit," and the four psychological assets that contribute to grit. In the findings section, these are designated as interest (G-I), practice (G-Pra), purpose (G-Pur), and hope (G-H). Examples of each code are provided in the Findings section, as relevant, for each participant's snapshot to better illustrate how they were interpreted within the context of each participant's journey.

As such, relevant data from the interview transcripts were subsequently coded according to these four psychological assets to explore whether grit played some role in the teachers' professional careers during the pandemic. As this was the first time this coding was used in our longitudinal research, the grit coding and subsequent analysis were discussed extensively by the first two authors over several meetings to ensure the reliability of the data analysis.

It is important to note, however, as indicated in the coding for the participants' snapshots below, that the coding for factors impacting the practitioners occasionally overlapped with that of the grit analysis or was difficult to differentiate. For example, in Aoi's snapshot, we relate that Aoi had "a strong drive to support students for whom she was deeply concerned," which is coded as G-Pur; however, in Georgia's snapshot, the statement "she worked hard to provide support to both students and staff" is coded as F-C. We perceived that the difference may be that Aoi explicitly attached her desire to support students to their well-being, whereas Georgia does not specify this relationship. Generally

speaking, a major factor in our identification of any participant's statement as a possible asset of grit is an explicit and long-term connection to personal enjoyment/interest (G-I), a long-term devotion to practice toward self-improvement in relation to this interest (G-Pra), long-term interest that is explicitly connected to the well-being of others (G-Pur), and a belief that no matter what happens to get in the way of those efforts, one will keep going because that work is important to people (G-H).

Findings

As this paper represents a specific period of great global turmoil within a longitudinal study spanning several years, the findings will be presented as "COVID snapshots" to capture each of the four participants' professional trajectories, including their practices, cognitions, and experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic. The codes described in the Procedures section above are embedded in each snapshot to provide greater transparency into the data used to support the findings.

Aoi's Snapshot

The onset of the COVID-19 pandemic marked a significant shift in Aoi's approach to pronunciation teaching. At the beginning of the pandemic, all teaching ceased and, with that, any focus on pronunciation teaching: "We didn't do any teaching things for two months . . . We couldn't interact for two months" (P4I). This was due to limited access to technology (both for students and teachers) and, as technology was virtually non-existent in classrooms at her school, she had limited confidence in using it. She stated: "I realise I'm not so familiar with technology" (P4I), and regarding her students, she commented: "Even though they have a laptop at home . . . their parents use it. Because of the telework, [students' using it] will not work, so it's a bit hard" (P4I). Yet this sentiment was tinged with a keen desire to learn more about how to use technology to better teach her students (G-I). What emerged from this scenario, however, was a strong drive to support students (G-Pur) for whom she was deeply concerned (G-Pur), all while dealing with her own feelings of isolation and depression (F-PP).

Over a year later, and post-COVID lockdowns, pronunciation teaching had re-emerged in Aoi's teaching. She continued to have limited access to technology, but the resumption of face-to-face classroom teaching meant a return to pronunciation teaching. Despite challenges imposed by her school's requirement for everyone to wear masks, she reported using a wide variety of techniques in class, including rap music (T-LA), word/sentence repetition work (T-CP), preparing for presentations (T-GP), and giving presentations (T-FP). She also demonstrated a deep desire to improve herself personally in addition to her professional expertise as a teacher (G-Pra): "Working as a teacher is important" (P5I; G-Pur).

Georgia's Snapshot

With the arrival of COVID-19, all teaching opportunities for Georgia, including her pronunciation seminar—which was a much-needed "teaching outlet" (P4I)—came to an end. The lockdowns marked an excessive increase in administrative workload (F-C) and significant emotional toil (F-PP). During this period, however, she worked hard to support both students and staff (F-C).

Over a year later, Georgia continued to work under ongoing conditions of emotional toil and experienced disappointment in a continued cessation of teaching opportunities, feeling ostracised as a result (F-PP). She said, "I asked [a colleague] to let me know whether there were people there that wanted to practice their pronunciation . . . but I never heard from [them]" (P5I). Opportunities to teach pronunciation were assigned to other colleagues to keep them employed. Nonetheless, Georgia reported still doing her IELTS examination (speaking skill-focused) work outside of her regular

employment, something that she enjoyed and found "very interesting" (P5I; G-I). Additionally, Georgia's gravitation toward supporting others led her to pursue becoming a Lifeline support crisis worker (G-Pur). She commented:

> I don't mind the counselling-type cases, you know, the people who have lost loved ones, etc., and so it made me think about the future and what I'd like to do [and thus] I applied to become a Lifeline crisis support worker. (P5I; G-H)

Georgia hoped that additional opportunities to teach pronunciation would re-emerge in the near future.

Lucy's Snapshot

The arrival of the COVID-19 pandemic had a profound impact on Lucy and her teaching. Teaching pronunciation was non-existent in her teaching context with refugees who can be "18 year olds who can't add single digit numbers, who can't write their name because of their lack of education [and it is] virtually impossible for them to catch up," or who have endured corporal punishment at school in their home countries, or experienced "trauma and domestic violence and so forth at home" (P4I). As she pointed out, "on a scale of all the things that had to happen, [pronunciation] was just the least of my worries. It didn't even factor into my thinking at the time. My number one thought was the wellbeing of the students" (P4I; G-Pur). She expressed a high level of concern for the welfare of her students in the midst of "mad scrambles" (P4I; i.e., educational disorganisation), including the students' inexperience with or non-access to technology (e.g., not owning a computer or wi-fi, aside from having a mobile phone), and personal home-life situations (e.g., trauma experienced as refugees). In the end, any contact needed to be with individual students over the phone. For students with inadequate spoken English, three-way calls were needed, with a bilingual teacher's aide providing support during the call. As the first lockdown progressed, in an effort to best support her students, Lucy began using Instagram to communicate with them and post messages, readings, and mini-lessons (G-Pra). When students returned to the intensive English centre after the first lockdown, Lucy worked hard to set up Google Classroom and Google Docs in preparation for the impending second COVID lockdown (G-Pra).

More than 12 months later, once the lockdowns had ended and everyone returned to face-to-face teaching, pronunciation instruction gradually regained its importance. At this point, Lucy had changed jobs, now working as an EAL/D (English as an additional language/dialect) teacher at a local high school, teaching EAL/D classes that ran parallel to mainstream English classes. Her previous employment had ended due to lockdowns that prevented people from entering Australia, so there were virtually no students left to teach. This new school presented new challenges in the form of an excessive workload (e.g., extra administrative accountability and additional student wellbeing documentation; F-C), but being part of a strong EAL/D support team was welcomed (G-Pur). Initially, teaching online at this new school, pronunciation played no role in teaching:

> To be honest, the students didn't say very much. I knew they were there, but you know, the students turn their cameras off; they turn their microphones off. If I ask a question, they'll answer, and that's about it. There wasn't really a lot of conversation happening; they certainly listened to me, but they didn't do a lot of talking, so pronunciation just didn't come up at all. (P5I)

However, when face-to-face teaching resumed, pronunciation was "rearing its head a little" (P5I). The EAL/D teachers banded together and formed a structured face-to-face conversation group during the students' supervised "free period" (P5I) with other students from another local high school joining in remotely via Zoom. Additionally, one of the Southeast

Asian students worked part-time at a local restaurant and expressed nervousness about her pronunciation difficulties and her need to talk with customers. This became the impetus for a lesson (F-C) focused on final consonant sounds in the language she would need to use with customers in the restaurant. Lucy reported using modelling (T-LA), repetition (T-CP), and highlighting the importance of using final sounds for successful communication (T-LA). Reflecting on this work, Lucy remarked, "It's lovely actually with that group of students, seeing their confidence grow . . . it's really satisfying" (P5I; G-H).

Rio's Snapshot

COVID-19 brought an abrupt end to Rio's limited focus on pronunciation teaching observed a few years earlier. An excessive administrative workload and limited student and staff access to information technology (F-C) prevented him from fulfilling any role or opportunity in teaching pronunciation. Solid support from his institution, as well as COVID lockdowns (T-C), enabled Rio to spend more time with his family, and, as a result, his passion for education seemed to blossom (G-I). He was eager to explore multiple ideas for enhancing learning opportunities for students and teaching staff (G-Pur).

More than a year later, working in an Australian State that experienced the longest COVID lockdown worldwide, Rio continued to experience excessive workloads (F-C) and emotional toil (F-PP) due to the ongoing lockdowns: "How do I cope? I don't really" (P5I). His staff were hesitant to return to face-to-face teaching with the regularity of snap lockdowns and family, friends, and neighbours getting sick from COVID. Nonetheless, Rio continued to persevere, communicate with his staff, and endeavoured to keep them safe and healthy (G-Pur), ultimately reaching the mutual decision to continue online teaching for the remainder of the year. He commented, "I always try to be a positive person; if you just give me the worst thing, I try to find something positive and stick to that, [thinking that] nothing is impossible" (G-H), but at the same time noting his "fatigue" and "tiredness of repeating something for [so] long" (P5I). In the midst of all this, Rio considered pronunciation teaching to be "still invisible" (P5I), although he suspected that for students who were sufficiently advanced to use Zoom technology, teachers may have started correcting their students' pronunciation, but for low levels students using WhatsApp where nothing was "verbal" (P5I), pronunciation instruction would not be possible.

Discussion

The four snapshots show that the COVID-19 pandemic had a sudden and dramatic impact on pronunciation instruction and on the professional trajectories of the four participants. Essentially, all pronunciation instruction and thoughts about pronunciation ceased completely.

Despite being a highly valuable component of spoken communication (Goh & Burns, 2012) and one that had previously been a relatively strong and well-regarded component—albeit to varying degrees—of the four participants' teaching practices (Burri & Baker, 2021; Burri et al., 2017), pronunciation no longer had any perceived relevance during a global crisis. When faced with a global emergency that affected their students' and their own lives, the teaching and learning of the English sound system (e.g., vowels, consonants, stress, intonation, etc.) never entered their minds. In part, however, this was due to limitations with technology (Bao, 2020; Crawford et al., 2020; Gao & Zhang, 2020; Karataş & Tuncer, 2020), and so for most of these teachers, communication with their students was primarily text-based, and there was little to no focus on interactive, oral communication. It was not until lockdowns started to ease and face-to-face teaching resumed that pronunciation teaching began to resurface in the classrooms of some of these practitioners. This finding is important because although research

has indicated that explicit pronunciation teaching continued during the pandemic, this occurred only in courses focused solely on pronunciation (Meritan, 2022) or oral communication (Asmawi & Sun, 2023). But what about the majority of L2 teachers who teach English more generally? We contend that our ongoing longitudinal study provides a better glimpse into the "messier" lives of educators who teach pronunciation within a more holistic educational system. Specifically, it shows a stark contrast between the "norms" in their cognitions and practices under typical teaching conditions and how those cognitions and practices changed dramatically when a global crisis hit.

Findings from this study further support our model "Extended framework for preparing pronunciation instructors" (Burri & Baker, 2021). In relation to this model, among the factors that affected the four practitioners, contextual and personal-professional factors had the strongest impact. Personal professional factors included concern for students/colleagues and personal emotional toil, while contextual factors included learner needs, excessive workloads, and challenges related to instructional technology. Excessive workloads strongly influenced the cases of Lucy, Rio, and Georgia, but not Aoi's. For Aoi, instruction of any kind in the context of the Japanese school system virtually ceased, and thus the workload decreased accordingly. However, for Aoi, as well as Rio and Georgia, the emotional toil stemming from either their concern for their students' well-being, feeling isolated and/or depressed due to the limitations imposed on social interactions with either students, colleagues, or other people in their lives, was notable. Multiple studies have reported on similar concerns (e.g., Orygen, 2020). Aoi and Lucy, in particular, highlighted their concerns for their students resulting from educational disorganisation, students' limited instructional technology skills or lack of access to instructional technology, and/or previous trauma or violence at home. Lucy, Aoi, and Rio also reported on issues related to instructional technology, including their own limitations (Lucy, Aoi) and those of their students (Rio, Aoi). These difficulties made it challenging for everyone to carry on with their studies. Such problems with technology during the COVID-19 pandemic have also been described in other research studies (Bailey & Lee, 2020; Crawford et al., 2020).

As a result of these challenges, what emerged during the data analysis and thus showed in the participants' snapshots was a potential demonstration of grit. The teacher participants' experiences in dealing with the COVID-19 pandemic appeared to reflect elements of Duckworth's (2016) four grit assets. These four assets aligned with themes we identified in the interview data as participants discussed their experiences dealing with the COVID-19 pandemic. Our exploratory grit analysis, however, appears to transcend that of factors related solely to the practitioners' emotions and interests. The global crisis uncovered a genuine desire to help others, which simultaneously aligned with the action the participants took to help people. This was coupled with a hope that their current or future efforts would continue to help others. All participants thus demonstrated a commitment to learning, especially to learning that would benefit others, whether students, colleagues, or society at large.

To borrow Duckworth's (2016) phrasing, all four practitioners were "knocked down" (p. 109) by the COVID-19 pandemic, an event that affected everyone worldwide. However, each of them persevered to support their students and/or colleagues to the best of their abilities, while dealing with their own feelings of isolation and/or depression. This shows remarkable grit in a time of global crisis. As indicated by the data, their perseverance to support their students and/or colleagues implies a sense of hope that they can, through effort and a strong desire to learn new knowledge (e.g., using technology to provide both emotional support and/or content instruction), help students during a time of crisis. This is a powerful revelation during a difficult period in the professional trajectories of these

four practitioners. During a time when there were serious mental health issues in society, leading to teachers suffering from burnout (Daniel & Van Bergen, 2023), intending to quit their jobs (Moser & Wei, 2021) or worse, such as people from all walks of life taking their own lives (Gramenz, 2020; Thompson, 2020), the COVID snapshots of these four participants illustrate tremendous grit. Thus, in light of our "Extended framework for preparing pronunciation instructors" (Burri & Baker, 2021), it is important to acknowledge the potential role teacher grit can play in preparing teachers to teach pronunciation in the long term, especially during times of crisis. More research is needed to determine how best to accomplish this goal.

Conclusion

The findings of this ongoing longitudinal study demonstrate the impact of a global emergency event, such as a pandemic, on teachers' professional trajectories and teaching pronunciation. As outlined in Burri and Baker (2021), "the long-term development of teachers' practices and cognitions about pronunciation is a complex, nonlinear, individual and context-driven process" (p. 13) that is typically influenced by numerous factors. But what this longitudinal study demonstrated in particular was how the participants' cognitions and practices shifted dramatically from viewing pronunciation as a priority during normal teaching times to one of virtually no priority during a time of crisis. In alignment with our "extended framework for preparing pronunciation instructors" (Burri & Baker, 2021), personal-professional factors and contextual factors did, in fact, have a notable impact on the teaching of pronunciation during the pandemic. However, in the case of a global crisis, rather than positively influencing practitioners' development as L2 pronunciation educators, the opposite occurred. The pandemic virtually halted any pronunciation teaching in their respective contexts; it was instead regarded as having little importance when communication with students became largely text-based or teacher-centred. This suggests that, when an emergency event occurs, only what teachers perceive to be the most critical components of language teaching and learning receive attention. In this case, their overriding focus was care for their students and/or colleagues; supporting others was their key concern. Their efforts to best support their students and/or colleagues subsequently appear to reveal elements of grit in their professional lives.

The study's findings further highlight the critical importance of research into teachers' professional lives over an extended period. Although the study involves only four participants, which we acknowledge limits the overall generalisability of the study's findings, these participants nonetheless provide rich data as dedicated educators. In particular, the "snapshots" of these participants demonstrate incredible levels of diversity and extremes in the lives of teachers, particularly during a global crisis, and how, through grit, they strove to persevere during difficult times. It is essential, therefore, that second language teacher programs have a better understanding of such diversity and teacher grit to better equip their student-teachers for EDE in the future. What types of hybrid learning can we develop to better prepare teachers to teach students from such diverse backgrounds and educational contexts? What happens if technology fails and online learning is not possible? Hybrid learning that is adaptable to changing online and offline conditions is key, but more work is needed to determine how best to address this issue. Furthermore, when it comes to pronunciation instruction, this work requires explicit attention to ensure language learners continue to receive the education they need so that they do not fall behind during an emergency. As Levis (2025) reminds:

> [a] troubling and important consequence of inaccurate L2 pronunciation is not being understood or being understood but at a great cost to the listener [and…] struggles with intelligibility and comprehensibility almost guarantee that communication can only go forward with

great trouble, resulting in lack of access to the speaker's goals. (p. 295)

To that end, our study is clearly an important point in today's world: it shows that our world needs "gritty" educators. To ensure that pronunciation teaching continues even during times of global emergencies, the emphasis on and development of such grit would be an enormous asset to second language teacher education programs worldwide. More longitudinal research on teacher cognition, teacher grit, and pronunciation pedagogy is clearly needed to better inform second language teacher education programs.

References

Alhusban, H. A. (2022). A novel synchronous hybrid learning method: Voices from Saudi Arabia. *The Electronic Journal of e-Learning*, *20*(4), 400–418. https://doi.org/10.34190/ejel.20.4.2340

Asmawi, A., & Sun, L. (2023). The effects of online production-oriented approach (POA) on Chinese undergraduates' English speaking competence development during COVID-19 pandemic era. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 14*(2), 416–424. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1402.18

Azizah, N., & Aloysius, S. (2023). The effectiveness of blended learning with problem based learning-group investigation (PBL-GI) model on students' critical thinking and problem-solving ability in senior high school. In N. A. Airyanti, K. R. Pertiwi, H. Sukoco, F. Fauzi, & P. C. Kuswandi (Eds.), *AIP Conference Proceedings* (Vol. 2556). AIP Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0130783

Bailey, D. R., & Lee, A. R. (2020). Learning from experience in the midst of COVID-19: Benefits, challenges, and strategies in online teaching. *Computer Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal*, *21*(2), 178–198.

Baker, A. (2014). Exploring teachers' knowledge of second language pronunciation techniques: Teacher cognitions, observed classroom practices, and student perceptions. *TESOL Quarterly*, *48*(1), 136–163. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.99

Baker, A. (2021). "She'll be right": Development of a coaching model to clear and fluent pronunciation in Australia. *English Australia Journal, 37*(1), 27–39.

Bao, W. (2020). COVID-19 and online teaching in higher education: A case study of Peking University. *Human Behavior and Emerging Technologies*, *2*(2), 113–115. https://doi.org/10.1002/hbe2.191

Benson, V., Anderson, D., & Ooms, A. (2011). Educator's perceptions, attitudes and practices: Blended learning in business and management education. *Research in Learning Technology*, *19*(2), 143–154. https://doi.org/10.3402/rlt.v19i2.10353

Burri, M., & Baker, A. (2021). "I feel… slightly out of touch": A longitudinal study of teachers learning to teach English pronunciation over a six-year period. *Applied Linguistics*, *42*(4), 791–809. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amab009

Burri, M., Baker, A., & Chen, H. (2017). "I feel like having a nervous breakdown": Pre-service and in-service teachers' developing beliefs and knowledge about pronunciation instruction. *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation*, *3*(1), 109–135. https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.3.1.05bur

Capello, S. A., Gyimah-Concepcion, M., & Buckley-Hughes, B. (2022). Using telepresence robots for doctoral education: Student and faculty experiences. *American Journal of Distance Education, 38*(4), 374–388. https://doi.org/10.1080/08923647.2022.2125252

Couper, G. (2017). Teacher cognition of pronunciation teaching: Teachers' concerns and issues. *TESOL Quarterly*, *51*(4), 820–839. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.354

Crandall, J., & Christison, M. (Eds.). (2016). *Teacher education and professional development in TESOL: Global perspectives*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315641263

Crawford, J., Butler-Henderson, K., Rudolph, J., Malkawi, B., Glowatz, M., Burton, R., Magni, P. A., & Lam, S. (2020). COVID-19: 20 countries' higher education intra-period digital pedagogy responses. *Journal of Applied Learning & Teaching*, *3*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.37074/jalt.2020.3.1.7

Daniel, E., & Van Bergen, P. (2023). Teacher burnout during COVID-19: Associations with instructional self-efficacy but not emotion regulation. *Teachers and Teaching, 29*(3), 310–328. https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2023.2179615

Duckworth, A. (2016). *Grit: Why passion and resilience are the secrets to success*. Vermilion.

Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *92*(6), 1087–1101. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.6.1087

Foote, J. A., Trofimovich, P., Collins, L., & Soler Urzúa, F. (2016). Pronunciation teaching practices in communicative second language classes. *The Language Learning Journal*, *44*(2), 181–196. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2013.784345

Fu, H., & Wang, J. (2021). Cultivation of critical thinking skills in college English writing under blended learning model. *Creative Education*, *12*(7), 1485–1493. https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2021.127113

Gao, L. X., & Zhang, L. J. (2020). Teacher learning in difficult times: Examining foreign language teachers' cognitions about online teaching to tide over COVID-19. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.549653

Goh, C. C. M., & Burns, A. (2012). *Teaching speaking: A holistic approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Gramenz, J. (2020, September 11). TikTok, Facebook suicide video can't be stopped by laws, expert warns. *News.com.au*. https://bit.ly/4jQqlNU

Gudoniene, D., Staneviciene, E., Huet, I., Dickel, J., Dieng, D., Degroote, J., Rocio, V., Butkiene, R., & Casanova, D. (2025). Hybrid teaching and learning in higher education: A systematic literature review. *Sustainability*, *17*(2), 756. https://doi.org/10.3390/su17020756

Henderson, A., Curnick, L., Frost, D., Kautzsch, A., Kirkova-Naskova, A., Levey, D., Tergujeff, E., & Waniek-Klimczak, E. (2015). The English pronunciation teaching in Europe survey: Factors inside and outside the classroom. In J. A. Mompean & J. Fouz-González (Eds.), *Investigating English pronunciation: Trends and directions* (pp. 260–291). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137509437_12

Inceoglu, S. (2019). Exploring the effects of instruction on L2 French learner pronunciation, accentedness, comprehensibility, and fluency: An online classroom study. *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation*, *5*(2), 223–246. https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.18004.inc

Jandrić, P., Bozkurt, A., McKee, M., & Hayes, S. (2021). Teaching in the age of Covid-19: A longitudinal study. *Postdigital Science and Education*, *3*(3), 743–770. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42438-021-00252-6

Jeffrey, L. M., Milne, J., Suddaby, G., & Higgins, A. (2014). Blended learning: How teachers balance the blend of online and classroom components. *Journal of Information Technology Education: Research*, *13*, 121–140. https://doi.org/10.28945/1968

Karataş, T. Ö., & Tuncer, H. (2020). Sustaining language skills development of pre-service EFL teachers despite the COVID-19 interruption: A case of emergency distance education. *Sustainability*, *12*(19), 8188. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12198188

Kim, L. E., Bowling, A., & Asbury, K. (2024). 'I had forgotten what it was like to feel like you're doing a good job': A longitudinal thematic analysis of teachers' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *54*(2), 199–220. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764X.2024.2336138

Kochem, T. (2022). Exploring the connection between teacher training and teacher cognitions related to L2 pronunciation instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, *56*(4), 1136–1162. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3095

Lee, J., Jang, J., & Plonsky, L. (2015). The effectiveness of second language pronunciation instruction: A meta-analysis. *Applied Linguistics*, *36*(3), 345–366. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu040

Levis, J. M. (2025). Key issues in L2 pronunciation research: A look back at 10 years of JSLP. *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation*, *10*(3), 293–308. https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.25009.lev

Majed, N., Ara, A., & Chowdhury, S. R. (2024). Meeting the challenges of online education during Covid-19 pandemic: Implications for blended learning. *Shanlax International Journal of Education*, *12*(2), 20–31. https://doi.org/10.34293/education.v12i2.6837

Martin, I. A. (2020). Pronunciation can be acquired outside the classroom: Design and assessment of homework-based training. *The Modern Language Journal*, *104*(2), 457–479. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12638

Meirovitz, T., Russak, S., & Zur, A. (2022). English as a foreign language teachers' perceptions regarding their pedagogical-technological knowledge and its implementation in distance learning during COVID-19. *Heliyon*, *8*(4), e09175. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e09175

Meritan, C. (2022). Integrating online pronunciation instruction: The case of learners of French. *Foreign Language Annals*, *55*(3), 877–893. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12646

Moser, K., & Wei, T. (2021). COVID-19 and the pre-existing language teacher supply crisis. *Language Teaching Research*, *28*(5), 1940–1975. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211040297

Murphy, J. (2014). Teacher training programs provide adequate preparation in how to teach pronunciation. In L. Grant (Ed.), *Pronunciation myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching* (pp. 188–234). The University of Michigan Press.

Namaziandost, E., Heydarnejad, T., & Saeedian, A. (2022). Language teacher professional identity: The mediator role of L2 grit, critical thinking, resilience, and self-efficacy beliefs. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies*, *14*(2), 107–130. https://doi.org/10.22111/ijals.2022.7486

Orygen. (2020). *International students and their mental health and physical safety*. https://bit.ly/4iKGByl

Panisoara, I. O., Lazar, I., Panisoara, G., Chirca, R., & Ursu, A. S. (2020). Motivation and continuance intention towards online instruction among teachers during the COVID-19 pandemic: The mediating effect of burnout and technostress. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(21), 8002. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17218002

Popa, D., Repanovici, A., Lupu, D., Norel, M., & Coman, C. (2020). Using mixed methods to understand teaching and learning in COVID 19 times. *Sustainability*, *12*(20), 8726. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12208726

Saito, K., & Plonsky, L. (2019). Effects of second language pronunciation teaching revisited: A proposed measurement framework and meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *69*(3), 652–708. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12345

Shevchenko, V., Malysh, N., & Tkachuk-Miroshnychenko, O. (2024). Distance learning in Ukraine in COVID-19 emergency. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, *39*(1), 4–19. https://doi.org/10.1080/02680513.2021.1967115

Sudina, E., Vernon, T., Foster, H., Del Villano, H., Hernandez, S., Beck, D., & Plonsky, L. (2021). Development and initial validation of the L2-teacher grit scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, *55*(1), 156–184. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.581

Tan, C. Y., Jang, S. T., Lam, S. M., An, A. Q., & Lo, U. K. V. (2025). Teaching and learning challenges due to the COVID-19 pandemic: A systematic review. *Educational Research Review*, *47*, 100667. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2025.100667

Thompson, A. (2020, August 12). *Silence and other suggestions, for a Kiama community grappling with suicide. Illawarra Mercury.* https://bit.ly/3EI1XyH

Zhao, Y., & Watterston, J. (2021). The changes we need: Education post COVID-19. *Journal of Educational Change*, *22*(1), 3–12. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-021-09417-3

About the Authors

Amanda Baker (PhD in Applied Linguistics, Georgia State University) is an Associate Professor in TESOL at the University of Wollongong. Her research interests are the dynamic relationships among L2 teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and practices, especially in L2 pronunciation, speaking, and listening pedagogies.

Roles: conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Michael Burri (PhD, University of Wollongong) is an Associate Professor in TESOL in the College of Education at Wenzhou-Kean University (China), and an Honorary Fellow at the University of Wollongong. His research interests include pronunciation instruction, teacher education and professional learning, Mind Brain Education, and the ethical use of GenAI.

Roles: conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Bianca Mister (PhD, University of Wollongong) is an Associate Lecturer in the School of Access Education at CQUniversity. She has taught and conducted research in Australia, Vietnam, and Argentina. Her research interests include vocabulary development, academic literacy, and the use of GenAI in tertiary education.

Roles: interpretation of data and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117274

Effects of Cooperative Learning on the Enhancement of Listening Comprehension in EFL

Efectos del aprendizaje cooperativo en el desarrollo de habilidades auditivas en inglés como lengua extranjera

Erika De la Barra
Sylvia Veloso
Universidad de Santiago, Santiago, Chile

This paper reports a quasi-experimental, action-research study on the use of cooperative learning to enhance listening comprehension skills in English at an English teacher education program in Chile. The study aimed to improve fourth-year students' advanced listening competencies by incorporating a series of cooperative listening activities over one semester. Data were gathered through a pre-test at the beginning and a post-test at the end of the intervention. The action-research component guided the design, implementation, and reflection on the cooperative strategies used. Results showed that students in the experimental group strengthened their listening skills compared to their pre-test performance and outperformed students in the control group. The findings suggest that cooperative learning can effectively improve advanced learners' listening skills.

Keywords: cooperative learning, EFL teacher education, English level, listening comprehension

Este artículo presenta un estudio cuasiexperimental y de investigación-acción sobre el aprendizaje cooperativo para mejorar la comprensión auditiva en inglés en un programa de formación de profesores de inglés en Chile. El estudio buscó fortalecer las competencias auditivas avanzadas de los estudiantes mediante la incorporación de actividades cooperativas durante un semestre. Los datos se recogieron mediante una prueba diagnóstica al inicio y otra al término de la intervención. El componente de investigación-acción orientó el diseño, la implementación y la reflexión sobre las estrategias cooperativas empleadas. Los resultados evidenciaron que los estudiantes del grupo experimental mejoraron sus habilidades auditivas y superaron al grupo de control. Los hallazgos sugieren que el aprendizaje cooperativo mejora la comprensión auditiva en estudiantes avanzados.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje cooperativo, comprensión auditiva, formación de docentes de inglés, nivel de inglés

Erika De la Barra https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2209-7275 • Email: erika.delabarra@usach.cl
Sylvia Veloso https://orcid.org/0009-0008-2287-0943 • Email: sylvia.veloso@usach.cl

The study reported here was sponsored by Universidad de Santiago, Project PID 003-2024.

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): De la Barra, E., & Veloso, S. (2026). Effects of cooperative learning on the enhancement of listening comprehension in EFL. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 139–153. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.117274

This article was received on October 29, 2024 and accepted on October 13, 2025.

Introduction

Cooperative learning is a transformative teaching strategy that has become a pedagogical tool to enhance student engagement. Research shows an explicit connection between cooperative learning and higher classroom participation and motivation, key markers of student engagement (Han, 2015; Kirbas, 2017; Tang, 2022; Wright, 2021). Cooperative learning falls into the category of social learning strategies that emphasize collaboration when content material makes student engagement necessary. At the heart of cooperative learning lies the fundamental belief that each person is essential and contributes to the learning process of the rest of the classmates (Gökçe Erbil, 2020).

Studies in foreign language learning from the 1980s onwards have shown that cooperation is highly beneficial when learning languages (André et al., 2013; Carbone & De la Barra, 2024; De la Barra & Carbone, 2020; Gillies, 2016; Sharan, 2010; Slavin, 1985; Zhang, 2018), especially in the development of productive skills such as speaking and writing. Nonetheless, some recent studies have suggested that cooperative learning may positively impact receptive skills, such as listening comprehension, by improving motivation and achievement (Tang, 2022; Wright, 2021).

The present study aims to investigate whether cooperative learning can improve listening comprehension skills among fourth-year English Pedagogy students at a Chilean public university enrolled in their advanced English language course, *Communicative Competence I*. The interest in researching this aspect stems from the results of 3rd- and 5th-year English Pedagogy students on the Aptis test in 2022 and 2023. This test—developed by the British Council (https://www.britishcouncil.org/exam/aptis)—has shown that listening comprehension is the least developed skill among English pedagogy students. The results of the Aptis test in 2023 revealed that only 64% of the third-year students and 63% of the fifth-year students reached the C1 level in the listening section.

This study addresses the following research question: Can cooperative learning enhance listening skills in 4th-year university students in an English teacher education program at a public university in Santiago, Chile?

The main objectives of the study were:

- To analyze the impact of cooperative learning activities on the development of listening skills in fourth-year university students.
- To explore how cooperative learning dynamics contributed to students' improvement in listening comprehension.

Theoretical Framework

Cooperative learning is a pedagogical approach that emphasizes student collaboration and teamwork to achieve shared learning goals. A critical theoretical foundation for cooperative learning is social interdependence theory, which clearly distinguishes cooperative from competitive and individualistic learning (Johnson et al., 2014). According to social interdependence theory, how individuals' goals are structured results in different interaction patterns that predict their effort outcomes. Johnson and Johnson (1989) developed this theory to show that cooperative goals, where success depends on the group's collective effort, lead to more effective interactions and more robust achievements than individualistic goals.

Johnson and Johnson (1989) also provided a prominent structure for cooperative classrooms, highlighting that cooperation is based on specific principles: positive interdependence, individual accountability, face-to-face promotive interaction, social skills development, and group processing. Although these principles are well known, it is worth describing them since they are vital to this research.

According to Johnson and Johnson (1989), "positive interdependence is the perception that one is linked with others in a way so that one cannot succeed unless they do (and vice versa) and/or that their

work benefits one and one's work benefits them" (p. 24). In other words, students achieve a certain degree of awareness that, to reach a goal, they depend on the success of others, and they must rely on each other to make progress. They hold that there are different types of positive interdependence, such as (a) goal interdependence—which occurs when the group works towards the same role— (b) task interdependence, when each member is responsible for completing a specific task contributing to the final group product; (c) resource interdependence, where group members combine or share resources (e.g., information, materials) to complete the task; and (d) role interdependence, which occurs when each member has a specific part to play for the group to succeed.

Individual accountability means that each student is responsible for their contributions to the group's work. This principle ensures that social loafing—where one or more members contribute less to the group's work—is minimized. This can be achieved by giving individual quizzes or assessments based on group work, randomly assigning one student to explain the group work, and assigning each student a specific part.

Face-to-face promotive interaction occurs when group members encourage and facilitate the group's success by offering help, feedback, or guidance. For promotive interaction, students must work closely, discuss ideas, explain concepts, and so on.

Social skills development occurs when students practice interpersonal and small-group skills, including communication, leadership, trust-building, decision-making, and conflict resolution. Finally, group processing takes place when the group reflects on its performance, identifying what worked well and what can be improved. While group processing occurs, students discuss how well their group functions, which behaviors helped, and what they can do to improve their performance later.

As previously stated, Johnson and Johnson (1989) pioneered research on cooperative learning, and although their first contributions date back to the 90s, they have continued to publish on the topic. Their most recent study confirmed that cooperative learning improves academic achievement because group commitment helps students become aware of their learning. It also seems that students develop more profound cognitive skills, helping them improve their critical thinking, peer relationships, and emotional well-being (Johnson & Johnson, 2019).

Connection With Vygotsky's Constructivist Theory

An essential theoretical underpinning of cooperative learning is Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of cognitive development. He pointed out that "learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers" (p. 90). From his perspective, learning is a socially mediated process, and cognitive functions are developed through social interactions within a cultural context.

One of the central concepts in Vygotsky's theory is the zone of proximal development (ZPD), defined as the distance between what learners can achieve independently and what they can achieve with guidance and support from a more knowledgeable other. In a cooperative learning group, peers become "more knowledgeable others" for one another, helping everyone accomplish tasks they could not complete on their own. Cooperative learning structures are in line with Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD. In a cooperative environment, students work together to solve the same problem and construct shared knowledge, working within their ZPD.

Learners internalize new concepts and strategies through dialogue and interaction, leading to cognitive development. By operating in cooperative groups, the scaffolding process—whereby the amount of support decreases as learners acquire expertise—is easily

provided as peers adjust their assistance to meet each other's needs.

Moreover, Vygotsky emphasized the importance of language as a tool for thought. In cooperative learning settings, language is how students negotiate meaning, ask questions, and explain their reasoning. This talk-based discourse strengthens language abilities and stimulates cognitive development, which may not be as evident during nonverbal activities. When students can verbalize their ideas and listen to the views of others, they build on their insights and co-construct knowledge (Mercer, 2000).

The social constructivist principles underpinning Vygotsky's theory suggest that learning is a social endeavor and that knowledge is built through interactions. In addition, cooperative learning leads to an active student-centered classroom environment where learners share and build their knowledge. Collaboration produces a richer, more situated understanding of any given material.

Integration With Existing Theories

While Johnson and Johnson (1989) laid the groundwork for cooperative learning theory, Kagan (1994) developed a structural approach, emphasizing that its application is required to facilitate interaction. These structures are designed to be simple and to be used repeatedly in class to help students internalize cooperative strategies. For him, cooperative learning is beneficial because it allows every student to participate (including the shy ones, who might not feel confident enough to participate in a more traditional setting). In this way, equality is promoted within the learning environment.

Building on Kagan's emphasis on classroom structures, Cohen (1994) introduced the sociological perspective, that is, how social structures within the classroom impact learning outcomes. Whereas Kagan focused on interactional structures to promote equality, Cohen's work delved into how cooperative learning could address social inequalities by designing open-ended tasks that require diverse talents and skills, ensuring that all students, regardless of background, can participate and contribute.

While Cohen's work focuses on the social dynamics of cooperative learning, addressing mainly equity issues, Slavin (1985) defines the concept in terms of achievement. The STAD (student teams-achievement divisions) method, which Slavin developed, combined the principles of cooperative learning with structured assessment, offering a model that highlighted group collaboration and individual accountability.

Although cooperative learning became popular in the 1990s, research continues to develop, refining the foundational theories. For instance, Gillies (2016) built on the research produced by Johnson and Johnson, focusing mainly on the effects of cooperative learning on critical thinking, and Van Ryzin and Roseth (2021) explored its significance on the development of socio-emotional skills among students, showing that cooperative learning is still relevant and can make contributions to the field of education. On the other hand, Gillies and Ashman (2003) found interesting connections between cooperative learning and positive learning outcomes for students with disabilities. All in all, the implications of cooperative learning to date have proven relevant and transversal.

Cooperative Learning in EFL Contexts

Several studies have determined how efficient cooperative learning is in English as a foreign language (EFL). Studies such as Pérez-Cañar and Troya-Sánchez's (2023) have identified the effectiveness of cooperative learning in developing writing skills in a public high school in Ecuador. Liao (2006) demonstrated that cooperative learning techniques improved students' motivation and grammar. McCafferty et al. (2006) proved that cooperative learning strategies foster social and cognitive development, in addition

to improving linguistic skills. Zhao and Jacobs (2005) showed that cooperative learning strategies help students improve their reading skills by discussing texts more profoundly and clarifying questions. Bilen and Mügue Tavil (2015) also proved the positive effect of cooperative learning on fourth-year students' reading comprehension and vocabulary development. De la Barra and Carbone (2020) implemented cooperative learning strategies in two vulnerable schools, demonstrating that the method helped students develop their linguistic skills much better than a traditional approach. Carbone and De la Barra (2024) also found that teachers regarded the experience of implementing cooperative learning as valuable and fulfilling, and it helped them realize how important their role as agents of change was. "Nonetheless, the results also suggest that teachers face important challenges when introducing cooperative learning at schools, which are related to the school communities' culture and what is expected from teachers" (p. 391). These results confirmed what Nguyen et al. (2021) found regarding the perceptions of teachers who had implemented cooperative learning, which were, in general, positive. Regarding the negative aspects perceived by teachers, they mentioned big class size, noise, and the fear of losing classroom control.

Complementing what was mentioned above, Meena (2020) revealed that students who engage in cooperative learning strengthen their oral skills compared to those who use more traditional methods. Wu and Tao (2022) suggest that motivation increases when students begin working in a cooperative way and that cooperative learning has a positive effect on both achievers' and underachievers' motivation, even after only one week of exposure. Similarly, cooperative learning has been found to develop listening skills. Han (2015) demonstrated that students in the experimental group showed significant improvement in their listening skills, and most students agreed that this method was effective, which helped them actively participate in class. On the other hand, Kirbas (2017) also proved that cooperative learning skills fostered various listening comprehension skills (e.g., deriving meaning from context, identifying subjects, determining main ideas, and summarizing information) compared to the control groups. Furthermore, Remache Carrillo et al. (2019) found that students who participate in cooperative learning activities improve their reading skills. Cooperation helped the group increase comprehension and resolve doubts together, enabling them to process information in English more effectively.

Consequently, cooperative learning has been found to be a highly effective approach to learning, deeply rooted in both social interdependence theory and Vygotsky's constructivist theory. When used in an EFL context, it helps students develop productive and receptive skills, such as reading and listening, by leveraging social interaction and collaborative problem-solving.

Method

We combined a quasi-experimental design and action research to carry out this study, which took place in the first semester of 2024. According to Creswell (2014), quasi-experimental designs are appropriate when random assignment is not possible. This allows researchers to study the effects of an intervention in realistic settings. In contrast to classical experimental methods, quasi-experimental designs do not randomly assign participants to control or experimental groups. Instead, groups are formed based on existing conditions (Creswell, 2014; Hernández Sampieri et al., 2023). In this study, there were two sections of the same course. One served as the control group, while the other was the experimental group where the action-research approach was used.

Although quasi-experimental designs may pose particular problems in terms of internal validity due to lack of randomization, according to Creswell (2014), they have numerous advantages in education settings

where random assignment cannot be practically or ethically conducted, as shown in the following section.

In order to mitigate potential threats to internal validity, some measures were implemented. Both groups were comparable in academic level, course objectives, and demographic composition, which secured initial equivalence between the control and experimental groups. Consistent instruction was maintained across both groups, as the same syllabus, coursebook, and testing material were used. This minimized possible differences unrelated to the intervention. Additionally, both teachers ensured their planning and content aligned, with the only difference being the use of cooperative learning strategies in the experimental group. Finally, the pre- and post-tests were identical for both groups and based on standardized Cambridge English tests.

Rationale for Using a Quasi-Experimental Design

There are three essential reasons that justify the application of the quasi-experimental design in this study: first, its accurate world applicability. In most educational contexts, randomization may disrupt the learning process (Creswell, 2014). Usually, teachers start their academic year without knowing who their students will be. Therefore, conducting research with the group assigned by the academic coordination is easier. Secondly, it is logically feasible; in other words, working with the assigned classes dispenses scheduling difficulties, classroom allocation, and administrative approval. Teachers can conduct interventions as part of their regular teaching assignments, thereby preserving the university's dynamics. Third, there is an ethical issue, as random assignment may be questionable, especially when one method is perceived as superior (Creswell, 2014). Finally, working with existing groups makes it easier for participants to engage in the study without additional commitments or disruptions. In this study, we worked with naturally divided sections, making the process cost-effective and less intrusive.

As mentioned earlier, the experimental group was the section in which the cooperative learning activities were implemented. This intervention was part of the action-research stage of the study. Teacher A, who was in charge of the course section, implemented the activities, planned the intervention, and recorded the data for later analysis. The main goal, as stated in the objectives of this article, was to bring about practical change, improve the groups' listening skills, and reflect on the results later. The control group—where cooperative learning was not employed but the same learning objectives and material were followed—was taught by Teacher B.

Rationale for Using Action-Research Design

Action research is a participatory, collaborative methodology that creates the conditions for solving specific problems in education. As it ensures inclusive participation and considers multiple perspectives, all members of the educational community benefit. Besides, in the world of education, teachers are usually faced with very specific problems that require solving. Action research ensures that findings are directly applicable in the classroom, so the positive effects are also perceived by students.

While action research promotes cooperation among participants, it also supports professional development by empowering teachers through the planning, acting, observing, and reflecting cycle, leading to meaningful, contextually relevant outcomes.

Combining quasi-experimental and action research designs allows researchers to implement rigorous interventions that provide answers to specific problems in a class. This also allows for further planning and intervention to deepen the findings and generate positive change in real-world settings.

Study Design

In this study, we used a pre-test/post-test control group design. This involves measuring the dependent variable—listening comprehension skills—before and after the intervention in both the experimental and control groups (Creswell, 2014; Hernández Sampieri et al., 2023). The pre-test establishes a baseline for each group, while the post-test measures the effect of the intervention.

This design allows for comparing changes over time and assessing the intervention's impact. Despite potential threats to internal validity, such as selection bias and maturation, steps were taken to mitigate these issues:

- Initial equivalence: Both groups were equivalent in terms of academic level (fourth-year university students enrolled in an advanced English course) and demographic characteristics (age range, gender distribution).
- Consistent instruction: In addition to the cooperative learning intervention in the experimental group, both groups received identical curriculum content, instructional time, and assessments, ensuring that any differences in outcomes could be attributed to the intervention.

Participants

The study included 27 senior students (age range: 23–24) from an English teaching education program at a public university in Santiago, Chile. They were taking the course *Communicative Competence I*, designed to align with the objectives of the advanced level according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The control group consisted of 13 students (3 men and 10 women), while the experimental group, taught by Teacher A, consisted of 14 students (2 men and 12 women). In listening classes, cooperative learning activities were conducted for 80 minutes per week in the experimental group, whereas in the control group, a traditional, more individualistic approach was adopted. The cooperative learning class was further organized into four subgroups that remained the same throughout the semester. These subgroups were formed with consideration of students' affinities and interests. In each group, some students had more skills, while others had more difficulty with listening. Table 1 shows the composition of the subgroups within the experimental group. Participants were given pseudonyms to protect their identities.

Table 1. Composition of the Quasi-Experimental Group

Group	Members
1	Pamela, Frances, Mary, and Olympia
2	Fanny, Alexandra, Olivia, and Julian
3	George, Paulette, and Samsa
4	Susy, Moxy, and Sandra

Data Collection

For both groups, Test 1 from the *Cambridge English Advanced Practice Tests* (Harrison, 2014) was used as the pre-test, and Test 4 as the post-test. The pre-test was administered in March 2024, and the post-test in July 2024.

The listening section of the Cambridge tests contains four parts and lasts about 40 minutes. In the first part, candidates listen to three short conversations and answer multiple-choice questions. In Part 2, students listen to a monologue or a dialogue and complete sentences based on the information they hear. In Part 3, students listen to a longer conversation and answer multiple-choice questions. Finally, in Part 4, candidates listen to five short monologues and match each speaker to the statements provided.

Research Procedures

The experimental group implemented 10 cooperative learning activities throughout the semester. Students sat in their groups, paying attention to aspects of the recording played by the teacher. Each student had a different role. After the recording was played once, they discussed in their groups, sharing the specific aspects

they had paid attention to. These cooperative learning activities stressed face-to-face interaction, interpersonal and group skills, positive interdependence, and individual accountability. The students addressed all the listening tasks from their textbook, *Gold Advanced* (Burgess & Thomas, 2014). After the cooperative learning activity finished, the teacher played the recording again, and this time, students were asked to work individually on the task. After that, the activities were checked.

Table 2 summarizes some activities carried out during the intervention. Although all five of Johnson et al.'s (1994) principles were present in the activities, some were more evident than others.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data, a statistical approach was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test in both the experimental and control groups. Data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel 365 with an AI-assisted tool that employed the paired-samples *t*-test to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between two sets of observations. In a *t*-test, each subject is measured twice, at the beginning and at the end of an intervention. The analysis of the difference in results verifies whether the intervention was significant.

Ethics

Students were informed about the study's aims and the implications of participation through a consent form. All participants agreed to and signed the consent forms before the intervention began. The information regarding their personal and institutional information was assured to remain anonymous.

Results

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis conducted to evaluate the impact of cooperative learning on students' listening comprehension. The findings are organized in three parts. First, the performance of the control group is analyzed, comparing students' pre-test and post-test scores to determine whether any improvement occurred without intervention. Second, the results of the experimental group are examined to assess the effects of the cooperative learning intervention. Finally, a comparison between the two groups is made using Cohen's *d* to assess the effect size and determine the practical significance of the intervention.

Control Group

Table 3 shows the students' pre-test and post-test results in the control group. Each student has been identified with a number.

By running the *t*-test for paired samples, the mean score indicates a significant improvement in the students' post-test results. Besides, the one-tailed *p*-value is 0.0016, and the two-tailed *p*-value is 0.0032. Both *p*-values are well below the common significance level of 0.05, which indicates that the improvement is statistically significant.

Experimental Group

Table 4 shows the students' results from the pre-test and the post-test, and the difference in scores between them.

By running the paired *t*-test for paired variables, it can be inferred that the mean score increased substantially from 71.29 (pre-test) to 86.36 (post-test), indicating a significant improvement in these variables.

The one-tailed *p*-value is 0.0000204, and the two-tailed *p*-value is 0.0000409. Both *p*-values are extremely small, far below the common significance level of 0.05, indicating that the improvement is statistically significant.

The statistical analysis strongly suggests a significant improvement in students' scores from the pre-test to the post-test. The very small *p*-value confirms that the improvement is not due to random chance but likely due to the intervention and the cooperative learning activities applied between the two tests.

Table 2. Sample of Cooperative Learning Activities

Activity	Date	Description	Most visible cooperative principle
Listen to a woman talking about moving to a remote village	April 8	Students listen to the same audio, but each member of the group listens to something specific, and then they share this information with the group. This is a think-pair-share type of activity.	Positive interdependence (task interdependence) and individual accountability Social skills development (communication skills)
Listen to a podcast about a way to improve contact between neighbors	April 22	The audio is split into four parts. Each student has a specific task, such as answering listening comprehension questions, paying attention to grammar structures, and explaining vocabulary expressions. This is a jigsaw-type activity.	Face-to-face interaction Positive interdependence (role interdependence) Social skills development (trust-building skills)
Listen to four students giving their opinions	May 6	Students listen to four students giving their opinions about the importance of communication. This is a think-pair-share sort of activity, as each participant listens to one piece of the recording and then shares their thoughts and ideas with their group.	Positive interdependence (resource interdependence) Individual accountability (assigning each student a specific part of the task)
Listen to three different extracts and answer questions	May 20	The students listen to three different extracts, but each student in the group has different guiding questions for listening comprehension. This is a jigsaw-type activity.	Social skills development (leadership skills) Individual accountability (each student is given a specific task)
Listen to an interview with Angus Johnson	June 5	The interview is divided into sections (introduction, middle, and conclusion). Each student in the group focuses on one specific topic: Angus Johnson's background, his challenges, and advice. This is a jigsaw activity.	Positive interdependence (goal interdependence)
Listen to the problems with perfectionism	June 19	Students listen to the audio as a class. After listening, the teacher provides a few guiding questions for students to reflect individually (e.g., the effects of perfectionism, the impact of perfectionism on mental health, coping solutions) Then students get together in their cooperative groups and discuss based on the notes taken. This is a think-pair-share sort of activity.	Face-to-face promotive interaction Social skills development (students negotiate and come to a consensus)
Listen to a scientist called Jim Weller talk about robots he has created and how they function like termites	July 10	Within their cooperative groups, each student takes notes on specific elements of the recording, and then they come together to provide constructive feedback on each other's notes. This is a think-pair-share sort of activity.	Positive interdependence Individual accountability (having each student explain what he/she learned) Face-to-face promotive interaction (students provide feedback on each other's note-taking)

Table 3. Control Group Results

Student	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	64	77	13
2	60	70	10
3	82	93	11
4	86	80	-6
5	43	73	30
6	71	93	22
7	89	90	1
8	25	57	32
9	64	80	16
10	92	97	5
11	85	83	-2
12	53	57	4
13	53	80	27
Mean	**66.69**	**79.23**	

Table 4. Experimental Group Results

Student	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
Pamela	78	100	22
George	94	97	3
Susan	58	80	22
Fanny	78	97	19
Frances	67	83	16
Mary	67	93	26
Alexandra	100	97	-3
Moxi	57	77	20
Olivia	92	90	-2
Paulette	58	77	19
Sandra	60	77	17
Olympia	43	67	24
Samsa	75	87	12
Julian	71	87	16
Mean	**71.29**	**86.36**	

Additionally, it was observed that the learning dynamics of the cooperative activities created in the groups fostered opportunities for students to engage collaboratively with the listening tasks. Group members discussed answers, shared comprehension strategies, and provided peer support. Also, they assessed their own work, looking for ways to improve their comprehension, note-taking, and information-sharing. Students were required to negotiate meaning, clarify ideas, and co-construct meaning, so when they worked individually on the listening task, the whole class performed well, increasing their motivation and trust in their skills.

Comparison Between the Post-Test Results of the Control and Experimental Groups

The Cohen's *d* test was used to compare the means across groups. The mean for the post-test in the control group was 79.23, while in the experimental group it was 86.35. The pooled standard deviation for the data provided is 11.34, and Cohen's *d* is 0.63. Interpretation of Cohen's *d* suggests that the effect of applying cooperative learning to enhance listening skills in the experimental group ranged from a medium to a large effect. In practical terms, it suggests that the intervention applied in the experimental group had a remarkable effect compared to the control group, and this difference is likely to have a relevant impact in a real context.

Discussion

The study found a statistically significant improvement in listening comprehension scores in the experimental group compared to the control group, with a medium-to-large effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.63$), indicating a meaningful impact of the cooperative learning intervention. The significant improvement in the experimental group's listening skills may be attributed to the increased engagement and motivation that cooperative learning fosters. Working collaboratively likely enhanced students' attentiveness and provided immediate opportunities for feedback, facilitating deeper processing of auditory information.

It can also be attributed to the several and distinct aspects that cooperative learning entails, such as the structured role assignment that made it possible for each member in the group to participate actively in the tasks. The different principles considered by Johnson et al. (1994), such as individual accountability and face-to-face promotive interaction, encouraged participation and ensured long-lasting motivation. This aligns with Vygotsky's theory of peer collaboration within the ZPD, leading to greater cognitive development. Furthermore, immediate feedback from peers is likely to have reinforced understanding of the listening material, allowing participants to process information more effectively.

Our findings are consistent with Han (2015) and Kirbas (2017), who also reported significant improvements in listening comprehension through cooperative learning. The results are also consistent with those of Jermsittiparsert et al. (2021), who assessed the effects of two cooperative strategies (jigsaw and information gap) on listening comprehension and found significant improvement in both experimental groups compared to the control group. Furthermore, our findings confirm that incorporating cooperative activities enhances listening comprehension effectiveness in university-based contexts, as suggested by Tang (2022), who highlights the importance of clearly defined roles and interactive group work. Finally, Wright (2021) demonstrated that group listening quizzes, in which students first complete a listening comprehension test individually and then collaborate to discuss their answers, foster deeper comprehension of auditory content, enhance participation, and develop metacognitive and social skills.

English language teachers, especially those in charge of advanced courses, should consider incorporating cooperative techniques like jigsaw, think-pair-share, and role assignment to foster active listening and peer support in the language classroom. Most of the time, teachers use group work in English lessons, but to make these activities cooperative, they must ensure the core principles of cooperative learning are also implemented. We foster positive interdependence by designing tasks in which students rely on each other to succeed and are individually accountable for their contributions. Additionally, teachers should promote interaction (e.g., through face-to-face discussions within the group), the development of social skills to reinforce collaboration and communication in solving conflicts, and, finally, the principle of group processing, which allocates time for groups to reflect on their own performance. Together, these principles enable consistent cooperation and secure the desired learning effects.

While this study provides valuable insights, the lack of random assignment and potential instructor bias may limit the generalizability of the results. Since students were not randomly assigned to groups, inherent differences between the two classes could have influenced the outcomes. For instance, variations in student motivation, prior proficiency levels, prior listening ability, or group dynamics might have contributed to the differences observed, independent of the cooperative learning intervention. While mitigation efforts, such as consistent instructions, the same intervention period, uniform exposure to contents, and similar pre- and post-tests, were made to ensure equivalent traits between experimental and non-experimental groups, they cannot entirely eliminate the possibility of pre-existing differences in the results.

One of the interesting insights of this study was the combination of quasi-experimental and action-research designs, as the establishment of a control group enabled comparison with the experimental group. In fact, we strongly believe that the study gained in terms of contextual insight and helped understand why the intervention worked beyond statistical analysis. Apart from this, action research helped ground the implementation experience in the real needs of the class, making the findings relevant and applicable.

Conclusion

The study aimed to investigate the impact of cooperative learning strategies on the listening comprehension skills of advanced EFL learners within an English teacher education program in Chile. By integrating structured cooperative activities throughout one semester, we sought to determine whether these pedagogical approaches would lead to significant improvement in students' listening performance compared to traditional, individualistic teaching methods.

Findings revealed that the experimental group, which engaged in cooperative learning tasks, demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in listening comprehension compared with the control group, with a medium-to-large effect size. This substantial effect suggests that cooperative learning fosters a more engaging and interactive learning environment. By promoting active participation, peer collaboration, and the sharing of diverse perspectives, cooperative learning appears to enhance the processing and retention of auditory information, thereby improving listening comprehension.

These results are consistent with previous research (e.g., Han, 2015; Kirbas, 2017) that highlight the benefits of cooperative learning in language acquisition. However, the higher effect size observed in this study may be attributed to the specific cooperative activities implemented, such as positive interdependence and individual accountability, which were meticulously designed to align with Johnson et al.'s (1994) principles. The tailored activities likely promoted deeper cognitive engagement and critical thinking, contributing to the enhanced outcomes.

The results have significant implications for professionals in language education and curriculum design. The integration of cooperative learning techniques—such as jigsaw, think-pair-share, and role assignment—into language instruction has been shown not only to improve students' listening proficiency but also to foster greater engagement in the learning process. Educators are strongly encouraged to implement these strategies to create a collaborative and interactive learning environment. By doing so, they can effectively enhance students' linguistic skills while simultaneously cultivating essential soft skills such as teamwork, communication, and problem-solving. These skills are highly valuable in both educational and professional contexts, contributing to students' overall development and success.

In terms of limitations, one stems from the sample. Participants were all senior students with a high proficiency level (aligned with CEFR advanced levels) and specific career aspirations in teaching. Their motivation and learning strategies might differ for learners at lower proficiency levels or with different goals. On the other hand, the small sample sizes (13 in the control group and 14 in the experimental group) further limit the generalizability of the results. Further research could consider larger sample sizes across multiple institutions to confirm the effectiveness of cooperative learning strategies. Further research could also explore the efficacy of cooperative learning among lower proficiency levels (A1–B1) and assess whether sustained cooperative learning interventions lead to long-term improvements. Longitudinal studies would be valuable in examining the sustainability of listening comprehension improvements and the potential impact of cooperative learning on other language skills, such as speaking, reading, and writing.

Moreover, incorporating qualitative measures, such as student interviews and classroom observations, could yield deeper insights into the student experience and the mechanisms by which cooperative learning influences language acquisition. Understanding students' perceptions and attitudes toward cooperative learning can inform the refinement of instructional strategies to better meet learners' needs.

To conclude, the findings of this study present compelling evidence of the efficacy of cooperative

learning in advancing listening comprehension skills among advanced EFL learners. The substantial progress witnessed emphasizes the transformative potential of collaborative strategies to enrich language learning experiences through the cultivation of an interactive and nurturing classroom environment. Embracing cooperative learning leads to improved linguistic outcomes and equips students with the essential collaborative skills vital for their future professional endeavors.

As the educational landscape continues to evolve, adopting innovative approaches like cooperative learning becomes increasingly important. Institutions and educators are encouraged to integrate cooperative frameworks into their curricula to optimize student engagement and proficiency outcomes. Continued exploration and rigorous research into cooperative learning strategies are recommended to fully understand their potential across diverse language skills and learning environments. Embracing such pedagogical innovations holds promise for enriching language education and preparing learners to thrive in a collaborative, globalized world.

References

André, A., Louvet, B., & Deneuve, P. (2013). Cooperative group, risk-taking and inclusion of pupils with learning disabilities in physical education. *British Educational Research Journal*, *39*(4), 677–693. https://doi.org/10.1080/01411926.2012.674102

Bilen, D., & Müge Tavil, Z. (2015). The effects of cooperative learning strategies on vocabulary skills of 4th grade students. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, *3*(6), 151–165. https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v3i6.1062

Burgess, S., & Thomas, A. (2014). *Gold advanced: Coursebook*. Pearson.

Carbone, S., & De la Barra, E. (2024). Introducing cooperative learning for ELT in Chile: Two teachers' perceptions and use. *Revista de Estudios y Experiencias en Educación*, *23*(51), 391–408. https://doi.org/10.21703/rexe.v23i51.1744

Cohen, E. G. (1994). *Designing groupwork: Strategies for the heterogeneous classroom* (2nd ed.). Teachers College Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.

De La Barra, E., & Carbone, S. (2020). Bridging inequality: Cooperative learning through literature in two vulnerable schools in Santiago. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' professional Development*, *22*(2), 49–63. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v22n2.81384

Gillies, R. M. (2016). Cooperative learning: Review of research and practice. *The Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(3), 39–54. https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2016v41n3.3

Gillies, R. M., & Ashman, A. F. (Eds.). (2003). *Cooperative learning: The social and intellectual outcomes of learning in groups*. Routledge.

Gökçe Erbil, D. (2020). A review of flipped classroom and cooperative learning method within the context of Vygotsky theory. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01157

Han, M. (2015). An empirical study on the application of cooperative learning to English listening classes. *English Language Teaching*, *8*(3), 177–184. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v8n3p177

Harrison, M. (2014). *Cambridge English: Advanced practice tests*. Oxford University Press.

Hernández Sampieri, R., Fernández Collado, C., & Baptista Lucio, P. (2023). *Metodología de la investigación* (7th ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Jermsittiparsert, K., Menacho-Vargas, I., Supo-Condori, F., Alarcón Díaz, H. H., Cavero-Aybar, H. N., Centellas Tapia, Y. Y., & Ivanova, O. N. (2021). Cooperative strategies and listening comprehension: The cases of jigsaw and missing information techniques. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, *16*(3), 1257–1268. https://doi.org/10.18844/cjes.v16i3.5846

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1989). *Learning together and alone: Cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning* (3rd ed.). Prentice-Hall.

Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. T. (2019). The impact of cooperative learning on self-directed learning. In E. Mentz, J. de Beer, & R. Bailey (Eds.), *Self-directed learning for 21st century: Implications for higher education* (pp. 37–66). Aosis Books. https://doi.org/10.4102/aosis.2019.BK134.02

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. J. (1994). *Cooperative learning in the classroom*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Johnson, D., Johnson, R., & Smith, K. A. (2014). Cooperative learning: Improving university instruction by basing practice on validated theory. *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching*, *25*(3–4), 85–118.

Kagan, S. (1994). *Cooperative learning* (2nd ed.). Kagan Cooperative Learning.

Kirbas, A. (2017). Effects of cooperative learning method on the development of listening comprehension and listening skills. *International Journal of Languages Education and Teaching*, *5*(1), 1–17.

Liao, H.-C. (2006). *Effects of cooperative learning on motivation, learning strategy utilization, and grammar achievement of English language learners in Taiwan* [Master's thesis, University of New Orleans]. University of New Orleans Theses and Dissertations. https://scholarworks.uno.edu/td/329

McCafferty, S. G., Jacobs, G. M., & Iddings, A. C. D. (2006). *Cooperative learning and second language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Meena, R. S. (2020). The effect of cooperative learning strategies in the enhancement of EFL learner's speaking skills. *Asian EFL Journal*, *27*(2.3), 144–171.

Mercer, N. (2000). *Words and minds: How we use language to think together*. Routledge.

Nguyen, C., Trinh, T., Le, D., & Nguyen, T. (2021). Cooperative learning in English language classrooms: Teachers' perceptions and actions. *Anatolian Journal of Education*, *6*(2), 89–108. https://doi.org/10.29333/aje.2021.628a

Pérez-Cañar, J. S., & Troya-Sánchez, M. E. (2023). The effectiveness of cooperative learning on EFL first year high school students' writing skills. *Issues in Educational Research*, *33*(3), 1125–1147.

Remache Carrillo, N. M., Pilco Labre, M. G., & Yanez Valle, V. V. (2019). The effects of cooperative learning on reading comprehension. *Explorador Digital*, *3*(3.1), 143–163. https://doi.org/10.33262/exploradordigital.v3i3.1.875

Sharan, Y. (2010). Cooperative learning for academic and social gains: Valued pedagogy, problematic practice. *European Journal of Education*, *45*(2), 300–310. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1465-3435.2010.01430.x

Slavin, R. E. (1985). An introduction to cooperative learning research. In R. Slavin, S. Sharan, S. Kagan, R. Hertz-Lazarowitz, C. Webb, & R. Schmuck (Eds.), *Learning to cooperate, co-operating to learn* (pp. 5–15). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-3650-9_1

Tang, A. (2022). The application of cooperative learning to English listening teaching in high school. *Advances in Educational Technology and Psychology*, *6*(10), 1–6.

Van Ryzin, M. J., & Roseth, C. J. (2021). The cascading effects of reducing student stress: Cooperative learning as a means to reduce emotional problems and promote academic engagement. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, *41*(5), 700–724. https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431620950474

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Eds.). Harvard University Press.

Wright, V. (2021). Group listening quizzes. *TESL Reporter*, *54*(1–2), 85–91.

Wu, X., & Tao, M. (2022). The impact of cooperative learning on EFL achievers' and underachievers' motivation based on marginal utility. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *13*(2), 417–424. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1302.24

Zhang, L. (2018). English flipped classroom teaching model based on cooperative learning. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, *18*(6), 3652–3661.

Zhao, Y., & Jacobs, G. M. (2005). Cooperative learning and foreign language education. In P. A. Richard-Amato & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Academic success for English language learners: Strategies for K–12 mainstream teachers* (pp. 155–179). Longman.

About the Authors

Erika De la Barra is a full-time professor at Universidad de Santiago, Chile. She holds a PhD in Literature (Universidad de Chile) and has been involved in literature and language teaching at different private and public institutions. She has published in the fields of literature, EFL, cooperative learning, gender studies, and professional identity.

Sylvia Veloso holds an MA in Applied Linguistics from Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile. She has worked in English teacher education programs for over 10 years and currently works at Universidad de Santiago, Chile. Her research interests are Chilean and Latin-American educational systems, English teaching methodologies, and teachers' formative processes.

Roles: both authors contributed equally to the conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the Vice-rectorate for Academic Affairs at USACH for providing the funds for this initiative through the PID project for innovative higher education teaching No. 003-2024. Besides, we would like to thank our research assistants, Javiera Jara and Valentina Barcasa, for their invaluable help in creating cooperative learning activities and co-teaching with us in class.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.118907

Challenging EFL Students' Views of Culture: An Experience With Multimodal Pedagogies

Desafiando las visiones de cultura de estudiantes de inglés: una experiencia con pedagogías multimodales

Alejandro Fernández
Universidad del Valle, Cali, Colombia

This article reports a mixed-methods action research study that explored the impact of multimodal pedagogies on 20 students' conceptions of culture and intercultural relationships throughout an English course. Data were gathered through questionnaires, students' multimodal productions, and interviews. Findings indicate that, after the intervention, students moved from stereotypical, monolithic conceptions of culture to a dynamic, multidimensional, and complex view of it. Learners recognized how culture operates in their everyday lives and the role of negotiation/mediation in intercultural interactions. This experience suggests that multimodal pedagogies promote intercultural and critical views in language teaching/learning.

Keywords: English language teaching, intercultural awareness, intercultural language teaching, multimodality, multimodal pedagogies

Este artículo reporta un estudio mixto de investigación-acción que exploró el impacto de las pedagogías multimodales en las concepciones de cultura y relaciones interculturales de veinte estudiantes en un curso de inglés. Los datos se recopilaron mediante cuestionarios, producciones multimodales de estudiantes y grupos focales. Los resultados indican que, después de la intervención, los estudiantes pasaron de concepciones estereotipadas y monolíticas de la cultura a una visión dinámica, multidimensional y compleja. Los aprendices reconocieron cómo opera la cultura en su vida cotidiana y el papel de la negociación/mediación en las interacciones interculturales. Esta experiencia sugiere que las pedagogías multimodales promueven visiones interculturales y críticas en la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de lenguas.

Palabras clave: conciencia intercultural, enseñanza intercultural de lenguas, enseñanza del inglés, multimodalidad, pedagogías multimodales

Alejandro Fernández https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0763-4287 • Email: alejandro.fernandez.benavides@correounivalle.edu.co

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Fernández, A. (2026). Challenging EFL students' views of culture: An experience with multimodal pedagogies. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 155–172. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.118907

This article was received on February 16, 2025 and accepted on September 13, 2025.

Introduction

The evolution of means of communication and global interactions has posed challenges for English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers (Álvarez Valencia, 2018). Virtual intercultural communication (Godwin-Jones, 2019; O'Dowd, 2021) and the visual turn on meaning-making (Álvarez Valencia, 2016a; Kress, 1998, 2010) have switched the emphasis from writing to graphic modes of communication. These changes challenge teachers to recognize, interpret, and examine the nature and behavior of semiotic resources and modes of communication (Álvarez Valencia, 2016b, 2021; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005). Despite the presence of multimodal elements in communication, EFL practices remain tied to verbocentric views of communication (language-centered approaches to English language teaching [ELT]; Álvarez Valencia & Michelson, 2022; Poyatos, 2002) or culturalist positions (monolithic/stereotypical perspectives of culture in EFL; Rico-Troncoso, 2021).

Another challenge is the absence of studies on multimodal pedagogies or approaches in EFL and on the discovery of pedagogical alternatives that integrate multimodal pedagogies to develop intercultural skills. This lack hinders the promotion of intercultural/critical stances and broader views of communication. Some studies have focused on the affordances of multimodal pedagogies in the development of multiliteracies (Angay-Crowder et al., 2013; Veliz & Hossein, 2020; Vinogradova et al., 2011), academic skills (Archer, 2008; Prince & Archer, 2014), reading/writing in L1/L2 (Bell, 2016; Huang & Archer, 2017; Thesen, 2014), and the text–image relationship (Archer, 2011; Unsworth, 2006; van Leeuwen & Humphrey, 1996). Nonetheless, scarce research connects multimodal pedagogies with EFL learners' intercultural manifestations (Ajayi, 2008; Newfield & Maungedzo, 2006; Stein, 2004).

Newfield and Maungedzo (2006) explore the use of multimodal poetry in an EFL classroom in South Africa to discuss how a multimodal conception of communication shapes learners' understanding of texts and their connections to their own cultures/lifestyles. This experience urges EFL practitioners to engage with multiple modes of communication to understand learners' own cultural practices.

Stein (2004) shows how using multimodal pedagogies in English-as-a-second-language classrooms in Johannesburg connects learners' local worldviews and sociocultural contexts with their academic demands. Through multimodal representations of the self, students portrayed their cultural heritage, addressed lingering post-apartheid tensions, understood their differences, and discussed the role of educational policies in shaping multiple diversities.

Ajayi (2008) discusses how multimodal meaning-making at the high school level enhances learners' interpretation and critical inquiry of multimodal documents through the analysis of local political multimodal products. After implementing learning activities integrating multimodal analysis/interpretation, students used multimodal resources to discuss their social identities. This experience foregrounds the potential of a multimodally-based curriculum in developing critical skills.

Latin American authors have addressed multimodality and visuals in EFL practices. Brazilian researchers have proposed alternatives to address multimodal communication in language learning and teaching (Bezerra, 2012; Heberle, 2010), others explored the implementation of multimodal practices with EFL high school students (Almeida & Souza, 2017), and preservice EFL teachers and teacher educators (Heberle et al., 2022; Zacchi, 2016). In Chile, Rojas Suazo (2017) examined the affordances of multimodal literacies (digital storytelling) in EFL high school and Farías and Véliz (2019) reported that despite participants' familiarity with multimodal texts (teachers used them in their reading/writing lessons, and preservice teachers, for non-academic purposes) they are limited by constraints of resources, instruction and time for teaching

and learning. The authors stress the discrepancies of using multimodal documents between educators and preservice teachers.

Though these and similar studies have examined multimodal practices and pedagogies in EFL, few have empirically explored the integration of multimodality in Colombia (Aguilar-Cruz, 2018; Aldana Gutiérrez et al., 2012; Álvarez Valencia, 2021; Gómez-Giraldo, 2022; Rincón & Clavijo-Olarte, 2016). For example, Álvarez Valencia's (2021) study addresses multimodal pedagogies. His research explored how multimodal pedagogies with an intercultural orientation benefit preservice EFL teachers. The author highlights the role of multimodal pedagogies in boosting learners' agentive design and identity construction; interaction, collaboration, and negotiation; and understanding of the connections among language, communication, and culture.

Although previous studies have explored multimodal approaches in EFL, promoting multimodal pedagogical practices to develop intercultural skills warrants greater attention. Hence, three research gaps are revealed: (a) the role of multimodal communication in EFL, (b) addressing the inclusion of multimodal pedagogies in language teaching, and (c) using multimodal pedagogies to develop intercultural skills in EFL. These gaps stress the need to design pedagogical proposals to promote intercultural skills in ELT.

Therefore, this study explored the impact of multimodal pedagogies on the development of intercultural awareness of a group of students enrolled in an English course. Three areas of intercultural awareness were addressed: the concept of culture and intercultural relationships; the role of respect, equality, acceptance, and openness; and the heterogeneous nature of social groups. Due to space limitations, this paper focuses on the first of these areas and answers the following research question: "What are the changes in the students' conceptions of culture and intercultural relationships resulting from a multimodal pedagogical experience?"

Multimodal Pedagogies in ELT

Emerging from a multimodal perspective (Jewitt, 2006; Kress, 2014; van Leeuwen, 2006), where communication is seen as the enactment of varied modes of communication beyond the linguistic realm (The New London Group, 1996), multimodal pedagogies are a set of teaching/learning approaches that encompass "curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment practices which focus on mode as a defining feature of communication in learning environments" (Stein & Newfield, 2006, p. 9).

Stein (2004) proposed a set of basic assumptions for multimodal pedagogies:

Assumption 1: Pedagogy is a semiotic activity framed within relations of culture, history, and power. Multimodal products are constructed in the classroom and emerge within specific social, political, cultural, historical, and power conditions that define their meanings.

Assumption 2: Meaning-making is bodily, sensory, and semiotic. Using the body as a source of semiotic resources enables meaning construction. Meaning happens through and with the body, which is at the center of semiotic construction and interpretation.

Assumption 3: Meaning-making is multimodal. It is based on the interpretation of modes of communication emerging from social interactions. Modes of communication are defined as "a fully semiotically articulated means of representation and communication" (Stein, 2004, p. 104). The New London Group (1996) classifies these modes into five categories: linguistic, visual, audio, gestural, and spatial.

Assumption 4: Meaning-making is an interested action. Individuals make meaning from the range of available choices, the conditions of their interactions, their interests, and their identities.

Assumption 5: Language is limited. Since communication is multimodal, language alone is not enough to recount or interpret all human experiences and perspectives.

Assumption 6: Meaning-making is transformation, creativity, and design.

Meaning-making resorts to individuals' full ensemble of semiotic resources. Meanings produced by individuals result from semiotic adaptation, transformation, and shaping under specific conditions.

Intersections Between Multimodal Pedagogies and Intercultural Awareness

Multimodal pedagogies have a sociocultural nature. Cultural, social, historical, and power relationships are pivotal in the creation, transformation, and use of meanings (Kress, 2012; Stein, 2008). Semiotic resources are socially created and shaped through cultural action (Álvarez Valencia, 2021; Kress, 2010) and the ways individuals use, design, deploy, and connect multimodal meanings with their cultural context, heritage, and identities (Kress, 2010; Newfield, 2014; Stein, 2008).

Culture is crucial in multimodal pedagogies. Stein (2008) and Álvarez Valencia (2021) highlight the role of culture in multimodal pedagogies and how cultural relationships shape multimodal communication and the curricular inclusion of multimodal pedagogies. Álvarez Valencia (2021) defines culture as "an open and dynamic repertoire of semiotic resources (material bodily originated or artifacts, and non-material discourses, ideologies, ideas, beliefs), produced, embodied, enacted, and reshaped in social interaction and communication" (p. 46).

Multimodal pedagogies focus on interpreting culturally created meanings. Conceiving culture as a set of semiotic resources emanating from social communication implies that multimodal pedagogies are engaged with the work of culture and its meanings. Therefore, multimodal pedagogies critically address learners' semiotic resources, placing multimodal designs at the center of pedagogical action. The classroom becomes a place for critical/cultural engagement where learners creatively manifest their identities (Álvarez Valencia & Valencia, 2023; Stein, 2004, 2008).

Multimodal pedagogies are linked to critical interculturality since they acknowledge the multiplicity of meanings emerging from cultural relationships. Of paramount importance is recognizing social issues and multiple perspectives on events and meanings. Integrating diverse viewpoints, agency, and critical perspectives through multimodal pedagogies promotes the interpretation, negotiation, and mediation of multimodal discourses (Álvarez Valencia, 2021; Stein, 2004), thereby connecting multimodal pedagogies with a critical intercultural perspective in ELT (Walsh, 2009). Multimodal pedagogies imply a critical comprehension of power relations and learners' cultural contexts (Archer, 2008; Harrop-Allin, 2011; Stein & Newfield, 2006; Thesen, 2001).

The connections between multimodal pedagogies and intercultural language teaching assign a major role to intercultural awareness, understood as "a conscious understanding of the role culturally based forms, practices, and frames of understanding can have in intercultural communication, and an ability to put these conceptions into practice in a flexible and context specific manner in real time communication" (Baker, 2012, p. 66). There are three levels of intercultural awareness:

- Basic: elemental comprehension of the learners' communicative contexts in their L1 mainly.
- Advanced: deeper understanding of the relationship between language and culture.
- Intercultural awareness: the "fluid, hybrid, and emergent understanding of cultures and languages in intercultural communication needed for English used in global settings" (Baker, 2012, p. 67).

Here, the learners' conceptions of culture and intercultural relationships are discussed in light of the cognitive and pragmatic manifestations featured in the intercultural awareness levels.

Given the intercultural nature of multimodal pedagogies; the intercultural awareness affordances to understand multimodal forms, practices, and frames; and the importance of meaning-making and intercultural awareness in social interactions; we can argue that adopting multimodal pedagogies in the EFL classroom promotes intercultural awareness. Hence, this study focuses on the use of multimodal pedagogies as an alternative to promote intercultural awareness in an EFL class through the discussion of learners' changes in their conceptions of culture and intercultural relationships.

Task-Based Learning Approach

This research adopts the tenets of task-based learning (TBL), focusing on task completion to develop communicative skills (Ellis, 2003). Task is conceived as a purposeful, tangible set of activities in which language is used to make meaning in authentic-like scenarios (Bygate et al., 2001). TBL is learner-centered and pursues meaning-making through situations that facilitate the emergence of language structures and functions (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Willis, 1996). TBL was used due to its potential to integrate multimodal activities, its connection with real situations, and its focus on meaning-making.

Method

This study adopts a mixed-methods approach, using both qualitative and quantitative procedures and data to describe and interpret participants' views and experiences in the intervention (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). An action-research design was followed to explore alternatives to transform teaching practices and implement better strategies through subjects' participation (Hernández Sampieri et al., 2014; Yuni & Urbano, 2005). This study embodies an attempt to change the contextual conditions that contribute to the neglect of intercultural awareness and multimodal pedagogies in the EFL classroom and to the lack of spaces to promote learners' critical perspectives. By implementing a pedagogical intervention, this research highlights the enhancement of pedagogical practice through teachers' and students' agency.

Context and Participants

This study was conducted at Universidad del Valle (Colombia) in the framework of an 18-week English course for general and academic purposes. The participants were 20 students (16 men and 4 women, ages 17–28) from low- to middle-socioeconomic backgrounds enrolled in diverse academic programs. The students and an under-18's guardian signed a consent form after being informed about the nature, scope, procedures, and purpose of the study. Ethical guidelines, anonymity, confidentiality, and learners' rights were always respected.

Data Collection

One questionnaire, administered before and after the pedagogical intervention, was used to identify students' beliefs and practices related to intercultural awareness. The questionnaire consisted of 32 closed-ended questions (27 Likert-scale and five multiple-selection questions) divided into three sections: (a) conception of culture and intercultural relations; (b) the role of respect, acceptance, equality, and openness; and (c) nuances in various social groups. Each section was subdivided into two dimensions:

- cognitive: focused on students' ideas about intercultural awareness
- pragmatic: the behaviors that students felt they were able to perform

Only the questions related to the first section are examined here (five multiple-selection questions from the cognitive dimension and six Likert-scale questions from the pragmatic dimension).

This instrument was validated through experts' review and a pilot stage with 22 students from another English class. The pilot results showed that Cronbach's

alpha was obtained for sections two to six (over 0.7, the minimum value for validity). Cronbach's alpha was not applicable to Section 1 because it did not have a valuation scale. The questionnaire was delivered online and in Spanish to facilitate learners' understanding (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009).

The participants' multimodal products displayed their ideas, perceptions, and reflections throughout the pedagogical intervention. These productions were part of the course, and they were collected in English (Table 1).

Table 1. Activities From Pedagogical Intervention

Activity	Area	Type of production
Reading workshop	Culture and intercultural relationships	Written
Workshop video 1		Audio/written/visual
Drawing about culture		Visual/spatial
Memes about culture		Written/visual

After the pedagogical intervention, a focus group was implemented to gather the students' reflections, perceptions, and changes in ideas. The focus group protocol had 14 questions in Spanish, divided into the same three sections as in the questionnaire. This protocol's validity was established through peer review by two scholars and piloting with nine students from the same course in the previous academic period. Nine students voluntarily participated in four focus group sessions (total recording time: 3 hr 43 min).

Data Analysis

Using the software JASP, data from the two instances of the questionnaire implementation were compared and analyzed through descriptive statistics to find the frequency distribution (mean/standard deviation/median). A scale (Table 2) was designed to determine the approximate learners' intercultural awareness level. Although 20 participants were in the study, only 13 completed the two instances of the questionnaire.

Thematic analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) was used for qualitative data (multimodal products and focus group transcriptions). A matrix of students' expected cognitive and pragmatic outcomes, based on Baker's (2012) model, was designed to identify manifestations of intercultural awareness. Elo et al.'s (2014) process was followed:

- preparation phase
- organization phase
- reporting phase

Table 2. Intercultural Awareness (IA) Scale

Area	Dimension	Scale
Conception of culture and intercultural relationships	Cognitive	1 = Low IA 2 = Basic IA 3 = High IA
	Pragmatic	1–2 = Low IA 3–4 = Basic IA 5–6 = High IA

After organizing and classifying qualitative data, students' voices were placed in the matrix (by instrument, participant, and task) according to Baker's intercultural awareness descriptors. Then, general trends in manifestations of intercultural awareness were identified.

A multimodal analysis, drawing on elements of Álvarez Valencia's (2016a) proposal and Kress's (2012) view of multimodal products, was developed to examine the connections between students' multimodal products and their semiotic meanings.

1. Semiotic resources and modes of communication were identified.
2. The visual elements of the students' products were examined (semiotic resources, modes of communication, type of image, visual content, position, color, etc.), along with their spatial distribution (text–image) within the multimodal composition, and the relationships (function, connection, purpose, intersemiotic) between the students' written answers and the visual elements in each multimodal product.
3. The students' salient ideas of culture and intercultural relationships were examined and compared with the theory.

After running these analyses, triangulation was carried out. The manifestations of intercultural awareness dimensions in the qualitative data were compared with the quantitative data, and the text-image connection in the students' multimodal productions was examined. Repeated cross-instrument reference and continuous revision were used to validate the analysis.

Pedagogical Intervention

The pedagogical intervention lasted 16 weeks and aimed at developing learners' intercultural awareness through the analysis and design of multimodal products. Three areas of intercultural awareness were addressed, but due to the scope of this article, only the first section (i.e., concept of culture and intercultural relationships) of the pedagogical intervention is described. This section (lasting four weeks) revolved around culture as a dynamic, multidimensional, and multimodal phenomenon (Baker, 2012). The topics of this unit were:

- concept of culture
- diverse views of culture
- presence of culture in our routines
- personal/multimodal representations of culture
- areas of cultural manifestations

These topics were integrated into the syllabus and addressed through the exploration of videos, readings, visits to some campus spaces, analysis of local cultural behaviors, and class discussions. Following a TBL approach, students examined their views of culture through the completion of tasks (see Table 1):

Reading workshop: Learners read a text on the concept, nature, and manifestations of culture; analyzed their everyday behaviors rooted in their cultural milieu; and wrote their answers after a class discussion.

Workshop video 1: Students watched a video about a situation of discrimination. They examined the video, identified some cultural elements and social issues, and took a stance regarding the issue discussed.

Drawing about culture: After prior activities and class discussions, learners draw their concept of culture.

Memes about culture: Students designed a meme that combined visual and linguistic elements to represent their academic-cultural contexts. They selected common college/everyday activities to portray their views on culture, using humor and satire.

These tasks incorporated hybrid use of modes of communication, transmodal processes (Álvarez Valencia, 2021), a focus on culture, meaning creation, and a critical approach to analyzing cultural phenomena. These tasks followed Stein's (2004) multimodal pedagogies assumptions and were compatible with Álvarez Valencia's (2021) proposal.

Results and Discussion

This section depicts changes in students' conceptions of culture and intercultural relations before, during, and after the intervention based on multimodal pedagogies.

Before the Pedagogical Intervention

Data from the initial administration of the questionnaire, at cognitive (N = 13, M = 2.723, SD = 0.265) and pragmatic (N = 13, M = 5.354, SD = 0.623) levels revealed that students had prior understanding about the multidimensional, dynamic, and complex nature of culture and intercultural relations. In the pragmatic dimension, learners recognized that cultures can be diverse, changing, and encompass several dimensions, and identified elements that facilitate intercultural relations.

In the cognitive dimension, the mean reveals a trend towards a high intercultural awareness level, which indicates that, from the beginning, students were aware of certain intercultural elements. At the pragmatic level, the mean showed a high intercultural awareness level. Initial consciousness of intercultural phenomena facilitated knowledge acquisition, identification of deeper cultural manifestations at the local level, and development of reference frameworks to examine intercultural elements. These results echo the learners' products.

During the Pedagogical Intervention

Although the preliminary values from the questionnaire show high understanding of intercultural phenomena, it was through the pedagogical intervention that students found spaces for deeper understanding and debate about intercultural phenomena. Students discussed, read, and pondered the nature of culture in order to construct some definitions based on their own experiences:

> Culture is customs, *a way of life that depends on the social group where you were born, grew, and developed*. Culture forms the being and the way in which others perceive you; therefore, the diversity of culture makes us understand that there is much to learn, know, and respect in and outside our environment. A daily example in our Colombian culture, and especially in Cali, is listening to the person who sells *mazamorra* and *champús* in the streets, even if you don't buy it, you recognize it and, consciously or unconsciously, becomes part of the culture [*sic*]. (Student 2, Reading workshop)

> Culture is the union of family, social, and national patterns, it *is also the set of educational and traditional knowledge that identifies us personally or in groups* and that manifests in action. A very simple example of Colombian culture is that we greet people without knowing them; can be the neighbor or when [you] enter a place or simply if someone looks at us, we respond with a greeting [*sic*]. (Student 5, Reading workshop)

Students reported their personal definitions of culture (Task 1), stressing its social/multidimensional nature. When Student 1 and 5 list cultural elements related to people's social identity (emphasis in the excerpts), they highlight the role of culture as a reference frame emerging from social interactions (Fernández Benavides et al., 2024; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013) and the interpretation of cultural manifestations (traditions, behaviors, lifestyles) which turn into semiotic resources (Álvarez Valencia, 2021, 2022). Here, culture refers to practices such as traditions and behaviors (family, society, nation) that shape students' lives and identities. These answers explain how culture shapes individuals' behaviors by stressing how it transforms people's perceptions of others and influences their actions.

At the pragmatic level, Student 1 and 5 offer examples of cultural manifestations in their social contexts. They mention two dimensions of culture: products (*mazamorra*) and practices (greeting people; Moran, 2001). Interpreting these cultural semiotic resources (Álvarez Valencia & Valencia, 2023) is important because they shape people's identities when communities adopt them (consciously/unconsciously) to interact

and interpret the world. The sounds used by traditional drinks' sellers of *mazamorra* or *champús*, constitute cultural semiotic resources that, from a multimodal perspective, contribute to making meaning beyond the verbal dimension and symbolize a cultural notion of foods.

From a critical perspective, stressing the cultural role of traditional street food and its consumption from street sellers ("even if you don't buy it, you recognize it and, consciously or unconsciously, becomes part of the culture [*sic*]") reflects a political act and an instance of cultural resistance showing a tacit routinary preference to consume street food outside large market chains. This is highlighted when Student 2 suggests that buying these foods from street sellers instead of big markets is part of her own culture. Subjects assign value to cultural semiotic resources (*mazamorra* sellers' sounds) that motivate people to buy food from street sellers and become key to uniting individuals around their communities.

Parallel to the concept of culture, students recognized the complex nature of intercultural relations and the need for mediation and negotiation:

> I worked at . . . a famous and expensive hotel. . . . The manager was from Cali, . . . she was proactive and smart for business, but as a human, she was a monster. One time, she called [me and] my boss and said [to me], "I need to talk to you, I don't want to make you uncomfortable, but you have to change your accent." . . . The [manager] said that my Nariño[1] accent didn't sound nice or serious, so I needed to change my accent or try to speak without accent [*sic*]. . . . I was young and I was forced to do that and of course I didn't know that this situation was discrimination and labor abuse. (Video workshop/Student 2).

Student 2 reported an experience of discrimination similar to the one analyzed in the video from Task 2, in which an Afrodescendant girl felt rejected due to her physical features. Adding to the disrespect for diverse linguistic/regional varieties, the manager failed to negotiate or mediate, leading to administrative and cultural discrimination. Student 2 identifies that language is one of the manifestations of regional culture and how intercultural relations handled without mediation and negotiation lead to discrimination and abuse. Understanding the complexities of intercultural relations is part of intercultural awareness, and it implies learners' recognition of social issues and discrimination. Multimodal pedagogies encourage students to take critical stances and agency towards social phenomena (Álvarez Valencia, 2022; Stein, 2008). Through the analysis of multimodal documents, transmodal processes, and with the support of visual elements, students interpreted situations in multimodal L2 documents, related them to their own lives, and took a critical position. These actions manifest intercultural awareness (Baker, 2012), revealing the potential of multimodal pedagogies to go beyond culturalist, unquestionable, and unproblematic views of culture that challenge stereotyped notions of social relationships. This example shows that multimodal pedagogies drive understanding of the nature of unequal relationships and a critical position on social issues.

At the beginning of the intervention, learners drew their concept of culture (Figures 1 and 2). Following Álvarez Valencia's (2016a) analysis proposal, both drawings employ diverse cultural semiotic resources (symbols, flags, people, animals, words) organized in modes of communication: linguistic, visual, and spatial (see Table 3). These elements' intersemiotic relationship reflects semiotic cohesion by presenting culture as a multidimensional phenomenon. Figures 1 and 2 display several items representing students' cultural identity (people from diverse ethnic, racial, and national origins) and elements symbolizing cultural manifestations (objects, symbols) related to everyday behaviors or products (music, dance, national features).

1 One of the departments of Colombia, located in the southwest of the country.

Figure 1. Drawing About Culture (Student 10)

Figure 2. Drawing About Culture (Student 6)

Although the students' idea of culture in their drawings still reflects a monolithic/culturalist perspective linked to national attributes and surface elements (cultural semiotic resources; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013), learners interpret how culture goes beyond one single manifestation. Students understood that culture is a living entity that is experienced through everyday actions, cultural semiotic resources, and multimodal products, which shape people's views. These ideas are a major achievement in Baker's (2012) proposal. Implementing multimodal pedagogies through the interpretation of cultural semiotic resources and using transmodalization to represent a concept led learners to consider the nature, embodiment, and composition of culture. Despite the students' limited views of culture, focused mainly on tangible elements and products, their perspectives evolved to critically explore other expressions through multimodal products (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Meme About Culture (Group 1)

Figure 3 is a meme designed by some students representing their own culture and focuses on a cultural phenomenon on campus. Figure 3 foregrounds some recent processes of revitalization of native languages/cultures. Using the template of a popular meme featuring two women on the left (one arguing and the other appeasing her) and a cat on the right (mocking the yelling woman), students humorously reported that cultural revitalization takes center stage in Cali. In the meme, the woman says, "You said we would get engaged," and the cat replies, "to recover our own language: *Achichucas* here in Cali." This meme shows the growing interest among Indigenous communities in Cali, particularly within the university, in socially/linguistically highlighting their own cultural features. The meme conveys the intention of reviving Indigenous languages: the expression *achichucas* (an interjection coming from Quechua that denotes hot temperature), which highlights Cali's hot weather. Figure 3 illustrates how recovering or integrating elements from Indigenous languages (or other Colombian regions) might look (*Achichucas* here in Cali = It's so hot here in Cali!). Using visual-cultural semiotic resources, linguistic elements, and an interjection from Nariño, the students

Table 3. Multimodal Elements in Figures 1, 2, and 3

Multimodal product	Semiotic resources	Mode of communication
Figure 1	Word culture	Linguistic
	Planet Earth	Visual
	People	
	Flags	
	Animals	
	Plants/mountains	
	Objects	
	Symbols	
	Background colors	Visual/spatial
	Distribution	Spatial
Figure 2	Word culture	Linguistic
	People	Visual
	Pre-colonial craftwork	
	Background colors	Visual/spatial
	Distribution	Spatial
Figure 3	Ladies' picture and gestures	Visual
	Cat's picture and background	
	Text on left panel	Linguistic
	Text on right panel	
	Distribution	Spatial

analyzed how cultural/linguistic representations are changing in Cali, the importance of diverse linguistic expressions, and the role of recovering or maintaining one's own heritage through everyday actions. This representation aligns with Stein's (2008) assumptions, showing that meaning making relies on learners' sociocultural conditions, is multimodal, action-driven, and expressed in terms of transformation, creativity, and design. Portraying these assumptions is linked to manifestations of intercultural awareness, including the recognition of cultural symbolic patterns and the ways they are represented; how learners see different geographical voices in Colombia; the multiple cultural identities beyond national terms; and the awareness of

communicative practices and reference frameworks related to cultures.

Figure 3 exemplifies how learners achieved Levels 2 and 3 in Baker's (2012) model through a multimodal product, combining foreign mainstream elements with their own views and experiences at college. Recent research shows that Indigenous groups within Universidad del Valle are leading actions to achieve socio-academic integration through the recognition of their cultural heritage and participation in various university contexts (Álvarez Valencia, 2022; Álvarez Valencia & Miranda, 2022). This finding resonates with national research that stresses the need to adopt policies that account for Colombia's complex cultural spectrum (Miranda & Valencia Giraldo, 2023; Valdiri Vinasco et al., 2024).

After the Pedagogical Intervention

The final administration of the questionnaire showed stability in the mean values of intercultural awareness: cognitive level ($N = 13$, $M = 2.800$, $SD = 0.245$); pragmatic level ($N = 13$, $M = 5.462$, $SD = 0.450$). There was no decrease in the mean at the cognitive (2.8) and pragmatic (5.4) levels, indicating that students maintained high intercultural awareness levels after the intervention. The values before and after the pedagogical intervention do not imply that students' understanding of intercultural phenomena during the course stagnated. Although these results could cast doubt on the intervention's impact due to the low variation in questionnaire results (before/after), qualitative data provide a more nuanced understanding of the intercultural dimension and its practical manifestations.

During the focus groups, students were asked whether they agreed that culture is static and defined by the country in which someone lives. Student 3 replied:

> For me culture is not static, . . . you can see right now the thing about bullfights. People thought, "that was part of the culture," . . . and now there are many people who don't agree. Let's say you no longer include that within your culture . . . that's why I say culture is not static. And I don't think it's defined by the country we live in. It contributes to something, . . . like we are Colombians; we go abroad, and by the way we express ourselves and behave, [people] will say: "These are Colombians!" But it is not necessary, because we can [live] a long time in another country and . . . we continue with our culture.

Students were also asked whether they considered culture to consist of a single element or more, and which elements they considered. For Student 11, "culture is represented by several components: communication, religion, ways of expressing themselves, gastronomy. Everything is intrinsically related to culture and where we come from." As for the role of mediation and negotiation when interacting with people from different cultures, this same student replied:

> I think they are fundamental in intercultural relations . . . [for example,] smiling at people who greet you; or simply for cordiality, you always show something like a kind of smile. But in other cultures, that is not well seen, even the handshake or the cheek kiss. Then I think the most important thing is to first set boundaries through mediation and negotiation to establish what things [should] be done.

These examples reveal how students explored the dynamic nature of culture, as reflected in the situations they discussed. Student 3 notes that culture is not static and cites the example of bullfights, which went from being a prestigious cultural practice to being rejected in Cali. Student 3 examines culture as a phenomenon beyond the notions of nation-state and how, although there is a sociocultural force behind the configuration of countries, they do not completely determine people's cultural identity because culture is dynamic, and it adapts to the various manifestations, interactions, and relationships among people, bringing their

individual experiences and identity traits. This shows how intercultural awareness appears in the students' discourse, as advanced cultural awareness implies "cultural understanding as provisional and open to revision" (Baker, 2012, p. 66).

This recognition at the cognitive/pragmatic levels is enriched by Student 11's response regarding culture, which embraces many elements, such as practices (communication, expressions), perspectives (religion), and products (gastronomy). Baker (2012) mentions that basic cultural awareness requires seeing "culture as a set of shared behaviours, beliefs, and values" (p. 66).

Student 11 identifies the connection between these cultural dimensions and their localized origin in the community, explaining that mediation and negotiation are necessary to establish intercultural relations. He describes how everyday cultural behaviors (smiling, shaking hands, kissing on the cheek) can be inappropriate in other contexts. Student 11 interprets mediation as a behavior that goes hand in hand with limits and norms for intercultural understanding.

Recognizing these realities in students' voices indicates a deep level of analysis and understanding of intercultural phenomena. For Baker (2012), awareness of these factors ("culturally based frames of reference, forms, and communicative practices," p. 66) is paramount for achieving intercultural awareness through connection with diverse cultures, given their emergent and hybrid nature. Intercultural awareness manifestations were identified at the cognitive and pragmatic levels through the explicit description of ideas and perceptions, the explanation of examples of cultural change, the recognition of diverse cultural dimensions, and the establishment of boundaries in intercultural relations.

Conclusions

This study attempted to counter the omission of the roles that intercultural awareness and multimodal pedagogies play in EFL. It addressed the lack of spaces to promote learners' critical perspectives. After a pedagogical intervention based on multimodal pedagogies, data revealed that learners changed their ideas about culture and intercultural relationships throughout the pedagogical experience and showed how integrating multimodal pedagogies and intercultural awareness fosters the development of intercultural skills and critical views in language teaching/learning.

Before the intervention, the initial administration of the questionnaire showed learners' high cognitive and pragmatic levels of intercultural awareness. This promoted the development of more complex and nuanced understandings of intercultural phenomena.

During the intervention, learners represented their ideas about the concept of culture and examined some cultural behaviors from their college life. Multimodal products revealed that although learners associated the concept of culture with culturalist and monolithic views in their drawings, they identified its multidimensional nature. The discussion of experiences and the recognition of social issues were major features of students' voices and of the need to adopt critical stances towards inequality and discrimination. These ideas evolved when learners designed a meme portraying a complex cultural phenomenon, such as the revitalization of Colombian Indigenous languages and cultures. Students performed a critical and nuanced perspective of culture as a social and multimodal entity.

After the intervention, although the results coming from the two instances of the questionnaire did not show a meaningful difference, qualitative data illustrated the students' reflections and how their conceptions and interpretations of culture and intercultural phenomena became more complex by identifying the dynamic, multifaceted, and relative nature of culture and how its manifestations go beyond the realm of national or geographical representations. Finally, students discussed the roles of mediation and negotiation in facilitating intercultural relationships.

Findings reflected the impact of a multimodal approach in EFL. Results echoed Stein's (2004) assump-

tions of multimodal pedagogies and showed how the multimodal dimension in EFL promotes intercultural skills. This study discusses how multimodal pedagogies and intercultural language teaching facilitate the adoption of critical views of social phenomena and bring social realities closer to the language classroom. There are still several inquiry areas to address, such as the integration of multimodal approaches in ELT curricula, the development of frameworks for multimodal pedagogies at higher education, and the analysis of pedagogical proposals integrating multimodal pedagogies to enhance intercultural language teaching.

References

Aguilar-Cruz, P. J. (2018). Herramienta multimodal basada en tareas para el aprendizaje del inglés en el grado sexto en Florencia, Caquetá (Colombia). *Ciencias Sociales y Educación*, *7*(14), 65–83. https://doi.org/10.22395/csye.v7n14a4

Ajayi, L. (2008). Meaning-making, multimodal representation, and transformative pedagogy: An exploration of meaning construction instructional practices in an ESL high school classroom. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *7*(3–4), 206–229. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348450802237822

Aldana Gutiérrez, Y., Baquero Rodríguez, M. J., Rivero Ortiz, G. A., & Romero García, D. C. (2012). Applying connectivist principles and the task-based approach to the design of a multimodal didactic unit. *HOW*, *19*(1), 93–122.

Almeida, D., & Souza, V. (2017). Toward a multimodal critical approach to the teaching of EFL in Brazil. In L. D. Kamhi-Stein, G. Díaz Maggioli, & L. C. de Oliveira (Ed.), *English language teaching in South America: Policy, preparation and practices* (pp. 206–218). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783097982-014

Álvarez Valencia, J. A. (2016a). Meaning making and communication in the multimodal age: Ideas for language teachers. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *18*(1), 98–115. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n1.8403

Álvarez Valencia, J. A. (2016b). Social networking sites for language learning: Examining learning theories in nested semiotic spaces. *Signo y Pensamiento*, *35*(68), 66–84. https://doi.org/10.11144/Javeriana.syp35-68.snsl

Álvarez Valencia, J. A. (2018). Visiones de lengua y enseñanza de lengua extranjera: una perspectiva desde la multimodalidad. In M. Machado (Ed.), *Reflexões, perspectivas e práticas no estágio supervisionado em letras* (pp. 56–72). Editora Unemat.

Álvarez Valencia, J. A. (2021). Practical and theoretical articulations between multimodal pedagogies and an intercultural orientation to second/foreign language education. In J. A. Álvarez Valencia, A. Ramírez Espinosa, & O. Vergara Luján (Eds.), *Interculturality in teacher education: Theoretical and practical considerations* (pp. 41–69). Programa Editorial Universidad del Valle.

Álvarez Valencia, J. A. (2022). Trans-semiotizing and resourcing resources in language education: Towards a multimodal social semiotic perspective on intercultural communication. In N. Miranda, A.-M. de Mejía, & S. Valencia Giraldo (Eds.), *Language education in multilingual Colombia: Critical perspectives and voices from the field* (pp. 172–187). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003155263-16

Álvarez Valencia, J. A., & Michelson, K. (2022). A design perspective on intercultural communication in second/foreign language education. *Journal of International and Intercultural Communication*, *16*(4), 399–418. https://doi.org/10.1080/17513057.2022.2066152

Álvarez Valencia, J. A., & Miranda, N. (2022). Indigenous students' agency vis-à-vis the practices of recognition and invisibilization in a multilingual university. *Teaching in Higher Education*, *27*(4), 470–488. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2022.2053952

Álvarez Valencia, J. A., & Valencia, A. (2023). Indigenous students and university stakeholders' challenges and opportunities for intercultural decolonial dialogue. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *25*(2), 219–237. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v25n2.102812

Angay-Crowder, T., Choi, J., & Yi, Y. (2013). Putting multiliteracies into practice: Digital storytelling for multilingual adolescents in a summer program. *TESL Canada Journal*, *30*(2), 36–45. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v30i2.1140

Archer, A. (2008). Cultural studies meets academic literacies: Exploring students' resources through symbolic objects. *Teaching in Higher Education*, *13*(4), 383–394, https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510802169657

Archer, A. (2011). Clip-art or design: Exploring the challenges of multimodal texts for writing centres in higher education. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, *29*(4), 387–399. https://doi.org/10.2989/16073614.2011.651938

Baker, W. (2012). From cultural awareness to intercultural awareness: Culture in ELT. *ELT Journal*, *66*(1), 62–70. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr017

Bell, S. (2016). Writing against formal constraints in art and design: Making words count. In A. Archer & E. O. Breuer (Eds.), *Multimodality in higher education* (pp. 136–166). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/97890043120067_009

Bezerra, F. (2012). Multimodality in the EFL classroom. *Brazilian English Language Teaching Journal*, *2*(2).

Bygate, M., Skehan, P., & Swain, M. (2001). *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching, and testing*. Pearson Education.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.

Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2009). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203864739

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Elo, S., Kääriäinen, M., Kanste, O., Pölkki, T., Utriainen, K., & Kyngäs, H. (2014). Qualitative content analysis: A focus on trustworthiness. *Sage Open*, *4*(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244014522633

Farías, M., & Véliz, L. (2019). Multimodal texts in Chilean English teaching education: Experiences from educators and pre-service teachers. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 21*(2), 13–27. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v21n2.75172

Fernández Benavides, A., Cruz Mosquera, A. M., & Castrillón Valderrama, C. (2024). Language learning from an intercultural perspective: Exploring Afro culture. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *26*(2), 51–69. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.18919

Godwin-Jones, R. (2019). Telecollaboration as an approach to developing intercultural communication competence. *Language Learning & Technology*, *23*(3), 8–28. https://doi.org/10.64152/10125/44691

Gómez-Giraldo, J. S. (2022). Promoting dialogic action through the expansion of English language learners' communicative repertoires. *HOW*, *29*(1), 84–104. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.29.1.647

Harrop-Allin, S. (2011). Playing with Barbie: Exploring South African township children's games as resources for pedagogy. In L. Green (Ed.), *Learning, teaching and musical identities: Voices across cultures* (pp. 156–169). University of Indiana Press.

Heberle, V. (2010). Multimodal literacy for teenage EFL students. *Cadernos de Letras*, (27), 101–116.

Heberle, V. M., Bezerra, F. A., & Nascimento, R. (2022). Exploring multimodality and multiliteracies in public university contexts for student-teachers of English as an additional language. *Fórum Linguístico*, *19*(3), 8157–8176.

Hernández Sampieri, R., Fernández Collado, C., & Baptista Lucio, P. (2014). *Metodología de la investigación* (6th ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Hsieh, H.-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, *15*(9), 1277–1288. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305276687

Huang, C.-W., & Archer, A. (2017). Training writing centre tutors for argument in a digital age. In S. Clarence & L. Dison (Eds.), *Writing centres in higher education: Working in and across the disciplines* (pp. 81–96). Sun Media. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv1nzfxgg.11

Jewitt, C. (2006). *Technology, literacy and learning: A multimodal approach*. Routledge.

Kress, G. (1998). Visual and verbal modes of representation in electronically mediated communication: The potentials of new forms of texts. In I. Snyder (Ed.), *Page to screen: Taking literacy into the electronic era* (pp. 53–79). Routledge.

Kress, G. (2010). *Multimodality: A social semiotic approach to contemporary communication*. Routledge.

Kress, G. (2012). Thinking about the notion of 'cross-cultural' from a social semiotic perspective. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *12*(4), 369–385. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2012.722102

Kress, G. (2014). What is mode? In C. Jewitt (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of multimodal analysis* (pp. 60–75). Routledge.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Scarino, A. (2013). *Intercultural language teaching and learning*. Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118482070

Miranda, N., & Valencia Giraldo, S. (2023). English in education policy in Colombia: Two decades of policy discourse and appropriation. In N. Miranda, A.-M. de Mejía, & S. Valencia Giraldo (Eds.), *Language education in multilingual Colombia: Critical perspectives and voices from the field* (pp. 94–113). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003155263-10

Moran, P. R. (2001). *Teaching culture: Perspectives in practice*. Heinle & Heinle.

The New London Group. (1996). A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Designing social futures. *Harvard Educational Review*, *66*(1), 60–93. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.66.1.17370n67v22j160u

Newfield, D. (2014). Transformation, transduction and the transmodal moment. In C. Jewitt (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of multimodal analysis* (2nd ed., pp. 100–113). Routledge.

Newfield, D., & Maungedzo, R. (2006). Mobilising and modalising poetry in a Soweto classroom. *English Studies in Africa*, *49*(1), 71–93. https://doi.org/10.1080/00138390608691344

Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667336

O'Dowd, R. (2021). Virtual exchange: Moving forward into the next decade. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *34*(3), 209–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2021.1902201

Poyatos, F. (Ed.). (2002). *Nonverbal communication across disciplines: Paralanguage, kinesics, silence, personal and environmental interaction* (Vol. 2). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/z.ncad2

Prince, R., & Archer, A. (2014). Exploring academic voice in multimodal quantitative texts. *Literacy and Numeracy Studies*, *22*(1), 39–57. https://doi.org/10.5130/lns.v22i1.4178

Rico-Troncoso, C. (2021). Culture and interculture: What are we talking about? Challenges for the ELT community. *HOW*, *28*(3), 105–118. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.28.3.676

Rincón, J. A., & Clavijo-Olarte, A. (2016). Fostering EFL learners' literacies through local inquiry in a multimodal experience. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *18*(2), 67–82. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n2.10610

Rojas Suazo, M. (2017). *Multimodal literacy practices: A case study of digital storytelling in EFL seventh grade classrooms* [Master's thesis, Universidad Andrés Bello]. Repositorio UNAB. https://bit.ly/43t4qX4

Stein, P. (2004). Representation, rights, and resources: Multimodal pedagogies in the language and literacy classroom. In B. Norton & K. Toohey (Eds.), *Critical pedagogies and language learning* (pp. 95–115). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524834.006

Stein, P. (2008). *Multimodal pedagogies in diverse classrooms: Representation, rights and resources*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203935804

Stein, P., & Newfield, D. (2006). Multiliteracies and multimodality in English in education in Africa: Mapping the terrain. *English Studies in Africa*, *49*(1), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1080/00138390608691341

Thesen, L. (2001). Modes, literacies and power: A university case study. *Language and Education*, *15*(2–3), 132–145. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780108666806

Thesen, L. (2014). Risk as productive: Working with dilemmas in the writing of research. In L. Thesen & L. Cooper (Eds.), *Risk in academic writing: Postgraduate students, their*

teachers and the making of knowledge (pp. 1–24). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783091065-004

Unsworth, L. (2006). Towards a metalanguage for multiliteracies education: Describing the meaning-making resources of language-image interaction. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *5*(1), 55–76.

Valdiri Vinasco, C., Miranda Nieves, N., & García Arteaga, E. (2024). Decolonialidad e interculturalidad crítica en una propuesta de inglés con fines específicos para ciencias naturales. *Argentinian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *12*(2), 53–64. https://bit.ly/4dkLA7R

van Leeuwen, T. (2005). *Introducing social semiotics*. Routledge.

van Leeuwen, T. (2006). Towards a semiotics of typography. *Information Design Journal*, *14*(2), 139–155. https://doi.org/10.1075/idj.14.2.06lee

van Leeuwen, T., & Humphrey, S. (1996). On learning to look through a geographer's eyes. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society*. Addison Wesley Longman.

Veliz, L., & Hossein, S. (2020). EAL teachers' (un)preparedness to implement classroom practice for multiliteracies pedagogy. In W. Tao & I. Liyanage (Eds.), *Multilingual education yearbook 2020: Teacher education and multilingual contexts* (pp. 63–80). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-41211-1_4

Vinogradova, P., Linville, H. A., & Bickel, B. (2011). "Listen to my story and you will know me": Digital stories as student-centered collaborative projects. *TESOL Journal*, *2*(2), 173–202. https://doi.org/10.5054/tj.2011.250380

Walsh, C. (2009). Interculturalidad crítica y pedagogía de-colonial: apuestas (des)de el in-surgir, re-existir y re-vivir. In V. M. Candau (Ed.), *Educação intercultural na América Latina: entre concepções, tensões e propostas* (pp. 14–53). 7 Letras.

Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Longman.

Yuni, J., & Urbano, C. (2005). *Investigación etnográfica e investigación acción: codificar la información*. Brujas.

Zacchi, V. J. (2016). Multimodality, mass migration and English language teaching. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, *16*(4), 595–622. https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-6398201698 77

About the Author

Alejandro Fernández holds a BA in Foreign Languages and an MA in Interlinguistic and Intercultural Studies from Universidad del Valle (Colombia), where he is currently a full-time professor. His research interests focus on interculturality, multimodal pedagogies, critical pedagogy, and nonverbal communication.

PROFILE

Issues from Novice Teacher Researchers

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.118505

Impact of the Dogme ELT Methodology on Sixth-Grade Students' Willingness to Communicate

Impacto de la metodología Dogme en la disposición de estudiantes de sexto grado para comunicarse en inglés

Patricia Cuervo Vera
Mariza Guadalupe Méndez López
Universidad Veracruzana, Veracruz, Mexico

This article reports an action-research study on willingness to communicate orally in English. Implemented through a conversation club, it aimed to tackle low willingness to communicate at a bilingual primary school. The objective was to see the impact of Dogme on learners. Data were collected using class observations, interviews, Likert-scale surveys, and open-ended questionnaires. Data were analyzed through thematic content analysis. The findings suggest that students aged 11–12 were more willing to communicate in English and to produce longer utterances during conversations about themselves and relevant events in their lives. Participants also showed favorable perceptions about Dogme-type lessons. Using Dogme encouraged participants' communication, so teachers can nurture students' interests by personalizing speaking activities.

Keywords: Dogme methodology, early teens, speaking activities, willingness to communicate

Este artículo presenta un estudio de investigación-acción sobre la disposición para comunicarse en inglés. La implementación, mediante un club de conversación, abordó la baja motivación de los estudiantes de una escuela primaria bilingüe para comunicarse. Se buscó conocer el impacto de la metodología Dogme. Se realizaron observaciones de clase, entrevistas, encuestas y cuestionarios, y los datos se sometieron a un análisis de contenido temático. Los resultados sugieren que los estudiantes estaban más dispuestos a comunicarse y producían enunciados más largos cuando las conversaciones eran sobre sí mismos y sobre acontecimientos relevantes en sus vidas. Los participantes mostraron percepciones favorables sobre las clases Dogme. El uso de Dogme motivó la participación de estudiantes, de tal manera que los maestros pueden motivar a los estudiantes mediante la personalización de las actividades orales.

Palabras clave: actividades orales, disposición para comunicarse, metodología Dogme, preadolescentes

Patricia Cuervo Vera https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0821-4076 • Email: pcuervo@uv.mx
Mariza Guadalupe Méndez López https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5570-0440 • Email: marimendez@uv.mx

This article is based on the thesis completed by Cuervo Vera (2022). Professor Méndez López acted as the thesis supervisor.

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Cuervo Vera, P., & Méndez López, M. G. (2026). Impact of the Dogme ELT methodology on sixth-grade students' willingness to communicate. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 175–192. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.118505

This article was received on January 26, 2025 and accepted on October 3, 2025.

Introduction

Despite teachers' efforts and motivation strategies, such as introducing topics through videos or rewarding them with toy money notes redeemable for small gifts, sixth-grade students at a local bilingual primary school showed low willingness to communicate (WTC). While teaching, it was observed that most students did not lack language skills or vocabulary, but opportunities for authentic communicative activities were scarce. In addition, due to the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, speaking time was reduced, and peer interactions became even rarer in online lessons.

Moreover, the strict syllabus, routines, and school activities leave little or no time to use the target language for what these learners want to talk about. One of the authors of this paper is a teacher at the school, and she observed that the strict syllabus, routines, administrative guidelines, and school activities left her with little or no time to introduce English topics that could be more engaging for her students. The coursebook revolves around topics such as endangered animals in Australia, women's rights, or Confucianism, which do not seem to engage this kind of student in speaking activities.

This situation is problematic given that the school purports to follow a communicative approach in language teaching, for which learners' WTC is of paramount importance. The Dogme ELT methodology, with emphasis on conversational communication beyond the coursebook, seems to be an appropriate strategy to tackle this issue. Furthermore, there is a dearth of research on WTC among early adolescents or on implementing the Dogme methodology with this population (Ali et al., 2023). The Action Research reported here aimed to fill this gap by engaging a group of EFL young learners (aged 11–12) in a conversation club based on the ELT Dogme methodology.

The objective was to examine the impact of Dogme lessons on students' WTC, as this methodology emphasizes the communicative aspect of foreign language learning. One of the principles of Dogme is that a learner's beliefs, knowledge, experiences, and concerns are valid classroom content (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). In other words, speaking activities should be based on students' real interests and communicative needs. The questions that guided the study were: What is the impact of the Dogme methodology on sixth-grade students' WTC in English during speaking activities? What are the sixth-grade students' perceptions about Dogme-type lessons?

Theoretical Framework

Willingness to Communicate

WTC is influenced by a range of traits; some are stable and enduring, such as personality and intergroup relations, while others are situational and context-dependent. In MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) WTC model, communication in the target language (L2) is the priority, sustained by behavioral intention (i.e., WTC), which is, in turn, shaped by situated antecedents, motivational propensities, and affective-cognitive, social, and individual contexts. This conception of WTC aligns with the *social constructivist* perspective, as social and individual processes are interdependent in the co-construction of knowledge (McKinley, 2015; Palincsar, 1998). Consequently, WTC must be among the goals of language learning (MacIntyre et al., 1998), since interaction is the vehicle for learning and knowledge building.

Social constructivism traces its roots to Lev Vygotsky's work, whose theories have been expanded by numerous researchers and scholars. For social constructivists, motivation is both extrinsic and intrinsic. As a social phenomenon, learning depends not only on the individual's internal drive but also on the community (Berkeley University of California, n.d.). Similarly, elements of motivational propensity in MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) model include interpersonal and intergroup motivation. They state that "motivational propensi-

ties are based on the affective and cognitive contexts of intergroup interaction and ultimately lead to state self-confidence and a desire to interact with a particular person" (p. 550).

Thus, once WTC is achieved, interaction is guaranteed, which is a direct route to learning with an emphasis on scaffolding and socialization (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). Furthermore, as Palincsar (1998) suggested, interactions during classroom discussions enhance learners' cognitive development and communication skills in the foreign language. She also argues that teachers can mediate classroom discourse "by seeding the conversation with new ideas or alternatives to be considered that push students' thinking and discussion, and prepare them for conversation" (p. 365).

Dogme Methodology

Dogme is a methodology and a movement in ELT started by Scott Thornbury in 2000. He called for a return in ELT to a pre-method state "where learning was jointly constructed out of the talk that evolved in that simplest, and most prototypical of situations" (Thornbury, 2000, para. 9). The name Dogme comes from the analogy he made with a Danish filmmaking movement in 1995 that rejected the dependence on external resources and focused on the actual story and its relevance for the audience.

Dogme principles align with a communicative approach to language teaching, emphasizing speaking activities to promote learners' meaningful language use (Richards, 2006). Thus, the focus is on learners' communicative needs and fluency rather than on explicit grammar (Canale & Swain, 1980; Richards, 2006; Savignon, 2002).

Dogme is a methodology that highlights the dialogic nature of communication and its central role in language learning, aligning with a communicative approach to language teaching. Dogme proposes that natural conversation be encouraged in the language classroom and that learners be given time to talk about themselves. Given the proper conditions, the dialogue between students and teachers will naturally bring out actual communication needs, interests, and interaction.

For Meddings and Thornbury (2009), an over-reliance on imported materials (such as coursebooks) jeopardizes students' involvement and the learning opportunities arising from spontaneous interaction between learners and teachers. Consequently, Dogme challenges the "over-reliance on materials and technical wizardry in current language teaching. The emphasis on the here-and-now requires the teacher to focus on the actual learners and the content that is relevant to them" (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 6).

Dogme revolves around three core precepts for teaching: this should be (a) conversation-driven, (b) materials-light, and focused on (c) emergent language. It shares similarities with the communicative approach, as it, too, attempts to restore the communicative aspect of language learning (Thornbury, n.d.). It also encourages a textbook-free teaching methodology based on conversations between teacher and learner and among learners (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). Through Dogme, interaction, feedback, or "language-related episodes" are likely to influence learning as "these are moments during a communicative activity when learners pay explicit attention to a feature of the language" (Thornbury, 2009, para. 4). Furthermore, it is a common belief that if students are not interested, they will not learn; therefore, class material should be generated by the learners and the lessons directed by them. The teacher's role is to facilitate the conversation and provide answers to grammar and vocabulary questions as they arise (British Council, n.d.).

Dogme Studies Review

As mentioned before, studies about WTC in early adolescents and the use of Dogme are scarce (Ali et al., 2023). Thus, the following review includes studies with tertiary students and a few with children.

AlAdl (2023) implemented Dogme lessons for 12 weeks in his university art classes to improve student speaking skills and self-efficacy. Following a quantitative research design, results showed that students' speaking skills improved during the study period. The researcher concluded that Dogme lessons can be used as a technique to increase speaking skills and WTC. However, the author is cautious about conducting an entire course using only the Dogme approach.

Bulut and Babajanova (2021) investigated whether Dogme online lessons could promote communication and confidence among Turkish students aged 15–16. The researchers applied the WTC scale to 33 students. Although the results showed that the Dogme approach helped participants feel motivated to speak with relatives and friends, they still refused to talk with native speakers in out-of-school settings. Researchers concluded that the Dogme approach was beneficial for participants since they developed fluency and self-confidence.

Xerri (2012) implemented a Dogme lesson for a whole year in English classes with students aged 16–18. The objective was to allow students to practice their speaking skills by focusing on emergent language, moving away from an evaluation-focused teaching style. Results revealed that students gained confidence in speaking English when interacting with peers about topics of their interest. The implementation was beneficial as it improved classroom interaction. The researcher expressed that the implementation helped him focus less on accuracy, which helped students develop their fluency.

Moskalets et al. (2024) conducted a 4-month case study with Ukrainian refugees in Germany. During this period, 26 students aged 11–16 were taught different subjects using Dogme. Although the study's purpose was not to evaluate the implementation of Dogme (also known as "teaching unplugged"), it is one of the few conducted with young learners. Participants reported that interaction with the teacher or classmates was the most significant factor in providing positive experiences and engagement. Researchers concluded that the role of the teacher, the learning environment, and the subject content were the essential factors for a positive learning process that proved satisfactory for the participants.

Finally, Chuquitarco Guagchinga (2024) conducted a quantitative investigation with 24 children in an Ecuadorian private primary school. The objective of the study was to analyze the effect of Dogme on speaking skills. The researcher found that confidence and motivation to talk during class activities increased. Moreover, the rapport between the teacher and students improved because the content was based on students' interests. The author concluded that Dogme improved not only speaking but also attitude and listening, as students used a variety of expressions to clarify their messages.

Method

This study fits into the category of action research. According to Ferrance (2000), "action research is a process in which participants examine their educational practice systematically and carefully, using the techniques of research" (p. 1). Action research is a cycle summarized as "plan, act, observe, reflect" (Burns, 2011, p. 238). This study complies with the five stages presented by Ferrance (2000): (a) identification of the problem area during class observation; (b) collection and organization of data through class observation, surveys, and questionnaires; (c) interpretation of the collected data; (d) action based on data using Dogme in a conversation club; and (e) reflection about the results and implications of the intervention. We used class observations, interviews, Likert-scale surveys, and open-ended questionnaires to collect data.

Context and Participants

The study took place in the primary level of a private urban bilingual school in Veracruz (Mexico). Students are taught in English for 3 hours a day (2

hours online during the COVID-19 pandemic), and the other 3 hours in Spanish for the rest of the subjects. The school's English program is purportedly student-centered and based on the communicative approach. It follows a six-level book series for primary EFL learners.

Students are placed in their English class according to their age and the grade they are in in the Mexican educational system. However, in a few cases, the language coordinator and the group's teacher may decide to move a student to a lower grade when the learner lacks the basic skills to function in the target language level.

Twenty students were interviewed and observed before the implementation (10 girls and 10 boys, aged 11–12). The participants belonged to two groups: 6A, with 11 registered students, and 6B, with nine students. Although the groups had different schedules and took classes separately, both shared the same teacher, lesson plan, syllabus, book, and activities. The implementation was conducted with both groups, but the results are presented as a single group.

Implementation

The intervention was carried out in a virtual setting using Google Meet due to COVID-19 pandemic restrictions. Google Classroom was used to distribute the survey and questionnaires, while Jamboard (a digital interactive board), documents, and slides were employed in the implementation. The class videos were available for a limited time to take notes for the research journal and record the students' participation. The conversation club met once a week for half an hour per group, covering six lessons. Attendance at the conversation club was voluntary.

Prior to the intervention, the participating students were given a questionnaire where, among other questions, they could suggest topics for the conversation club. During the implementation, the topics mentioned in the students' answers were incorporated. Methodologically, the lessons followed Dogme principles suggested by Meddings and Thornbury (2009). Table 1 summarizes the topics covered during the six lessons.

On the first day, the rules and dynamics for the conversation club were explained. The purpose was to talk about the things we like and our interests without worrying about making mistakes. It was emphasized that everyone was welcome to join in the conversation. Students could respectfully ask their classmates or teacher any questions, share opinions, and help others with vocabulary, if needed. It was also explained that any new word or expression would be written down for focus and comment at the end.

Table 1. Topics of the Intervention

Lesson	Title	Description
1	Names	Sharing the stories behind our names and their meaning
2	Likes and dislikes	Talking about our favorite and least favorite activities
3	Best in 24 hours	Sharing about recent enjoyable experiences
4	Celebrities	Sharing about our favorite celebrity in music, sports, social media, etc.
5	Opinions	Talking about our ideas regarding various topics. Agreeing and disagreeing
6	My top three	Sharing about common emotions, things that make us happy or irritate us

The lesson plans followed Dogme principles: they were dialogic, encouraging students to talk about themselves. The emphasis was on giving students the opportunity to voice their beliefs, knowledge, and experiences, and promote teacher–learner and learner–learner interaction. Following the three core precepts of Dogme, the lessons were conversation-driven, materials-light, and focused on emergent language. The objective was to positively impact participants' WTC in a setting that promoted socialization and conversation as vehicles for exchanging personal meanings.

The structure and dynamics were simple, and the topic was subject to change according to the needs of the moment. The teachers would not interrupt the conversation thread to introduce or impose their plan or topic. They remained aware of what students wanted to discuss and the course the conversation would take. In this way, teachers were able to extend the topic of Lesson 5 (opinions) and use part of Lesson 6 to discuss video games, as the participants were highly interested in this topic.

Every lesson, the conversation club started with the teacher asking how students were, what news they had, or anything they wanted to share. Some participants were active from the beginning, speaking up or typing comments in the chat. As the weeks passed, the conversation flowed more naturally. Students would share about their siblings, pets, or the special events they were planning for their graduation day.

After the introduction, the day's activity was explained, which was also a broad topic, and students were encouraged to ask questions or comment on each other's ideas. The teacher showed interest in whatever students shared and avoided explicit error correction. Also, students wrote down any word, phrase, or grammar feature that emerged from the conversation to focus on later.

Data Collection and Instruments

Before the Implementation

Prior to the intervention, a series of data collection procedures was followed to diagnose the participants' conditions regarding the phenomenon under investigation (in our case, WTC). This diagnostic stage also helped us design the intervention. The instruments used were a two-hour online class observation, a Likert-scale survey, and an open-ended questionnaire.

Observation. A two-hour online lesson was observed via Google Meet with each group. The objective was to determine whether students were willing to engage in English conversations with the teacher and classmates, using prompts from the coursebook or those suggested by the teacher.

To keep track of the students' interventions during the classes, Havwini's (2019) coding scheme was modified. The scheme comprises six patterns that echo the categories in the WTC survey. Some changes in Pattern 3 and Pattern 5 were made: "Presenting one's opinion—or spontaneous comments—in the class" and "Giving comments or questions in response to peers'—or teacher's—ideas," respectively. A distinction based on utterance length was made: L = long, M = medium, and S = short (see Appendix A). All the students' utterances during the observation were short.

Survey. We used Tavakoli and Davoudi's (2017) WTC survey (which is based on MacIntyre et al., 2001) to assess the participants' levels of WTC (see Appendix B). This survey has been used in similar studies (e.g., Alemi et al., 2011; Robson, 2015), which confers validity and reliability to the instrument. We adapted the survey and translated it into Spanish to facilitate students' comprehension. We also used face emojis as scale anchors to make it more appealing to participants.

Open-Ended Questionnaire. This consisted of six open-ended questions about learners' reasons for

participating in or not participating in conversations in the target language, their opinions about the coursebook's topics, and their feelings when speaking English, among others (see Appendix C).

From the data collected at this stage, we found that most students expressed a high level of self-perceived WTC. Only a handful of students reported feeling nervous, awkward, or insecure when speaking English in class. Nevertheless, during the observation, half of the participants showed low WTC, with a median of only 3.5 utterances per person. Eight students never said a word during the two-hour class.

The most observed patterns were related to WTC with the teacher or the whole class. Learners were more willing to speak when they had to complete class activities, answer the teacher's questions, or ask the teacher a question; a few were willing to give spontaneous comments, especially during the warm-up. In contrast, they were less inclined to speak with peers, comment on classmates' ideas, or help others to recall words. In their answers to the questionnaire, most participants said they liked the conversation activities from the book; they labeled them as "good," "fine," "some easy, some difficult," and one student said they were "boring." However, when asked what they like to talk about in English, only four students (out of 20) answered "topics from the book" or "whatever the teacher brings," whereas the remaining 16 students mentioned video games, life, peers' likes, food, music, sports, and science.

During and After the Implementation

The following tools were used to collect data during and after the implementation:

Observation. We video-recorded each 30-minute lesson. In this way, students' performance could be observed, allowing us to record any relevant data in the research journal. A record of the students' WTC was kept using the same observation protocol used before the implementation. Havwini's (2019) coding scheme allowed us to categorize WTC patterns for each participant. On this occasion, the short, medium, and long-utterance categories were more useful, as students were speaking for longer periods. It was advantageous to have access to the videos, allowing us to pause, watch again, count the seconds, and classify the pattern type. Students' names were coded using the first two consonants and the last vowel of their names.

Journal. As suggested above, we kept a research journal to record instances of participants' WTC, the factors that could affect it, and the overall development of the intervention. The journal notes included comments on students' behavior, interactions in the chat, and incidents during the session, such as students having technical or health issues.

Interview. After the implementation, we conducted interviews with 10 participants via Google Meet. Although our initial intention was to interview only 6 participants (2 per WTC level: low, medium, high), students with low WTC were unavailable for interviews. Then, we used random sampling to select interviewees, increasing the sample to 10 to ensure greater representativeness of the whole group. The interviews were conducted individually in Spanish (see Appendix D).

One interviewee had technical problems and left the video call after the first question. Additionally, we requested that the head teacher record her observations of any differences between the students' WTC during the conversation club and their regular English class. We later transcribed all the audio recordings.

Data Analysis

The data analysis began by watching the recorded classes to identify students' WTC patterns and categorize their utterances using the observation form (see Appendix A). For each speaking pattern, we coded utterance length with the corresponding letter (L, M, S). Next, we counted all the utterances per student and entered the numerical (quantitative) data in an Excel

spreadsheet. With these numerical data, we created pie and bar graphs that helped us see the patterns' frequency and trends. We also obtained the utterances' average and median and compared the data collected before and during implementation to determine the impact of Dogme on participants' WTC, as stated in Research Question 1.

Our second research question was about students' perceptions of Dogme. Thus, we transcribed all the participants' interviews. Later, using qualitative data analysis software (ATLAS.ti), we coded the interviews to identify all themes that emerged. The data analysis was conducted using thematic content analysis.

Finally, triangulating quantitative data from Excel graphs, qualitative data from the interviews, and notes from our research journal enabled us to construct and test our assertions.

Findings

Impact of Dogme on Sixth-Grade Students' WTC

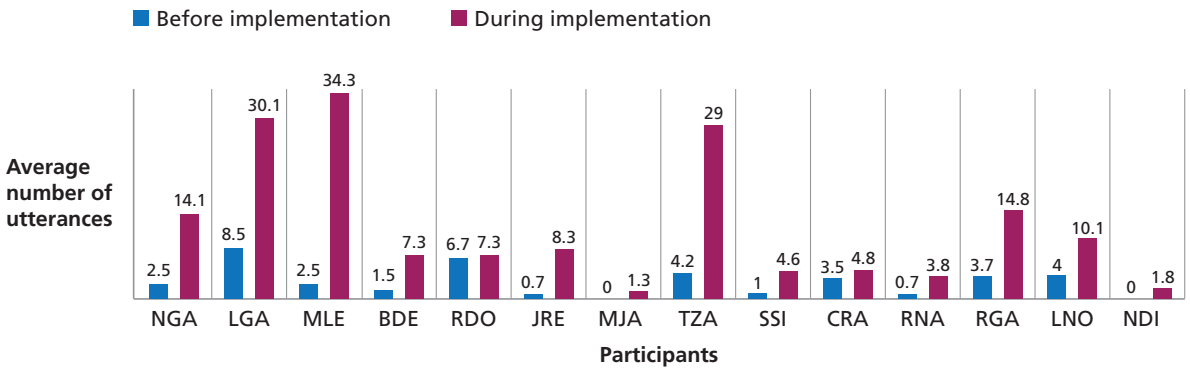
After processing the data, it was noticeable that the participants' number of utterances during the lessons went from 39.75 to 172.17, which is more than a fourfold increase. The median number of utterances quintupled, rising from 0.88 to 4.75. The median is the middle number in a sorted list of numbers, either ascending or descending. Since the median helps to identify the high values from the low values, it was more descriptive and adequate for this study.

Figure 1 shows the average number of utterances per student, before and during the implementation. Participants MLE and LGA had the highest number of utterances during the implementation. The increase in the number of times every participant was willing to communicate orally is more evident in students NGA, MLE, JRE, TZA, and RGA. For instance, MLE moved from a medium to high level of WTC, and her average went up from 2.5 to 34.33 utterances, which means it was multiplied by a factor of 13. Similarly, participant NGA's average increased almost sixfold, from 2.5 to 14.17. Although LGA also showed an increase in utterances, it was not as pronounced as for the other participants. LGA had the highest number of utterances before the implementation, but this was not the case during the implementation.

In this regard, the teacher mentioned that some students were more active during the implementation than in a regular class. About student NGA, she commented:

> NGA, on the other hand, I think that, especially on the day where [*sic*] you talked about celebrities, I think NGA was really in her element, and she participated, I think, a little bit more in conversation club. I think usually I would like, call her name and ask her for her opinion,

Figure 1. Comparative Average Number of Utterances per Participant Before and During Implementation



> but I felt like in conversation club, she just was a little bit more free [*sic*].

Data obtained from the interviews suggested that the topics had a positive impact on participants' WTC. We asked them to rate their self-perceived WTC level on a scale of 1 to 10 during the intervention. The highest self-perceived WTC was NGA's; she gave herself a 9.3. When we asked why, she mentioned that the topics made her want to talk more:

> Well, [the topics] were cool, because in fact, [the topics] were about the things children see nowadays, because practically these are the current topics, that is why I participated a little bit more. . . . If the class were about the things you like and do every day, I would be talking like a birdie.

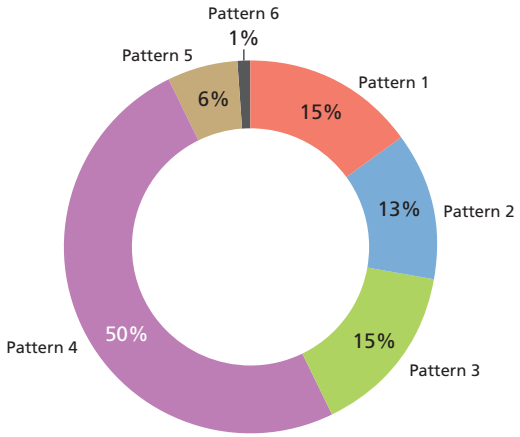
Participant MLE also gave herself a nine in WTC. She attributed this to the topics, and she said she liked talking about herself or discussing the things she knows more about:

> It also depends on the topic we are talking about, but I think a nine…because I am a perfectionist in everything. Indeed, we were asked about ourselves, so we talked about ourselves, and I liked that. Like a topic I like, a series or so, a celebrity, singer, or dancer. And since we talked about singer celebrities. So yes, those are the topics I am more attached to, the ones I know more about… and I think that is when I participate more, when there is a topic I know, let's say, music, or dancing.

As noted in our research journal, while observing the class recordings, we realized that WTC patterns also varied during the implementation. Participants produced more spontaneous comments about their personal opinions or peers' ideas; in other words, they were more willing to communicate, even when it was not their turn to participate in the day's activity. Figure 2 and Figure 3 present the percentages of utterances per pattern before and during the implementation.

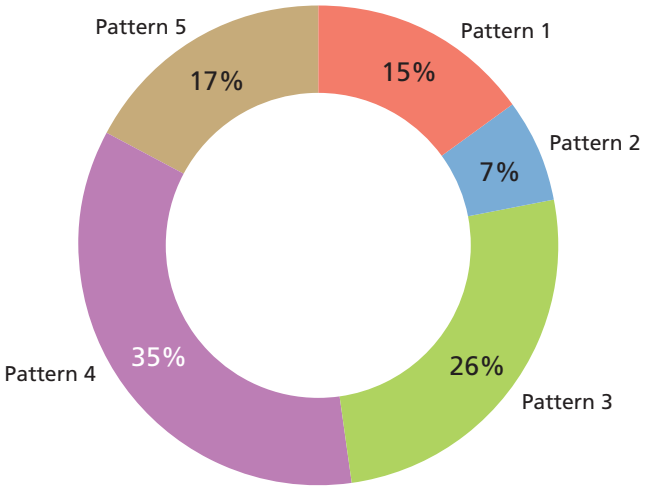
Students' utterances asking the teacher a question (Pattern 2) decreased from 13% to 7%, and participation in class activities (Pattern 4) declined from 50 % to 35 %. Meanwhile, students' WTC grew in Pattern 3, from 6% to 17%, as they made more spontaneous comments in class, and in Pattern 5, from 15% to 26%, as they were

Figure 2. Percentage of Utterances per WTC Pattern Before Implementation



Note. Pattern 1 = Volunteering to answer the teacher's questions to the class; Pattern 2 = Asking a question to the teacher; Pattern 3 = Presenting one's opinion or spontaneous comments in the class; Pattern 4 = Volunteering to participate in class activities; Pattern 5 = Giving comments or questions in response to peer's or teacher's ideas; Pattern 6 = Helping peers to recall difficult or forgotten words.

Figure 3. Percentage of Utterances per WTC Pattern During Implementation



more willing to ask or comment on peers' ideas. There was no significant change in Pattern 1 (answering the teacher's questions) and Pattern 6 (helping a peer remember a forgotten or difficult word).

Along with an increase in the number and the length of the utterances, students accomplished communicative purposes during the implementation. Participants shared about past events in their lives or gave opinions on relevant topics for their age. For example, participant MLE talked about a personal case of cyberbullying and explained social media's dangers and the way she protects her privacy. Similarly, other participants shared interesting or even funny anecdotes about their names.

Even though almost all participants spoke more, the impact of Dogme was less noticeable among students with low WTC. Although the average number of utterances increased from 0 to 1.33 and 1.83 in students MJA and NDI, respectively, the number of students with low WTC remained the same before and during implementation.

Perceptions About Dogme

Participants expressed feeling encouraged to communicate because they felt relaxed, as the topics and context during implementation were different from those in regular English classes.

Participants described the conversation club as different from a regular English class, a moment to relax and socialize with classmates. MLE mentioned the difference she experienced during the conversation club: "It seemed a little fun to me. [The topics were] very good, because even though we never stopped speaking English, yes, for a moment we came out of the pages [of the book] and all that."

Similarly, a couple of students indicated that Dogme presented a different dynamic in comparison to the usual school routine:

> Yes, it was different from what we were used to in school; we talked like, not to talk and do activities, because sometimes we talk about the topic but doing activities too [*sic*]. Here [in the conversation club] is more like only talking about the topic. (LGA)

Participants also perceived Dogme as related to socialization. Two students mentioned how they saw an opportunity to get to know their classmates better in a relaxed context: "Well, yes, it was creative…but also to learn how [English] is used more between us, like to get to know each other better. It truly

helped us a lot to begin to socialize more between us" (TZA).

Moreover, students said that the topics combined with interaction with their peers made the conversation club entertaining:

> Suddenly, [the conversation club] was to relax and talk about problems or talk about a topic we liked. And the truth is that I felt very relaxed, and the topics [were] very good. So, because sometimes my classmates participated, I was happy I had at least someone to talk to, right? Besides [the teacher]. (LGA)

Discussion

The strategy used during this implementation was to select content that the participants could relate to. The purpose was also to provide authentic communication opportunities in the relaxed setting of a conversation club.

This study provided insight into how implementing changes in class dynamics and speaking activity topics can positively impact students' WTC. Dogme was conducive to increasing students' utterances in class: students spoke more frequently and for longer periods. Similar results were reported by Chuquitarco Guagchinga (2024) and AlAdl (2023). In addition, participants' interventions showed quality in accomplishing communicative purposes. According to Kang (2005), WTC needs to be emphasized in language pedagogy because it influences the frequency of communication and contributes to target language acquisition. The quantitative data showed that participants significantly increased the number and length of their utterances. Students were more willing to use English to make spontaneous remarks or comment on peers' ideas. The same was reported by Bulut and Babajanova (2021): participants were more willing to interact freely with peers. In this study, learners also showed initiative in sharing information about family, likes, dislikes, desires, and dreams. They also expressed opinions about musical or sports preferences, asking for clarification during their partners' interventions, or telling funny stories. Thus, we can argue that their communicative competence developed during the implementation.

Dogme proved to be applicable to achieving the objectives of both the implementation and the study. The setting for the conversation club aligned with the communicative approach and Dogme principles and precepts. The participants seemed to positively respond to the proposed topics, as the goal was to stimulate meaningful and authentic conversations. This aligns with Moskalets et al.'s (2024) study that revealed the importance of peer interaction in class dynamics. Within the communicative approach framework, this project gives students the opportunity to experiment with what they know in English in a context where teachers and classmates are tolerant of errors that do not hinder understanding of the message (Richards, 2006). Additionally, learners supplied valid content for the class as they expressed beliefs, knowledge, and concerns, supporting the learning process and even engaging their peers in conversation (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009).

This study showed that young students are willing to take part in English conversations with the teacher and classmates when the topic is related to trendy things they like or know more about. Even though the implemented conversation club was not compulsory, the participants wanted to talk in the target language because they felt there was a communicative purpose.

Data obtained from the interviews suggested that the topics had a positive impact on participants' WTC. Participants reported feeling relaxed and positive about discussing topics with classmates, which helped them connect better as people. Meddings and Thornbury (2009) see interaction as intrinsic to the learning process, and socialization as central to the construction of knowledge. The learners' perceptions were consistent with Dogme's principles and precepts when they noticed that they were discussing their personal interests with their peers during the conversation club,

which felt like the conversations they usually have in Spanish. Participants pointed out that the conversation club allowed them to get to know each other better and interact, since conversations with peers were a missing component in the virtual classes. Similarly, Xerri (2012) reported that participants appreciated the opportunity to learn more about their classmates through Dogme activities, and this sentiment was linked to the need for conversation-driven activities.

Students displayed more WTC because the teacher showed interest in their opinions, peers were interacting and speaking more, and the topics were easy. As noted in the literature review, interlocutors' social support and background knowledge about the topic play an important role in creating security and situational WTC (Kang, 2005; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018). In the interviews, participants reported feeling relaxed and less burdened during the Dogme conversation club.

Learners expressed positive perceptions of the implementation, as they felt it was a more social and less academic dynamic introduced into the English class. The results showed that the Dogme methodology provided sixth-grade students with the proper atmosphere to speak more frequently and lengthen their interventions. Learners found the topics appropriate, different, and interesting, so they could talk about themselves, share opinions about sensitive issues such as bullying, and even show a sense of humor in their comments.

Conclusions

This study provided insights into how the Dogme methodology contributes to generating favorable situational factors that enhance WTC among early-adolescent EFL students. Findings revealed a positive impact on sixth graders' WTC when the conversation topics focused on themselves, their interests, likes, dislikes, and opinions. Moreover, it is an attempt to fill a gap in research on young learners' WTC, focusing on situational variables such as topic, tasks, classroom atmosphere, and the teacher's methodology.

Creating and promoting WTC should be the goal of language learning teachers and a priority for programs. Students must want to use the language; otherwise, all efforts are fruitless. Teachers need to be aware of the factors that boost or inhibit WTC. Unlike those attributed to students' personalities or shyness, situational factors are within educators' control.

The current research aligns with other studies that indicate that more WTC not only stimulates oral production but also promotes more active and engaged learners (Kang, 2005; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018; Yousefi & Kasaian, 2014). Students with high WTC are more likely to use the target language in authentic communication, and they improve their autonomy as they tend to make independent efforts to learn through communication. They can expand their learning opportunities by getting involved in activities during and after classes (Kang, 2005).

Although pure Dogme advocates for a language classroom free from coursebooks (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009), the purpose of this paper is not to recommend such a radical measure, especially in early basic education. However, we recommend that teachers look beyond the book and focus on learners and the conversation content they can provide. We suggest incorporating Dogme during speaking tasks to improve students' WTC. Teachers can interview students and make a list of topics of interest. Dogme does not require much planning, as it is student-centered and gives learners the opportunity to talk and experiment with language as much as they want, so they feel they have a voice in their learning.

Despite time constraints, absenteeism, and the disadvantages of online classes due to the pandemic, the topics and dynamics implemented were conducive to fostering socialization and interaction during the conversation club. Participants' perceptions indicated that more flexibility is advisable in speaking tasks to

emulate a natural conversation, free from the stress that complicated, depersonalized, or uncontextualized topics can cause among learners.

Further studies should focus on the impact of different methodologies on WTC in children and early teens in EFL settings, and on ways to incorporate other skills, such as writing, as an extension of Dogme oral activities. It would be equally interesting to replicate the present study during in-person classes.

References

AlAdl, A. E. (2023). Investigating the effects of Dogme approach on improving Delta University freshmen students' speaking skills and attitudes toward it. *Egyptian Journal of Educational Sciences*, *3*(1), 37–56. https://doi.org/10.21608/ejes.2023.351013

Alemi, M., Daftarifard, P., & Pashmforoosh, R. (2011). The impact of language anxiety and language proficiency on WTC in EFL context. *Cross-Cultural Communication*, *7*(3), 150–166.

Ali, I., Ali, Z., & Ngah, E. (2023). A review of the use of Dogme ELT method in speaking skills. In M. Rahim, A. A. Ab Aziz, I. Saja Mearaj, N. A. Kamarudin, O. L. Chong, N. Zaini, A. Bidin, N. Mohamad Ayob, Z. Mohd Sulaiman, Y. S. Chan, & N. H. M. Saad (Eds.), *Embracing change: Emancipating the landscape of research in linguistic, language and literature, Vol 7. European Proceedings of Educational Sciences* (pp. 670–680). European Publisher. https://doi.org/10.15405/epes.23097.60

Berkeley University of California. (n.d.). *Social constructivism*. https://bit.ly/4kj8Bef

British Council. (n.d.). Dogme. *TeachingEnglish*. https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/dogme

Bulut, T., & Babajanova, N. (2021). Dogme approach in online English classes. *International Journal of Language Academy*, *9*(2), 376–384. https://doi.org/10.29228/ijla.51428

Burns, A. (2011). Action research in the field of second language teaching and learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 237–253). Routledge.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1–47. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1

Chuquitarco Guagchinga, G. M. (2024). *The Dogme approach and speaking skill* [Master's thesis, Universidad Técnica de Ambato]. Universidad Técnica de Ambato. https://repositorio.uta.edu.ec/handle/123456789/40354

Cuervo Vera, P. (2022). *Impact of Dogme ELT methodology on sixth-grade students' willingness to communicate* [Master's thesis, Universidad Veracruzana]. DSpace. http://cdigital.uv.mx/handle/1944/52053

Ferrance, E. (2000). *Action research*. Northeast and Island Regional Education Laboratory at Brown University.

Havwini, T. (2019). Indonesian EFL students' willingness to communicate in the 2013 curriculum implementation: A case study. *TEFLIN Journal*, *30*(1), 105–120. https://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v30i1/105-120

Kang, S.-J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, *33*(2), 277–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.10.004

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *23*(3), 369–388. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263101003035

MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *82*(4), 545–562. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb05543.x

McKinley, J. (2015). Critical argument and writer identity: Social constructivism as a theoretical framework for EFL academic writing. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *12*(3), 184–207. https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2015.1060558

Meddings, L., & Thornbury, S. (2009). *Teaching unplugged: Dogme in English language teaching*. Delta Publishing.

Moskalets, O., Gryshchenko, O., Tsapro, G., & Tsapro, O. (2024). Academic adaptation of displaced children: A case study of a mixed-aged class in Germany. *Continuing Professional Education: Theory and Practice*, *78*(1), 24–43. https://doi.org/10.28925/1609-8595.2024.1.3

Palincsar, A. S. (1998). Social constructivist perspectives on teaching and learning. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *49*(1), 345–375. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.49.1.345

Riasati, M. J., & Rahimi, F. (2018). Situational and individual factors engendering willingness to speak English in foreign language classrooms. *Cogent Education*, *5*(1), 1513313. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2018.1513313

Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today*. Cambridge University Press.

Robson, G. (2015). A model of situational willingness to communicate (WTC) in the study abroad context. *International Education Studies*, *8*(10). https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v8n10p114

Savignon, S. J. (2002). Communicative language teaching: Linguistic theory and classroom practice. In S. J. Savignon (Ed.), *Interpreting communicative language teaching: Contexts and concerns in teacher education* (pp. 1–28). Yale University Press.

Tavakoli, E., & Davoudi, M. (2017). Willingness to communicate orally: The case of Iranian EFL learners. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, *46*, 1509–1527. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10936-017-9504-0

Thornbury, S. (n.d.). Scott Thornbury. *Delta Publishing*. https://bit.ly/4joWriC

Thornbury, S. (2000). A Dogma for EFL: Scott Thornbury takes a vow of EFL chastity. *IATEFL Issues*, (153), 2.

Thornbury, S. (2009, May 11). Where's your evidence? *Delta Publishing*. https://bit.ly/4myqIhA

Xerri, D. (2012). Experimenting with Dogme in a mainstream ESL context. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(9), 59–65. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n9p59

Yousefi, M., & Kasaian, S. A. (2014). Relationship between willingness to communicate and Iranian EFL learner's speaking fluency and accuracy. *Journal of Advances in English Language Teaching*, *2*(6), 61–72.

About the Authors

Patricia Cuervo Vera is an English teacher with 15 years of experience in various educational levels and modalities. She holds a master's degree in teaching English as a Foreign Language from Universidad Veracruzana (Mexico), where she currently teaches at the Language Center.

Roles: conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Mariza Guadalupe Méndez López holds a PhD in Education from the University of Nottingham, UK. She is a member of the National System of Researchers in Mexico. Her research focuses on affective factors in foreign language learning and teacher professional development.

Roles: development of methods, analysis and interpretation of data, major contribution of investigation materials, and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Appendix A: Class Observation Form

Date of observation:
Group:
Time:
Topic:
Skill(s):
Activities:

	WTC with the teacher and the class				WTC with classmates and friends	
Participant's code	Pattern 1: Volunteering to answer the teacher's questions	Pattern 2: Asking a question to the teacher	Pattern 3: Presenting one's own opinion or spontaneous comments in the class	Pattern 4: Volunteering participation in class activities [a]	Pattern 5: Giving comments or questions in response to peers' or the teacher's ideas	Pattern 6: Helping peers to recall difficult or forgotten words
NGA	S, M		S, S, S	L, S, S, S		

[a] Depending on the activity, Pattern 4 could also show WTC with classmates and friends.

Codes:

Student's utterance	Duration
S (short)	Less than 30 s
M (medium)	Between 30 s and 1 min
L (Long)	More than 1 min

Appendix B: WTC Survey

How often do you do the following in your English class?

	Always	Often	Rarely	Never
WTC with the teacher and the class (translated and adapted from Tavakoli & Davoudi, 2017)				
I ask the teacher in English whenever I have a doubt.				
When I speak English in class, I like waiting for my turn or when the teacher asks me to talk.				
When the teacher asks a question to the whole class, I'm always willing to answer in English.				
When we have to give an opinion in English, I willingly participate.				
I'm one of those students who willingly start talking in English in the classroom.				
In conversation activities in pairs or groups, I speak English with my peers.				
After group activities, I'm willing to express our conclusions aloud in English.				
I'm willing to express opinions, thoughts, and emotions in the English class.				
I feel relaxed when sharing emotions or opinions with my peers in English.				
I always volunteer to present topics in English to the class.				
I would rather be quiet than talk, because speaking English makes me nervous.				
WTC with classmates and friends (translated and adapted from Tavakoli & Davoudi, 2017)				
I'm willing to speak English to my classmates before the class.				
If I have questions in class, I ask my classmates in English.				
I have the desire to communicate in English with my classmates.				
I like using every opportunity in class or lunch break to speak English to my peers.				
I have the desire to speak English with classmates and teachers after the class.				
During conversation activities, I would rather work with classmates who let me speak more in English.				
Opinions about the coursebook's topics and conversation activities (own elaboration)				
The topics in the coursebook make me want to participate in English.				
In my class, there are chances to talk about our favorite topics in English.				
Conversation activities in English in my class are interesting to me.				

Note: Appendices B, C, and D were originally written in Spanish. They have been translated for publication purposes.

Appendix C: Open-Ended Questionnaire

1. Explain how you feel when you have to speak English in online classes.
2. Explain what makes you want to speak English in the online class.
3. Explain what makes you not want to speak English in online classes.
4. What do you think about the conversation topics in your book?
5. What do you like to talk about in English?
6. Explain how the fact that the class is online has influenced your way of participating in English.

Appendix D: Questions for the Interview After Implementation

1. What do you think about the topics discussed in the conversation club?
2. What do you think of the way the conversation club was run?
3. Was there something that motivated you to speak English in the conversation club?
4. Was there anything that made you stay quiet or type in the chat instead of speaking in English?
5. Did you feel more comfortable speaking in English with the teacher or with your classmates? Why?
6. How would you rate yourself on the willingness to communicate in English that you showed in the conversation club? Why?
7. What would have made you talk more in the conversation club?

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.119267

Self-Regulated Learning in English Language Instruction at Colombian Universities: Teachers' Perspectives

El aprendizaje autorregulado en la enseñanza del idioma inglés en universidades colombianas: perspectivas de los profesores

Jackeline Bravo
Estela Ene
Indiana University, Indianapolis, USA

This article reports a descriptive, exploratory study on self-regulated learning in English teaching at eight Colombian universities. Using a mixed-methods approach that combined surveys and interviews, the study explored what Colombian university English instructors know about language teaching pedagogies that promote self-regulated learning and how their teaching practices impact its development. The findings indicate that while most instructors have a broad understanding of self-regulated learning, they are unaware of its specifics and do not explicitly promote it. However, they incorporate related aspects, such as learning strategies and motivation, into their teaching. We concluded that the promotion of self-regulated learning is unsystematic and overlooked as a learning need, with language mastery being the primary teaching focus. Educational alternatives are suggested to help English learners achieve self-regulated and successful learning.

Keywords: English language teachers, self-regulated learning, university education, university English teaching

Este es un artículo de investigación descriptiva y exploratoria de métodos mixtos sobre el aprendizaje autorregulado en la enseñanza del inglés en Colombia. Mediante encuestas y entrevistas, examinamos qué saben los docentes universitarios de inglés en Colombia sobre las pedagogías de enseñanza de idiomas que promueven el aprendizaje autorregulado y cómo su enseñanza influye en su desarrollo. Encontramos que, aunque la mayoría de los participantes tienen una comprensión general del aprendizaje autorregulado, desconocen sus especificidades y no lo promueven explícitamente; sin embargo, abordan aspectos relacionados, como las estrategias de aprendizaje y la motivación. Concluimos que la promoción del aprendizaje autorregulado es asistemática y no se considera una necesidad de aprendizaje, pues el enfoque se centra en el dominio del idioma. Sugerimos alternativas educativas para un aprendizaje autorregulado y exitoso.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje autorregulado, docentes de inglés, educación universitaria, enseñanza del inglés en la universidad

Jackeline Bravo https://orcid.org/0009-0005-0843-4203 • Email: jzambrano@inempasto.edu.co
Estela Ene https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4037-1100 • Email: eene@iu.edu

This article is based on the master's thesis completed by Bravo (2023). Professor Ene acted as the thesis supervisor.

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Bravo, J., & Ene, E. (2026). Self-regulated learning in English language instruction at Colombian universities: Teachers' perspectives. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 193–212. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.119267

This article was received on March 9, 2025 and accepted on September 25, 2025.

Introduction

Self-regulated learning (SRL), which has been extensively studied since the 1980s (Panadero, 2017), is crucial for effective language learning, as it involves students' control and effort (Brown & Lee, 2015). It enhances learning effectiveness and equips students with lifelong learning skills (Nilson, 2013).

In foreign-language settings, a lack of SRL can hinder language development due to limited independent learning, particularly in contexts with reduced target-language interaction and class hours (Kormos & Csizér, 2014). Despite national programs aimed at improving education quality and English instruction (Departamento Administrativo de Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación, 2016; Law 1651, 2013), Colombia's bilingual education faces these and other challenges, notably students' overdependence on teachers (Peña Dix, 2013).

Nilson (2013) emphasizes students' need for proficient learning skills to thrive academically, noting that many struggle to self-regulate emotions, motivations, and study behaviors. Nilson further argues that learners tend to place responsibility externally, remain passive in the classroom, lack self-discipline, and are distracted by unrelated social interactions or the use of technological devices. Academically, they often settle for minimal effort, exhibiting low commitment to learning goals.

Although Colombian English teachers may be unaware of SRL promotion (Noreña & Cano, 2020), this study explores the extent to which some might inadvertently practice and promote it. Many language-teaching practices inherently support SRL development. While previous research has been skeptical about teachers' conscious promotion of SRL, we anticipate incidental or secondary promotion through effective pedagogical practices.

Our study aimed to examine this phenomenon by asking English instructors at Colombian universities about their perceptions and implementation of SRL in their teaching. By investigating how instructors conceptualize and apply SRL, we seek to contribute to a broader understanding of the role of language education in SRL promotion and propose pedagogical alternatives that support successful and lifelong learning through SRL in the university classroom and beyond. These objectives also align with the national strategic focus on "Sociedad" (Society) within the framework of the *Colombia Científica* program, as our research contributes to national priorities aimed at strengthening higher education and promoting sustainable educational practices in Colombia.

Literature Review

Self-Regulated Learning

SRL encompasses the use and management of cognitive and metacognitive strategies for academic achievement (Nilson, 2013; Wolters & Benzon, 2013). Zimmerman (2002) defines it as "a self-directed process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills" (p. 65). Self-regulated learners proactively manage their efforts, emotions, environment, and attitudes to attain their learning goals, guided by their awareness of their strengths and limitations, rather than relying solely on instruction (Pintrich, 2004).

In the digital age, technological distractions and social influences often hinder learners from achieving high-level learning (Gao, 2021; Nilson, 2013). Furthermore, learners are often not encouraged to exert control over their own learning (Zimmerman, 2002). However, Zimmerman claims that SRL is teachable and requires explicit instruction; its development empowers students to succeed academically (McDonough, 2001).

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

SRL involves a variety of processes to achieve the expected learning outcomes. Thus, each learning activity is the result of the personal selection and adaptation of a series of steps without which learning can be

affected (Zimmerman, 2002). These steps include (a) setting specific learning goals, (b) adopting appropriate strategies for attaining those goals, (c) monitoring one's performance selectively for signs of progress, (d) restructuring one's physical and social context to make it compatible with one's goals, (e) managing time efficiently, (f) self-evaluating one's methods, (g) attributing causation to results, and (h) adapting future methods (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 66).

Building on Zimmerman's (2002) ideas, Zumbrunn et al. (2011) propose strategies to help students develop SRL and thus contribute to their academic success (Nilson, 2013).

Goal setting encourages learners to think about their learning motivations and plan their learning path (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005). To facilitate self-monitoring, short-term goals should be emphasized (Stock & Cervone, 1990). Early in the learning process, instructors may assign goals as students become proficient at setting their own. It is hoped that learners will become more committed to their goals, enhancing their sense of self-efficacy as a result of their performance, which in turn fosters their SRL (Schunk, 2001).

Planning requires learners to define objectives and select strategies, time, and resources to attain those objectives (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005; Schunk, 2001). Essentially, planning involves organizing the necessary steps to turn goals into actionable progress (Eilam & Aharon, 2003).

Self-motivation (or intrinsic motivation) is a key factor in learning success and engagement, as it encourages students to take initiative without external incentives, fostering autonomy (Brown & Lee, 2015). Research suggests that autonomy-supportive instruction enhances self-motivation (Lam et al., 2009), along with strategies such as proposing challenging tasks, making learning personally relevant, stimulating curiosity, recognizing students' efforts, and offering constructive feedback (Lam et al., 2009).

SRL is closely linked to *learning strategies* (Zhang, 2010), which help students become less teacher-dependent and more self-driven in their learning (Sills et al., 2009). As learners gain confidence in applying strategies, they develop autonomy and determination (Zumbrunn et al., 2011). Instructors can support strategic learning by helping students identify their preferred learning methods, model new strategies, and provide scaffolding to support independent learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Zumbrunn et al., 2011).

Self-evaluation, an instance of formative assessment, helps students reflect on their progress and challenges (Olina & Sullivan, 2004; Ozogul & Sullivan, 2009). With instructor guidance, learners can align their self-evaluations with learning goals and adjust their strategies accordingly (Zimmerman, 2004). Since students may not always fully grasp their learning processes (Zimmerman, 2002), educators play a crucial role in helping them understand how self-evaluation, in conjunction with other SRL strategies, fosters academic success.

Self-Regulated Learning and Language Teaching

Contemporary language teaching prioritizes learner-centeredness and values learners as active learning agents (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Xiao, 2014). Agency, a language teaching principle (Brown & Lee, 2015), enables proactive and independent learning (Xiao, 2014). It underpins motivation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, identity, and self-determination (Brown & Lee, 2015; Xiao, 2014). Instructors can cultivate agency by promoting decision-making, goal-setting, and reflective learning (Karlen et al., 2024). Additionally, autonomy-supportive environments, where students engage in self-directed and collaborative tasks, empower students to take ownership of their learning, foster long-term academic success (Karlen et al., 2020), and enhance students' SRL (Alvi & Gillies, 2020).

Effective second language pedagogy nurtures learner autonomy, which is crucial for fostering SRL (Kormos & Csizér, 2014). Autonomous language students actively control their learning, exhibit self-initiative, create learning opportunities, and organize, monitor, and evaluate their progress (Benson, 2013). Instructors can promote autonomy by providing choice in learning activities and facilitating reflection (Godwin-Jones, 2019). Additionally, authentic assessment methods, such as self-assessment and portfolio-based learning, empower students to take ownership of their learning, reinforcing SRL practices (Ismail et al., 2023). Research highlights that collaborative learning environments further enhance autonomy by allowing learners to engage in peer feedback and cooperative problem-solving, thereby strengthening their ability to regulate their learning independently (Oates, 2019).

Furthermore, successful language learners develop strategies to learn more effectively, which help them become more autonomous (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Zhang, 2010). Kumaravadivelu (2003) suggests that students should be taught that learning is not a reactive, but a proactive process, and that their ability to control their learning can occur "only if they are trained to identify and use appropriate strategies" (p. 137). Instructors can model learning strategies (Oxford, 2016) and facilitate scaffolded instruction where students gradually take ownership of their strategy use and strengthen their ability to regulate their learning independently (Schunk & Greene, 2018).

SRL is also aligned with other learner-centered approaches, such as peer review, which allows learners to assess their progress while establishing contrast with their peers' perspectives (Teng, 2022); collaborative learning, as it activates engagement and shared responsibility (Schunk & Greene, 2018); and self-evaluation, which fosters critical thinking and self-reflection.

Finally, motivation should be regarded as a key starting point of SRL, academic success (Banyard et al., 2006), and language development (Dörnyei, 1994). SRL involves "three cyclical phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection. In the forethought phase, learners engage in task analysis and self-motivation" (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 65). According to Dörnyei's motivation framework, self-motivation aligns with intrinsic motivation, which thrives under learning conditions that challenge and encourage self-determination (Deci & Rayan, 1985, as cited in Dörnyei, 1994). The teacher's role, materials, and course design and development influence intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 1994). Intrinsic motivation, in turn, enhances SRL engagement, which in turn improves learning awareness, self-satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, learning success, and motivation (Zimmerman, 2008).

The Role of Technology in Self-Regulated Learning and Language Teaching

Studies have shown that technology in second language education can have both positive and negative effects. It has been used to teach, evaluate, interact, promote autonomous learning (Benson, 2013; Ene & Connor, 2014), and motivate students (Herrington & Kervin, 2007, as cited in Gao, 2021). However, while enhancing educational standards (Bal & Sanvas, 2021; Phillips, 1998), technology can reduce learners' awareness of autonomous learning, self-management, and planning. It can divert them toward online information unrelated to their learning (Gao, 2021), especially if course goals are not well-defined or integrated with technology (Levy, 2009). According to Phillips (1998), only after defining learning objectives and assessment criteria "can one determine how, where, and when technology can facilitate any part of the process" (p. 25), and its optimal use can be attained if teaching is "well-grounded pedagogically" (Ene & Connor, 2014, p. 112).

Self-Regulation in EFL Learning in Colombia

Research on SRL in EFL settings, including Colombia, highlights current learner challenges and suggests pedagogical applications to promote SRL. Peña Dix (2013) claims that instilling motivation and autonomy in the EFL classroom is a common concern among English language teachers in Colombia. Other studies show that preservice Colombian English teachers lack control, learning purposes, self-determination, and language learning planning (Zorro Rojas, 2019), and their educators perceive they lack SRL (Cuesta Medina et al., 2017).

These studies identify teacher dependence as a factor affecting language learning. According to Su (2018, as cited in Noreña & Cano, 2020), SRL instruction in Colombia is unsystematic, possibly because language instructors lack training, resources, or knowledge of SRL and how to teach it. Nevertheless, research shows that SRL can be developed through autonomy-supportive instruction (Niemiec & Muñoz, 2019) and dialogic sessions (Zorro Rojas, 2019).

While these findings offer valuable insights, further investigation is needed to determine how Colombian English instructors engage with SRL in their daily teaching practices. To address this, the present study explores instructors' perspectives and pedagogical applications related to SRL in university settings.

Study Goals and Research Questions

The literature review revealed key factors for language teaching and learning through SRL, as well as previous studies that have delved into this topic. However, there is still room to explore how EFL teachers' pedagogical practices relate to SRL. Thus, this study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What do university English teachers know about language teaching pedagogies that promote self-regulated learning?
2. To what extent do university English teachers promote self-regulated learning?

In addressing these questions, we also aimed to propose pedagogical applications to promote SRL in English courses in Colombian universities.

Method

This study employed a mixed-methods, abductive design adhering to all ethical considerations and regulations required by the Institutional Review Board at Indiana University Indianapolis. Data were collected sequentially in a cross-sectional manner. An online survey and deep interviews served as the primary instruments, gathering quantitative and qualitative data, respectively.

The online survey (see Appendix A)—created using Qualtrics, a web-based survey software (https://www.qualtrics.com)—aimed to collect data on teachers' knowledge and use of SRL-supporting language teaching pedagogies. It began with a brief definition of SRL and included seven demographic, seven multiple-choice, and two yes-no questions. These questions addressed reported practices commonly occurring in language lessons that could implicitly or explicitly impact SRL development. Specifically, the teacher's role; teaching, assessment, and feedback practices; methods for promoting motivation; and the use of technology. The survey concluded with a Likert-type rating scale asking participants to indicate the frequency with which they promoted specific SRL processes.

The survey was conducted with 46 participants. However, due to partial completion, the number of respondents in subsequent sections varied slightly, resulting in a total of 42 participants completing the entire survey. Consequently, when the numerical data reported for a specific item differ from the full sample, this is indicated in the Findings section as a subsample (n = xx) to ensure accuracy in the presentation of results.

Complementing the survey data, in-depth interviews (see Appendix B) expanded on teachers' responses and explored additional facets of SRL knowledge and practice. These interviews, comprising eight open-ended questions, aimed to uncover nuanced perspectives on SRL, such as participants' individual definitions of SRL. Questions also delved into specific SRL practices, including how teachers fostered students' sense of self-efficacy and guided students to attribute causality to their learning outcomes. Furthermore, the interviews revisited pedagogical practices addressed in the survey to gain deeper insights into their implementation. The interviews, conducted individually online with 10 teachers, were recorded, transcribed, and encrypted. Both instruments were administered in Spanish, the participants' mother tongue, and subsequently translated into English.

Context and Participants

To ensure diverse representation, 26 public and private universities were initially contacted across various Colombian regions; however, only the mentioned eight provided complete information. English department directors facilitated the distribution of surveys among their faculty. A total of 46 university English instructors participated, with 10 of them being interviewed individually. Participants held diverse educational qualifications: bachelor's (17), master's (23), and doctoral degrees (6). There were 24 male participants and 22 female participants. They taught EFL in various academic programs. Participant universities are listed in Table 1.

Data Analysis

This mixed-methods study employed descriptive and statistical analysis for the quantitative data, and exploratory thematic analysis for the qualitative data. The qualitative component involved iterative stages of familiarization with the interview transcripts, initial open coding, and subsequent focus coding to identify recurring patterns and significant insights. These emergent patterns were then synthesized into overarching themes and subthemes. While the analysis broadly addressed the two central research questions (the participants' knowledge of SRL-promoting language pedagogies and the extent to which they foster SRL in their teaching), the findings yielded nuanced insights into the complexities of these areas.

Table 1. Participating Institutions and Total of Respondents (*N* = 46)

Name of the university	Total of respondents
Universidad de Pamplona	3
Universidad del Valle	11
Universidad del Tolima	2
Universidad de la Guajira	17
Universidad Popular del Cesar	7
Universidad de Caldas	3
Universidad Nacional de Colombia	1
Universidad Francisco de Paula Santander, Ocaña	2

The themes and their constituent subthemes are presented in detail in the discussion section, along with the quantitative findings, in which the data are correlated with one another, integrated with existing theory on SRL, and contextualized with previous research on SRL in Colombia.

Findings

The findings reflect university English teachers' self-reported knowledge and descriptions of their classroom practices. Analysis of these qualitative and quantitative data aimed to identify patterns and specific instances in which the reported practices intentionally or implicitly fostered SRL.

Teachers' Knowledge of Language Pedagogies That Promote SRL

While survey data indicated that approximately half of the respondents reported familiarity with SRL-fostering language-teaching pedagogies, interview findings revealed a more limited conceptual understanding: nine of the 10 interviewees reported unfamiliarity with the explicit processes involved. Their definitions of SRL remained general: five described it as proactive and independent learning, two as learning management strategies, and three acknowledged some familiarity with this construct.

Regarding language pedagogies potentially fostering SRL, survey data highlighted various approaches. The project-based learning (PBL) approach was the most frequently cited (36.3%), followed by task-based language teaching (22.7%), communicative language teaching (CLT; 18.1%), the audio-lingual method (13.6%), and other approaches (10%). Conversely, half of the participants indicated a lack of knowledge about SRL-related pedagogies. Interview data largely reinforced these trends, with some distinctions: four interviewees used CLT, three employed eclectic approaches, and the remaining three implemented alternative pedagogies, including PBL, constructivism, and structured planning.

Though instructors reported unfamiliarity with specific SRL processes, interview responses showed that eight participants linked their teaching to SRL facilitation. Predominantly, six participants described encouraging independent work through CLT, while one participant mentioned eclectic approaches, planning and organization, and PBL as strategies to foster student independence in learning activities. Additionally, two participants emphasized the role of CLT and PBL in learning management, and two provided unrelated responses.

Teaching Practices That Promote SRL

Findings indicate English teachers utilize diverse instructional practices that influence SRL. Regarding the teacher's role, survey results showed that 67% of respondents identified as facilitators, while 32.6% viewed themselves as controllers. Roles such as resource, administrator, and director were less frequently selected.

Interview responses revealed a varied distribution of teaching roles, with instructors often identifying with more than one. Of the 10 interviewees, four mentioned administrator; two, administrator and facilitator; two, facilitator; one, director; and one, guide and facilitator. These roles reflected diverse perspectives: Some instructors expressed teacher-centered views (e.g., "I support part of the traditional school" [Interviewee 9]), while others, such as those identifying as both facilitator and administrator, advocated for greater student independence: "Students do their tasks by their own means" (Interviewee 5). Similarly, facilitator/guide instructors underscored promoting learning ownership: "Even the evaluation rubrics are negotiated" (Interviewee 4).

Regarding assessment practices, survey data (n = 44) indicated that all respondents promoted self-

assessment of study methods. Specific strategies mentioned included providing grading rubrics (26%), implementing peer review (26%), focusing on language proficiency (17%), and employing alternative methods (6.5%). Interview data complemented this, revealing that educators often prioritized language use and task completion over explicit learner self-evaluation of study methods.

All 10 interviewees consistently prioritized clear instructions in their assessment practices, with two also incorporating grading rubrics. Assessment approaches balanced traditional and innovative methods: Five interviewees preferred traditional strategies, whereas the other five used innovative strategies such as mock tests (n = 1), self-assessment (n = 2), and peer-assessment (n = 2). These alternative methods, participants noted, effectively facilitated effort recognition, progress reflection, and identification of learning strengths.

Furthermore, survey results (n = 44) indicated that respondents employed diverse strategies to support learning after feedback. Thus, 38.6 % prompted students to redefine their study methods, 31.8% guided analysis of the causes of academic outcomes, and 20.4% focused on assessing the efficacy of study techniques. Conversely, 9% reported taking no further steps after feedback.

Interview data further contextualized these post-feedback approaches by revealing two key themes on facilitating reflection: addressing accuracy and task completion, and addressing learning behaviors. All interviewees reported assessing assignment accuracy based on instructions, helping students recognize strengths and limitations in language use. Additionally, two interviewees prompted reflection on students' attitudes toward learning and how these attitudes impact performance, often emphasizing areas for improvement. For instance, one interviewee cited procrastination as a barrier, while another underscored dedicating study time post-feedback. Participants generally agreed that such reflection positively impacted learning, despite individual variations.

Further interview insights detailed varied strategies for error correction and self-reflection in feedback delivery, categorized into three distinct themes. Direct and detailed error correction was used by seven respondents. General feedback (3) involved broad comments (e.g., "this is too general, try to express it more effectively," Interviewee 2). The third theme, affective filter in feedback (2), involved instructors addressing strengths before areas for improvement to positively influence self-perception and encourage thoughtful reflection: "I start with the positive aspects, meet with students individually, and tell them the aspects they should improve" (Interviewee 1).

In synthesis, both survey and interview data highlight varied post-feedback strategies: Some participants prioritize reflection on task accuracy, while others emphasize learning behaviors and self-reflection. Feedback delivery methods also range from direct error correction to more affective and reflective approaches, demonstrating diverse instructional practices.

In addition, instructors proactively fostered reflection at the beginning of language courses, not just after feedback. Data from the survey (n = 43) show that 81.3% of the respondents fostered learning reflection, 9.3% proposed independent learning and collaborative adaptation of course objectives, 7% addressed strategies for achieving high grades, and 2.3% discussed successful learner traits.

Survey data (n = 44) also indicated that educators employ various strategies to promote student motivation, including acknowledging students' strengths (54.5%), addressing learning needs (50%), guiding learners in setting English proficiency goals (31.8%), and incorporating students' cultural backgrounds (20.4%). A smaller proportion (9%) noted grades as a motivational factor.

Interview data provided further insights into motivation-related practices, notably revealing a gap concerning students' self-efficacy. Specifically, four interviewees acknowledged not having incorporated self-efficacy-promotion strategies. The remaining six described approaches related to student empowerment, clustering into four key themes: raising awareness on the importance of learning English (2), assisting learners in identifying their strengths and weaknesses (2), giving deep explanations for better performance (2), and being responsive to learning styles (1). However, a challenge was highlighted by Interviewee 3: "Students sometimes complain they would like to know how to learn but that they can't, and one is like 'I can't do more for him.'"

On the other hand, survey data (n = 43) revealed that 81.3% of respondents utilized technology in English instruction. However, 18.6% employed it without recognizing its potential to enhance SRL.

Interview responses provided deeper insights into technology's role. All interviewees reported using diverse technological tools, such as electronic devices, interactive platforms, virtual campuses, and web resources. Interviewees commonly described how technology promotes SRL, including reducing teacher dependence, fostering new learning strategies, and increasing motivation. For instance, three interviewees cited virtual campuses as promoting learner autonomy and SRL (e.g., Interviewee 7 noted open access to materials fostering independent progress). Additionally, four interviewees suggested that technology facilitated students' learning appropriation, and another four acknowledged its motivational impact, stimulating engagement. As Interviewee 10 noted, "students can even say something, record, and verify," enhancing understanding and progress. Despite the recognized benefits of technology, seven interviewees acknowledged its potential drawbacks for SRL development, emphasizing that technology's impact largely depends on learners' effective management of digital resources.

Finally, Table 2 presents survey responses on instructors' views of SRL-enhancing practices, indicating that they all appear to engage students in goal setting, planning, monitoring, self-assessment, and reflection—albeit with notable variation in how frequently these strategies are implemented.

Table 2. Frequency of SRL Practices in English Teaching in Colombian Universities

Teachers strive to make students…	Always	Most of the time	Often	Sometimes	Never
set specific proximal goals for themselves	5	12	17	4	0
set strategies that are directly related to language learning to attain the learning goals	7	19	14	2	0
plan strategies that are indirectly related to language learning but that facilitate its development (metacognition, affective, social, time management, etc.) for attaining the learning goals	2	12	22	3	0
monitor their learning process for signs of progress	4	17	11	11	0
self-evaluate their learning process	8	11	10	9	0
self-reflect on their learning performance (attribute causation to results)	10	10	13	8	0
make future learning plans based on the learning outcomes (adapting future methods)	5	13	10	11	0

Discussion

English Teachers' Knowledge of SRL-Promoting Pedagogies in Language Instruction

While the literature emphasizes various SRL-promoting strategies in language teaching, survey responses indicated that approximately 50% of instructors reported familiarity with SRL-supportive pedagogies such as PBL, task-based language teaching, and CLT. These learner-centered approaches foster active engagement and strategic language use through contextual, independent tasks (Stoller, 2006, as cited in Mikulec & Miller, 2011). However, interview data revealed that, despite this reported familiarity with the pedagogies themselves, instructors exhibited a limited conceptual understanding of SRL and its underlying processes, suggesting a gap in knowing *how* to effectively leverage these methods for SRL development.

Although Noreña and Cano's (2020) claim that Colombian language instructors may overlook effective SRL promotion aligns with our findings, this study also reveals that many instructors demonstrate initial awareness of how specific language-teaching pedagogies can foster SRL, including learning strategies and learning investment.

English Teachers' Promotion of SRL in Colombian Universities

Consistent with Zimmerman's (2002) SRL framework on proximal goal setting, survey findings indicated that instructors assist students in defining task goals. However, interview data suggested that clear instructions and grading rubrics—while enhancing understanding of the assignment (Andrade, 2005; Sowell, 2017) and reducing procrastination (Nilson, 2013)—may not, on their own, lead students to define their own learning objectives.

A critical gap also emerged concerning explicit guidance in comprehensive learning plans. While survey responses highlighted instructor guidance in various strategies (language-related, metacognitive, affective, social), interviews revealed that instructors do not incorporate strategy planning as a pre-assignment stage. This omission may contribute to learners abandoning tasks, cheating, procrastinating (Nilson, 2013), or failing to meet learning goals (Kormos & Csizér, 2014; Zhang, 2010).

Although some instructors guide students in monitoring progress through peer-assessment, self-assessment, and mock tests, survey and interview data indicate limited adoption. While peer- and self-assessment help instructors foster understanding of strengths, weaknesses, process, and product (Herman et al., 1992; Huerta-Macías, 1995), and mock tests help assess readiness,[1] instructors often target these tools toward language performance without exploring the underlying cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, or contextual factors that influence students' learning progress or lack thereof.

Besides, evidence shows a lack of substantial support to guide students strategically in adapting their environment to achieve learning goals, even though some instructors facilitate independent learning reflection. We found that strategies indirectly related to language skill development receive minimal emphasis despite being integral to SRL. For example, social and metacognitive strategies help learners consider whether others should be part of their learning and plan and assess their learning to achieve greater control (Oxford & Crookall, 1989), strategies that are often not addressed in the classroom.

Data also showed divergent views on engaging learners in self-evaluating their study methods. The survey revealed that about 64% of instructors engage learners in this process, while interview data consistently emphasized language use and task completion.

1 For instance, Cambridge's *Mock Test Toolkit for Teachers* (https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/teaching-english/resources-for-teachers/mock-test-toolkit/)

According to Purpura (2016), L2 assessment records "are used as evidence for making decisions" (p. 191), which in SRL are targeted at identifying and improving study procedures (Hadwin et al., 2022). An exclusive focus on language mastery and task accomplishment may hinder learners' acquisition of "tacit knowledge," which is not commonly part of classroom discourse and can only be obtained through "discussion, reflection, and experience" (Voogt & Kasurien, 2005, as cited in Clark, 2012). Only two interviewees engaged in such discussions, guiding learners to attribute causality to outcomes beyond performance. Yet, instructors predominantly focused on negative factors, rarely acknowledging reasons for learning success. Recognizing success factors could significantly enhance learners' self-efficacy and motivation (Schunk, 2001; Wolters & Benzon, 2013), which SRL does emphasize (Zimmerman, 2002).

In addition, even though some instructors guide reflection on time management and other strategies, many conclude after evaluation and feedback. This limits students' ability to adapt future study methods and improve performance, thus rendering self-assessment ineffective (Andrade, 2019). Despite assuming learner-centered roles, instructors maintain control over evaluation and assessment. In Colombia, where students often rely on teachers (Peña Dix, 2013), redefining instructional roles is crucial. It is essential to challenge assumptions, even when instructors believe they cannot do more to help learners succeed, as Interviewee 3 claimed. From an SRL perspective, continuous improvement remains essential for both instructors and learners, and strategic learner training can empower language instructors to foster student success (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

While instructors do not exclusively emphasize SRL, findings indicate they promote many related aspects. Survey data highlight diverse motivational strategies, including acknowledging strengths, addressing learning needs and cultural backgrounds, cultivating intrinsic motivation, engaging learners in group/independent work, and utilizing interactive technology. Instructors also bolster self-efficacy by teaching language learning strategies and, during evaluations, by addressing areas for improvement while recognizing progress, thereby reinforcing learners' confidence. Nurturing these elements contributes to progress, heightened motivation, self-satisfaction, and improved performance (Schunk, 2001; Zimmerman, 2008).

Conclusions

The findings confirm the absence of standardized teaching to promote SRL in English instruction in Colombia, as suggested by Noreña and Cano (2020), particularly at the university level. While some instructors inadvertently address some SRL-related aspects, they appear to overlook SRL as crucial for the potential learning success of university English students. Despite suggestions that university students struggle with SRL (Cuesta Medina et al., 2017), the lack of systematic SRL teaching hinders instructors from recognizing that this is, in fact, a learning need.

Also, assessment and feedback primarily focus on language use and task completion. However, successful SRL language learning requires critical aspects beyond language mastery. Instructors can enhance English competence by expanding their evaluation scope. Encouraging students to plan, monitor, self-assess, and adapt their study methods and contextual conditions improves performance and helps develop the soft skills necessary not only for English but also for lifelong learning.

Instructors acknowledge that some language teaching approaches facilitate SRL. However, their broad view of it suggests a need for a deeper understanding to consistently develop SRL in language teaching.

Focusing on SRL promotion in university English programs will not solve all learning challenges, but it

can significantly impact students' outcomes. By fostering SRL, instructors can mitigate low achievements and help improve Colombia's English proficiency, which remains consistently low in the *EF English Proficiency Index* (https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/). This persistent issue (Rairan, 2024) highlights the need for continued efforts to enhance language education in the country.

Recommendations

Despite evidence of SRL's positive impact, research indicates that Colombian university students, particularly in English courses, often lack SRL (Cuesta Medina et al., 2017). This gap suggests a need for early intervention. Pre-academic programs focused on SRL and language learning strategies could equip students with tools to achieve success in English development.

In addition, teachers can incorporate student journals and portfolios to facilitate SRL. Journals help students keep track of and reflect on their progress and strategies, fostering self-awareness and adaptability (Cox, 2022). Portfolios, on the other hand, serve as performance records, enabling critical self-analysis (Padilla et al., 1996).

Furthermore, instructors diligently strive to enhance student motivation. Targeting this motivation toward purposeful language learning is crucial. Instructors should help learners connect their English studies to specific goals, whether for future careers, cultural enrichment, or personal enjoyment. This facilitates learning engagement and achievement (Zimmerman, 2002).

To address instructors' unfamiliarity with SRL, universities can facilitate communities of practice and professional development programs to explore SRL and other effective pedagogies that support successful learning.

Lastly, transitioning to learner-centered roles is crucial. Reducing instructor control enhances students' engagement and supports them in becoming proactive participants in their English language education.

Limitations and Further Research

Colombia's socio-political challenges indirectly impacted this study. Frequent academic stoppages due to social protests disrupted data collection, and subsequent schedule adjustments at universities made it difficult to contact some instructors.

Additionally, the study relies on indirect evidence of instructional practices, focusing on teachers' perceptions rather than observing their actual practices, and it does not integrate students' perspectives. While student input would have provided deeper insights into SRL implementation, logistical constraints limited direct student involvement. The combination of social unrest in Colombia, challenges in accessing university students, and geographic barriers (as the study was developed while the main researcher was in the USA) further restricted participant outreach.

Although the small sample size limits generalizability, the findings offer valuable insights into SRL from the educators' standpoint, contributing meaningfully to the language teaching field and providing a basis for further exploration.

Future studies could benefit from alternative research methods that provide a more comprehensive perspective on SRL in language instruction. A more ethnographic approach, including classroom observations and teacher-student interviews, could offer deeper insights into how SRL strategies are implemented and perceived by different stakeholders. Furthermore, integrating student surveys and focus groups would strengthen the practical applications of SRL research, ensuring that findings reflect both teachers' and learners' experiences.

Further research into the relationship between language instruction and SRL is essential for identifying effective teaching, evaluation, and feedback strategies that foster SRL. Additionally, understanding the external factors that contribute to the absence of SRL among Colombian students and exploring feasible interven-

tions to address these challenges remain important areas of investigation.

References

Alvi, E., & Gillies, R. M. (2020). Teachers and the teaching of self-regulated learning (SRL): The emergence of an integrative, ecological model of SRL-in-context. *Education Sciences*, *10*(4), 98. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci10040098

Andrade, H. G. (2005). Teaching with rubrics: The good, the bad, and the ugly. *College Teaching*, *53*(1), 27–30. https://doi.org/10.3200/CTCH.53.1.27-31

Andrade, H. L. (2019). A critical review on student self-assessment. *Frontiers in Education*, *4*(87), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2019.00087

Bal, N. G., & Sanvas, P. (2021). Enhancing authenticity in college-level English classrooms via instructional technology. *TESL-EJ*, *25*(3), 1–22. https://tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume25/ej99x/ej99a11/

Banyard, P., Underwood, J., & Twiner, A. (2006). Do enhanced communication technologies inhibit or facilitate self-regulated learning? *European Journal of Education*, *41*(3/4), 473–489. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1465-3435.2006.00277.x

Benson, P. (2013). Learner autonomy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *47*(4), 839–843. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.134

Boekaerts, M., & Corno, L. (2005). Self-regulation in the classroom: A perspective on assessment and intervention. *Applied Psychology*, *54*(2), 199–231. https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1464-0597.2005.00205.X

Bravo, J. (2023). *The promotion of self-regulated learning in English language instruction at Colombian universities* [Master's thesis, Indiana University Indianapolis]. ScholarWorks Indianapolis.

Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (2015). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (4th ed.). Pearson Education.

Clark, I. (2012). Formative assessment: Assessment is for self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychology Review*, *24*(2), 205–249. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-011-9191-6

Cox, T. (2022, September 22). Language learning journaling: A creative way to keep track of your learning. *Preply*. https://preply.com/en/blog/language-learning-journal/

Cuesta Medina, L., Anderson, C. E., & McDougald, J. S. (2017). Self-regulation and language teacher training in Colombia. In M. L. Cárdenas & N. M. Basurto Santos (Eds.), *Investigación - research - recherche... en lenguas extranjeras y lingüística aplicada* (pp. 87–116). Universidad Nacional de Colombia; Universidad Veracruzana.

Departamento Administrativo de Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación. (2016). *Anexo 3: Focos estratégicos y retos* [PDF file, Document No. M301PR01F02, Version 08]. http://bit.ly/3Ip8gsj

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(3), 273–284. https://doi.org/10.2307/330107

Eilam, B., & Aharon, I. (2003). Students' planning in the process of self-regulated learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *28*(3), 304–334. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0361-476X(02)00042-5

Ene, E., & Connor, U. (2014). *Technological applications for language teaching*. ScholarWorks Indianapolis. https://hdl.handle.net/1805/5429

Gao, Y. (2021). A survey study on the application of modern educational technology in English major college teaching in the age of 5G communication. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *11*(2), 202–209. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1102.13

Godwin-Jones, R. (2019). Riding the digital wilds: Learner autonomy and informal language learning. *Language Learning & Technology*, *23*(1), 8–25. https://doi.org/10.64152/10125/44667

Hadwin, A. F., Sukhawathanakul, P., Rostampour, R., & Bahena-Olivares, L. M. (2022). Do self-regulated learning practices and intervention mitigate the impact of academic challenges and COVID-19 distress on academic performance during online learning? *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*, 813529. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.813529

Herman, J. L., Aschbacher, P. R., & Winters, L. (1992). *A practical guide to alternative assessment*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Huerta-Macías, A. (1995). Alternative assessment: Responses to commonly asked questions. *TESOL Journal*, *5*(1), 8–11.

Ismail, S. M., Nikpoo, I., & Prasad, K. D. V. (2023). Promoting self-regulated learning, autonomy, and self-efficacy of EFL learners through authentic assessment in EFL classrooms. *Language Testing in Asia, 13*(1), 27. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-023-00239-z

Karlen, Y., Hertel, S., Grob, U., Jud, J., & Hirt, C. N. (2024). Teachers matter: Linking teachers and students' self-regulated learning. *Research Papers in Education, 40(3), 414–441*. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2024.2394059

Karlen, Y., Hertel, S., & Hirt, C. N. (2020). Teachers' professional competences in self-regulated learning: An approach to integrate teachers' competences as self-regulated learners and as agents of self-regulated learning in a holistic manner. *Frontiers in Education, 5*. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2020.00159

Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2014). The interaction of motivation, self-regulatory strategies, and autonomous learning behavior in different learner groups. *TESOL Quarterly*, *48*(2), 275–299. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.129

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. Yale University Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt1np6r2

Lam, S.-F., Cheng, R. W.-Y., & Ma, W. Y. K. (2009). Teacher and student intrinsic motivation in project-based learning. *Instructional Science*, *37*(6), 565–578. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-008-9070-9

Levy, M. (2009). Technologies in use for second language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, *93*, 769–782. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00972.x

Ley 1651 de 2013 [Law 1651], Congreso de Colombia (2013). https://bit.ly/4nOqwvu

McDonough, S. K. (2001). Promoting self-regulation in foreign language learners. *The Clearing House*, *74*(6), 323–326. https://doi.org/10.1080/00098650109599218

Mikulec, E., & Miller, P. C. (2011). Using project-based instruction to meet foreign language standards. *The Clearing House*, *84*(3), 81–86. https://doi.org/10.1080/00098655.2010.516779

Niemiec, C. P., & Muñoz, A. (2019). A need-supportive intervention delivered to English language teachers in Colombia: A pilot investigation based on self-determination theory. *Psychology*, *10*(7), 1025–1042. https://doi.org/10.4236/psych.2019.107067

Nilson, L. B. (2013). *Creating self-regulated learners: Strategies to strengthen students' self-awareness and learning skills*. Routledge.

Noreña, D. M., & Cano, L. M. (2020). Estrategias de autorregulación en el aprendizaje del inglés. *Actualidades Pedagógicas*, (75), 103–130. https://doi.org/10.19052/ap.vol1.iss75.6

Oates, S. (2019). The importance of autonomous, self-regulated learning in primary initial teacher training. *Frontiers in Education, 4*. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2019.00102

Olina, Z., & Sullivan, H. J. (2004). Student self-evaluation, teacher evaluation, and learner performance. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *52*, 5–22. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02504672

Oxford, R., & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues. *The Modern Language Journal*, *73*(4), 404–419. https://doi.org/10.2307/326876

Oxford, R. L. (2016). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies: Self-regulation in context* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315719146

Ozogul, G., & Sullivan, H. J. (2009). Student performance and attitudes under formative evaluation by teacher, self, and peer evaluators. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *57*, 393–410. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-007-9052-7

Padilla, A. M., Aninao, J. C., & Sung, H. (1996). Development and implementation of students' portfolios in foreign language programs. *Foreign Language Annals*, *29*(3), 429–438. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1996.tb01254.x

Panadero, E. (2017). A review of self-regulated learning: Six models and four directions for research. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *8*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00422

Peña Dix, B. (2013). Motivation and the concept of self-regulation: Theory and implications for English language teaching and learning in Colombia. *Voces y Silencios: Revista Latinoamericana de Educación*, *4*(1), 71–85. https://doi.org/10.18175/vys4.1.2013.04

Phillips, J. K. (1998). Media for the message: Technology's role in the standards. *CALICO Journal*, *16*(1), 25–36. https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.v16i1.25-36

Pintrich, P. R. (2004). A conceptual framework for assessing motivation and self-regulated learning in college students. *Educational Psychology Review*, *16*(4), 385–407. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-004-0006-x

Purpura, J. E. (2016). Second and foreign language assessment. *The Modern Language Journal*, *100*, 190–208. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12308

Rairan, S. (2024, June 15). *Colombia among countries with lowest English proficiency*. ColombiaOne. https://colombiaone.com/2024/06/15/colombia-english/

Schunk, D. H. (2001). *Self-regulation through goal setting* (ED462671). ERIC. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED462671.pdf

Schunk, D. H., & Greene, J. A. (Eds.). (2018). *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315697048

Sills, J., Hoffmann, R., & McGuire, S. Y. (2009). Teaching and learning strategies that work. *Science*, *325*(5945), 1203–1204. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.325_1203

Sowell, J. (2017). Good instruction-giving in the second-language classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, *55*(3), 10–19.

Stock, J., & Cervone, D. (1990). Proximal goal-setting and self-regulatory processes. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 14*(5), 483–498. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01172969

Teng, L. S. (2022). *Self-regulated learning and second language writing: Fostering strategic language learners*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-99520-1

Wolters, C. A., & Benzon, M. B. (2013). Assessing and predicting college students' use of strategies for the self-regulation of motivation. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *81*(2), 199–221. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.2012.699901

Xiao, J. (2014). Learner agency in language learning: The story of a distance learner of EFL in China. *Distance Education*, *35*(1), 4–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2014.891429

Zhang, L. J. (2010). A dynamic metacognitive systems account of Chinese university students' knowledge about EFL reading. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*(2), 320–353. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.223352

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory Into Practice*, *41*(2), 64–70. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_2

Zimmerman, B. J. (2004). Sociocultural influence and students' development of self-regulated learning: A social-cognitive perspective. In D. M. McInerney & S. Van Etten (Eds.), *Big theories revisited* (pp. 139–164). Information Age Publishing.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2008). Investigating self-regulation and motivation: Historical background, methodological developments, and future prospects. *American Educational Research Journal*, *45*(1), 166–183. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831207312909

Zorro Rojas, I. (2019). Principles of self-regulation in EFL mediated by dialogic tutoring sessions. *How*, *26*(2), 33–57. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.26.2.502

Zumbrunn, S., Tadlock, J., & Roberts, E. D. (2011). *Encouraging self-regulated learning in the classroom: A review of the literature*. Metropolitan Educational Research Consortium.

About the Authors

Jackeline Bravo is an English instructor and researcher who works at INEM High School in Pasto, Colombia. She obtained an MA in TESOL (Indiana University Indianapolis) as a Fulbright scholar (2020–2023). Her research focuses on second language investment and self-regulated learning in language instruction.

Roles: conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Estela Ene, PhD in Second Language Acquisition and Teaching (University of Arizona), is Chair of the English Department at Indiana University Indianapolis. Her research in EAP/ESL and TESOL focuses on translingualism, e-feedback, global learning, and teacher/program development. She has published in the *Journal of Second Language Writing* and other major publications.

Roles: conception of the research project, development of methods, and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge the support of the Department of English at Indiana University Indianapolis and Fulbright Colombia–Pasaporte a la Ciencia, as well as the valuable participation of all the teachers involved in this study.

Appendix A: Survey

Self-regulated learning (SRL) is the ability to exercise control over one's learning processes. Self-regulated learners are proactive and do not passively rely on teaching alone. They exhibit high motivation, autonomy, and actively generate their own thoughts, emotions, and attitudes to achieve their learning goals. This proactive approach contributes to their academic success (Zimmerman, 2002).

Questions[2]

1. Do you know of any language teaching methods (e.g., audio-lingual method), approaches (e.g., project-based approach), principles (e.g., agency, identity), and/or strategies (e.g., facilitation of negotiated interaction) that help to develop SRL?
   - Yes. Which ones? _____
   - I know about them, but I cannot use them because: _____
   - I do not know about them.

2. Your role as a teacher in your English course is best described as: (Select up to two answers.)
   - Controller: You are in control during all stages of your classes.
   - Director: You direct each stage of learning so that the process flows efficiently and smoothly.
   - Administrator: While you monitor progress towards course goals, you also give students the freedom to develop specific areas of their experience.
   - Facilitator: You allow your students, with your help, to find their own path to successful language learning.
   - Resource: You exercise some control but are mostly available as a counselor and advisor when students seek your help.
   - Other. Explain: _____

3. How often do you develop the following teaching practices?

	Never	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost always	Always
Give ample opportunities to practice with your support					
Develop authentic activities					
Promote the use of the English language in all stages of your English classes					
Promote collaborative learning					

2 The survey was administered in Spanish. It has been translated for publication purposes.

4. Which of the following best describes your assessment practices (formal or informal) in your English teaching? (Prioritize up to two responses based on the frequency of these practices in your teaching.)
   - I always give my students an assessment rubric.
   - I use the assessment exclusively to test language proficiency.
   - In addition to examining language proficiency, I use assessment procedures to promote self-assessment of students' study methods.
   - I do peer assessment to promote another way of learning.
   - None of the above.
   - Other. Explain: _____

5. Which of the following activities do you do most often after giving feedback? (Select only one answer.)
   - Guide your students to self-assess the effectiveness of the study strategies they used.
   - Guide your students to attribute causality to learning successes and errors.
   - Guide your students to make their own decisions about their study methods to enhance their future learning.
   - None of the above.
   - Other. Explain: _____

6. How do you promote motivation in your English learners? (Prioritize up to two responses based on the frequency of these practices in your teaching.)
   - I make positive comments about students' strengths.
   - I take into account my students' learning needs.
   - I take into account my students' cultural background.
   - I help my students to determine a goal to learn English if they do not already have one.
   - Grades are a reward that motivates students.
   - None of the above.
   - Other. Explain: _____

7. Which aspect that helps promote SRL do you emphasize the most at the beginning of your English course(s)? (Select one answer.)
   - I explain the characteristics of a good student of English.
   - I explain how to achieve high scores.
   - I teach my students how to reflect on their learning process.
   - None of the above.
   - Other. Explain: _____

8. Do you use technology (e.g., applications, programs, devices) to promote SRL processes in English teaching?
   - Yes, I use technology to promote self-regulated learning processes. Explain which ones: _____ _____

- No, I think technology inhibits students from developing SRL behaviors.
- I do use it, but I do not know how to use technology to promote SRL.

9. How often do you help your students in the following learning processes?

	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Frequently	Most of the time	Always
Set specific proximal goals for themselves						
Set strategies directly related to language learning						
Set strategies indirectly related to language learning but that favor its development (i.e., metacognitive, affective, social)						
Develop their own study plan						
Monitor their own study process						
Self-evaluate their study process						
Self-reflect on their English learning performance						
Make future learning plans based on their outcomes						

10. Are you willing to participate in a brief interview in the next stage of data collection in this study? If so, please provide your contact information.

Appendix B: Interview

1. How do you define self-regulated learning (SRL)?[3]
2. How do the methods, principles, strategies, and/or approaches that you know and/or use in your teaching practice help promote SRL?
   - In what ways do you help your students be self-regulated learners?
   - What activities, materials, and/or strategies do you use to promote SRL?
3. Do you develop any specific strategy to promote students' perceived self-efficacy? If so, how do you do that?
4. How does evaluation (formal and informal) normally take place in your classes?
5. How do you normally give feedback to your students?
6. How do you help your students attribute causality to their learning successes and failures?
7. How does your use of technology in English teaching influence students' SRL?

3 The interview was conducted in Spanish. The protocol has been translated for publication purposes.

P R O F I L E

Issues Based on Reflections and Innovations

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.119579

A Systematic Review of Narrative Studies in the English Language Teaching Field in Latin America

Una revisión sistemática de estudios narrativos en el campo de la enseñanza de inglés en Latinoamérica

Miguel Martínez-Luengas
Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Bogotá, Colombia

Andrés Felipe Micán-Castiblanco
Pontificia Universidad Javeriana & Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas, Bogotá, Colombia

This systematic review focuses on the significance of narrative inquiry in Latin American English language teaching research. Following an exploratory and descriptive methodology, we identified 198 publications in Redalyc, SciELO, and Scopus. PRISMA guidelines and detailed inclusion/exclusion criteria were used for selecting 38 articles published in 14 journals. A VOSviewer bibliometric map revealed connections between specific countries and keywords. According to the findings, narrative inquiry contributes to English language teaching research in four areas: pedagogical, methodological, ontological, and epistemological. Additionally, narratives emerge as a research lens and a pedagogical resource that can help teachers and students express themselves. As a result, this review provides insights into the perceptions and experiences of language education in the local region.

Keywords: English language teaching, Latin America, narrative inquiry, narrative studies, systematic review

Esta revisión sistemática se centra en la importancia de la investigación narrativa en el ámbito de la enseñanza del inglés en Latinoamérica. Se siguió una metodología exploratoria y descriptiva para identificar 198 publicaciones en Redalyc, SciELO y Scopus. Se utilizaron las directrices PRISMA y criterios detallados de inclusión/exclusión para seleccionar 38 artículos publicados en catorce revistas. Un mapa bibliométrico de VOSviewer reveló vínculos entre países específicos y palabras clave. Según los hallazgos, la indagación narrativa contribuye a la investigación en la enseñanza del inglés en cuatro áreas: pedagógica, metodológica, ontológica y epistemológica. Adicionalmente, las narrativas surgen como lente de investigación y recurso pedagógico que puede ayudar a profesores y estudiantes a expresarse. Así, esta revisión revela las percepciones y experiencias alrededor de la educación en idiomas en la región.

Palabras clave: enseñanza del inglés, estudios narrativos, investigación narrativa, Latinoamérica, revisión sistemática

Miguel Martínez-Luengas https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0456-2604 • Email: lmartinezlu@unal.edu.co
Andrés Felipe Micán-Castiblanco https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0049-750X • Email: a.mican@javeriana.edu.co

How to cite this article (APA, 7th ed.): Martínez-Luengas, M., & Micán-Castiblanco, A. F. (2026). A systematic review of narrative studies in the English language teaching field in Latin America. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *28*(1), 215–232. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v28n1.119579

This article was received on March 30, 2025 and accepted on October 22, 2025.

Introduction

It has come to our attention, after surveying the ELT research landscape in recent years, that teachers, scholars, and analysts have taken on narrative methods to explore different facets of English language teaching (e.g., innovative resources and pedagogical approaches), research methodologies (e.g., collecting qualitative data from personal experiences, which affects the way findings are presented), and perspectives from various stakeholders (e.g., studies including undergraduate and graduate participants). Thus, we can argue that narrative studies hold explanatory potential and offer insights into the particularities of English teaching and learning across different scenarios.

In Latin America, where English is a foreign language and linguistic policies are typically implemented via a top-down approach, narrative inquiries can be pertinent to English language educators and researchers (Banegas et al., 2020). Narrative inquiries can provide a voice for various stakeholders to inform more inclusive teaching methods and serve as a bottom-up form of pushback. To arrange the key findings of recent narrative research, this review focuses on Latin America, although we expect that the information gained can be used in similar English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) environments in other parts of the world.

This systematic review examines studies on narrative inquiry in the ELT field in Latin America published between 2007 and 2024. It emphasizes the relevance of this topic to the academic community, situates it within a socio-historical perspective, and synthesizes the findings of recent narrative research from an educational standpoint. Following the typology of research synthesis proposed by Chong and Plonsky (2024), this review adopts a systematic documentary analysis approach. In this case, the emphasis is on research, as the review examines challenges in implementing narrative inquiry and provides evidence-based justifications for its value in ELT (Macaro et al., 2018).

Martínez-Luengas and Méndez (2023) argue that narrative approaches have been used by scholars to analyze various aspects: narrative space at the levels of interaction, continuity, and situation (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000); sequential narratives, where events are placed in a logical order (Bruner, 1991); locally oriented narratives, which focus on authorized narratives and their local contexts; narrative frames as a valuable and comprehensive perspective on a particular field of study (Barkhuizen & Wette, 2008). For Aguirre-Garzón and Ubaque-Casallas (2022), narrative inquiry is a tool for documenting mentors' experiences from marginal places. The intersection of numerous shared experiences can have an influence on larger domains (e.g., policies, curricula, assessment), giving narrators the authority to make informed decisions after self-reflection of their practices (Holley & Colyar, 2009). Thus, narrative studies have gained relevance in the field because they provide natural and contextualized overviews of people's lives and experiences (De Laurentis & Porta, 2014).

This review analyzes 38 journal articles from Latin America, written by scholars based in the region. These studies place narrative research at the center of inquiry, reflection, and exploration in the ELT field. Through this analysis, we examine collective knowledge on narratives, highlighting both key trends and existing gaps. However, despite their growing use, narratives are sometimes perceived—especially by uninformed readers—as highly subjective forms of communication that lack academic rigor. This perception often stems from reducing narratives to a mere data collection technique, without acknowledging their broader methodological, cultural, political, and epistemological contributions to ELT research (Aguirre-Garzón & Ubaque-Casallas, 2022).

In our view, narrative inquiry is more than just a research method, and we may learn more about how this research strategy affects other aspects of ELT by closely analyzing research on narrative inquiry

conducted in the region. Furthermore, in a social field such as education, narratives are important to gather individuals' life stories, interpretations, and experiences, which are essential for understanding human perspectives (Dwyer & Emerald, 2017). Through this systematic review, we also aim to provide a reflection on narratives from different perspectives: epistemological (a way of knowing), methodological/procedural (methods, techniques, and tools), ontological (socio-emotional issues and personal facts), and pedagogical (teaching and learning in the ELT field).

Method

This review follows a qualitative research approach (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Hernández Sampieri et al., 2014) in two main ways: first, it prioritizes the exploration of meanings and themes emerging from the articles, and second, it highlights interpretive insights rather than numerical evidence, organizing the studies into trends. The study examined articles published in journals indexed in Scopus, SciELO, and Redalyc to ensure broader access to relevant research. SciELO and Redalyc index numerous scholarly and significant articles from the region that may not appear in the most frequently cited and ranked journals, yet still contribute valuable insights to the field.

Our research was guided by the following key terms, which included combinations and Boolean operators to refine the search:

(EFL) AND (NARRATIVES); (NARRATIVE STUDY) AND (EFL); (NARRATIVE STUDY) AND (ENGLISH LANGUAGE); (NARRATIVES) AND (ENGLISH) AND (LANGUAGE); (NARRATIVE) AND (TEACHING); (NARRATIVE) AND (TEACHING) AND (ENGLISH LANGUAGE); (NARRATIVE) AND (ELT FIELD).

At this point, we did not include "Latin America" as a search term because we wanted to be able to identify instances of studies in particular countries that the broader term might have obscured or obliterated. Figure 1 shows the studies identified and the quantitative reduction of data.

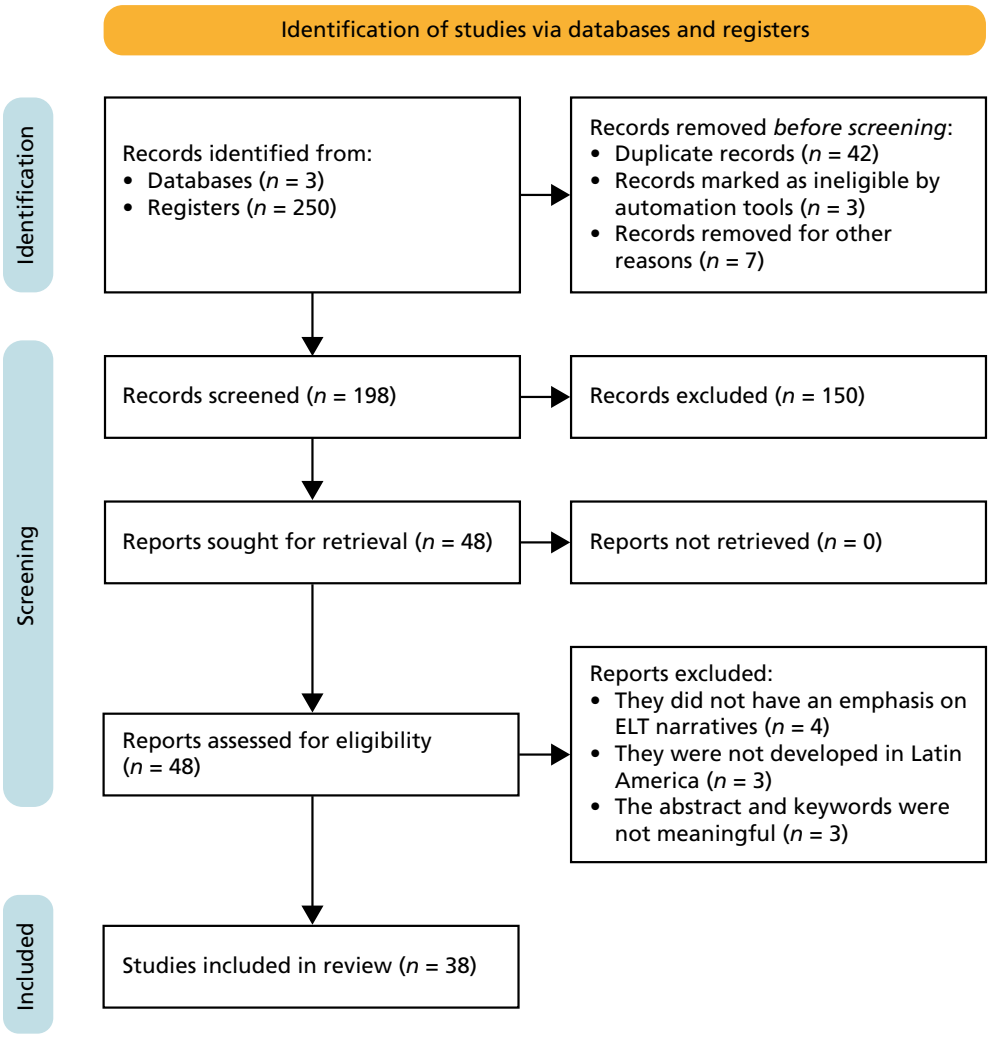
Data Analysis

We adopted three stages for data analysis, considering the procedure followed by Duque Salazar et al. (2024): (a) definition of the area of interest, (b) inclusion and exclusion criteria (see Table 1), and (c) systematic analysis and socialization of results.

Table 1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Articles with an emphasis on narratives and ELT	Articles without an emphasis on narratives and ELT
Articles developed in Latin America or referring to the Latin American context	Articles not developed in Latin America or not referring to the Latin American context
The abstract and keywords provided meaningful information	The abstract and keywords did not provide meaningful information
Articles written in Spanish, English, Portuguese, or French	Articles written in any other language
Articles retrieved from Scopus, SciELO, and/or Redalyc	Articles included in any other database or repository
Published between 2007 and 2024 to have a comprehensive body of recent research while keeping the dataset manageable	Published before 2007

Figure 1. PRISMA 2020 Flow Diagram for Systematic Reviews



Note. Adapted from "The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews," by M. J. Page, J. E. McKenzie, P. M. Bossuyt, I. Boutron, T. C. Hoffmann, C. D. Mulrow, L. Shamseer, J. M. Tetzlaff, E. A. Akl, S. E. Brennan, R. Chou, J. Glanville, J. M. Grimshaw, A. Hróbjartsson, M. M. Lalu, T. Li, E. W. Loder, E. Mayo-Wilson, S. McDonald, . . . D. Moher, 2021, *BMJ*, *372*(71), https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n71. Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY 4.0).

We organized the 198 articles for screening into a table that included title, keywords, and abstract of each article. Each of us read these articles independently, and we met biweekly for four months to discuss the findings. At the end of this period, we had curated a list of 48 papers to be assessed for eligibility: two from Argentina, 13 from Brazil, one from Chile, 24 from Colombia, one from Ecuador, six from Mexico, and one from Panama. After applying the exclusion criteria, we ended up with 38 articles for analysis.

Table 2 provides an overview of the distribution of articles across various academic journals, which illustrates the diversity of sources contributing to the narrative research landscape in ELT within the region. The journal *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development* is notable for having the highest number of articles (15), indicating its significance in

Table 2. Journals and Number of Articles

Journal	# of articles
Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal (Colombia)	1
Ensaio: Avaliação e Políticas Públicas em Educação (Brazil)	1
Folios (Colombia)	3
Gragoatá (Brazil)	1
How (Colombia)	1
Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura (Colombia)	3
Praxis Educativa (Argentina)	1
Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development (Colombia)	15
Revista Electrónica "Actualidades Investigativas en Educación" (Costa Rica)	1
Revista Brasileira de Lingüística Aplicada (Brazil)	6
Revista Mexicana de Investigación Educativa (Mexico)	1
SciELO Preprints (Brazil)	1
Teaching and Teacher Education (United Kingdom)	1
Trabalhos em Linguística Aplicada (Colombia)	2
Total	**38**

exploring narratives within the context of English language education. Other journals, such as *Revista Brasileira de Lingüística Aplicada* (6) and *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura* (3), also play a crucial role in advancing the state of the art in narrative studies. The remaining journals, which feature one or two articles each, highlight the breadth of interdisciplinary interest in narrative studies, albeit with a less concentrated contribution. This distribution emphasizes the importance of diverse academic perspectives in enriching the understanding of narratives in ELT and the ongoing dialogue surrounding narrative methodologies and their implications for language teaching and learning.

Findings

General Overview of Narrative Research

We start by presenting descriptive aspects to provide an overview of the field based on the 198 initial studies and the 2007–2024 period. For this process, we used VOSviewer, a tool designed to construct and visualize bibliometric networks based on aspects such as bibliographic coupling, citations, co-citations, co-occurrences, and co-authorship relationships, mapping connections and clusters among journals, research studies, and individual publications. The initial step involved examining the relationship between the "keywords" and the topic of "narratives in the ELT field." Table 3 illustrates both the frequency of the main terms used in the studies and the connections established among them.

The most representative keywords include "English Language Teaching," "Narrative," "Education," and "Language." The intersections among these terms highlight that "narrative" is not a static keyword; rather, its recurrence across the maps indicates its central role in the field. The visualizations also provide an overview of the relevance of keywords evident in clusters and specific relationships among them. In addition, Table 4 illustrates patterns of co-authorship and identifies countries where narratives in the ELT field have attracted particular attention.

Table 3. Main Keywords Used in Narrative ELT Research

Keyword	Occurrences
Narrative	14
Human	8
Teaching	11
English (language)	6
Humans	6
Female	5
Male	5
Review	5
Human experiment	5
Education	5
Systematic review	7
Language	5
Narrative inquiry	8
English language teaching	32
Gender	5

Table 4. Co-Authorship and Countries (2007–2024)

Country	Documents	Citations
United Kingdom	10	104
United States	12	122
South Korea	5	94
China	7	21
Colombia	6	13
Iran	8	114
Japan	5	30
Thailand	4	70
Türkiye	4	28
Indonesia	4	14
Spain	4	22

The UK, the US, and several Asian countries regularly publish texts (e.g., articles, book chapters, reviews) on narratives in the ELT field. However, it is important to notice that some Latin American countries report significant results, particularly Colombia.

When considering narrative research in a broad sense beyond ELT, it is noteworthy that it has been explored primarily in disciplines such as social studies and the arts and humanities (see Figure 2). Other fields (e.g., medicine, computer science, and the natural sciences) have adopted narratives as a valuable approach to inquiry.

Trends of Narrative Research in the Latin American ELT Field

To enhance descriptive and analytical clarity, we categorized the documentation into trends that highlight life stories, testimonies, and everyday experiences, all of which play a significant role in ELT and research. These narrative approaches have methodological and epistemological value in areas such as teaching and learning, data collection, pedagogical implementation, and document analysis. We also sought to strengthen the connections between the observed trends and their contribution to the wider field of narrative inquiry.

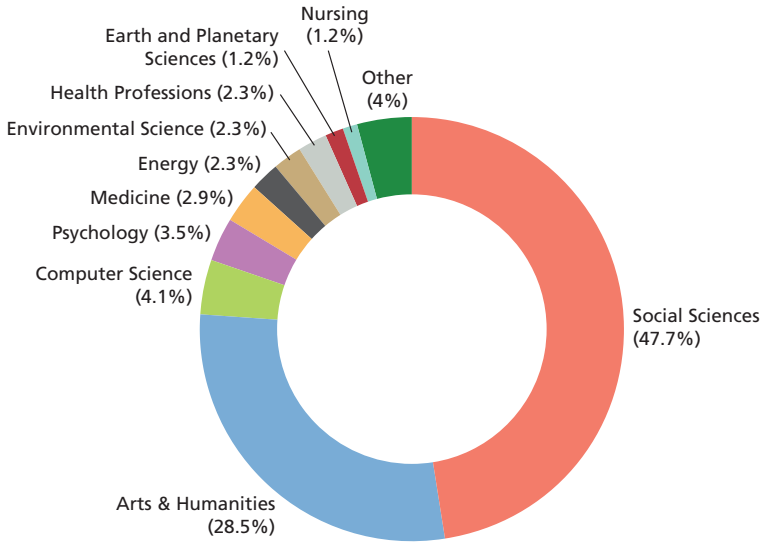
Our findings are presented in four main groupings: epistemological, ontological, methodological/procedural, and pedagogical. Each is discussed in detail, supported by quotes and a descriptive-interpretative analysis, complemented by our perspective as researcher-educators.

Narratives From an Epistemological Rationale

Traditionally, epistemology involves analyzing ideas such as truth, validity, objectivity, method, theory, hypothesis, and evidence. However, the decline of positivism and empiricism as the "only" truths for constructing social knowledge has led many academic perspectives to move away from this framework. Accordingly, research on the construction of social knowledge is shifting from the positivism and empiricism of scientific disciplines to a wider range of epistemological viewpoints, where subjectivity and the inherent importance of specific situations are significant (Gómez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018).

In this regard, ELT narratives address different themes, such as professional development (Mora et al., 2014), initial education curricula (Sarasa, 2017),

Figure 2. Subject Area of Narrative Studies (2007–2024)



and theories of critical media literacy/critical peace education (Aristizábal Cardona & Ortiz Medina, 2023). Similarly, narratives are portrayed as an epistemological possibility for research in education (Bolívar et al., 2001; Bruner, 1986). By following narrative inquiries as a way to combine environments, subjects, and experiences, scholars have tackled topics relevant to both education and ELT.

For example, in an ethnographic case study that used descriptive-theoretical narrative analysis, de Olivera Nascimento (2019) explored how the participants (undergraduate students, teacher educators, and public-school teachers) construct meaning (knowledge) regarding the ubiquitous presence of English in the academic arena. This shows how stories form, organize, and spread information, and provides insights into how we perceive the world and ourselves. Narratives also involve a higher percentage of research-oriented tasks, critical-reflective participation, and social commitment (Mosquera-Pérez & Losada-Rivas, 2022). This interest enables comprehension of the social subject as the main character in a transforming event and prompts reflection on epistemologies.

Along the same lines, scholars in the field make an implicit claim for the ELT field to take advantage of narrative inquiries to not only share individual stories but, perhaps more importantly, to establish an epistemological stance where knowledge construction is mediated by narratives (Barkhuizen, 2013; Norton, 2013; Nunan, 2013). From this perspective, we identified a connection between narratives and epistemological issues, as life events and knowledge construction unfold over time. Aguirre-Garzón and Ubaque-Casallas (2024) state the relevance of their epistemological position(s) in encouraging them and others to express and challenge the beliefs they have taken for granted rather than to assert epistemic legitimacy or methodological validity. That understanding allows them to avoid the "knowing-known" subject epistemology (Vasilachis de Gialdino, 2003), mainly present in the traditional and canonical objectivist research paradigm that has also dominated the subjectivities of teachers. Although narratives contribute

to education and comprehension, they are also inherently subjective, containing presumptions, opinions, and desires that lend them a subjective, potentially oppressive, and influential aspect.

Consequently, the propagation of narratives in the field is based on conceptual realities (theoretical or empirical) that are powerful for teaching, learning, reflective, and/or social processes. Constructs such as subjectivity, objectivity, domination, and even the interepistemic dialogue among narrative inquiry from a decolonial perspective (Posada-Ortiz, 2022) constitute a path to keep transiting through the stories and life events of the community involved. Furthermore, narratives bring to the fore the social construction of knowledge, not just through an individual's internal dialogue (as attested in intersectional narratives, where the individual's multiple identities overlap; Ubaque-Casallas, 2021), but also through their interactional component (narratives are explored and interpreted by an audience).

Ricoeur (1978/1999) argues that language cannot be reduced to a single process or method (as in the structuralist view in linguistics and literature) because, when we talk or narrate, we do not use language as an object but as a medium to convey meaning. In narratives, the relationship of the subject with the world and its historical past is intertwined with the imaginative variations typical of human fiction, allowing individuals to view themselves as historical subjects (Berkenbroc-Rosito et al., 2021). Moreover, implementing narratives in EFL classes is essential to help students gain perspective on contemporary events and deepen their understanding of the past. This becomes evident in the way EFL teachers incorporate historical narrative resources into their teaching practices.

Thus, within a framework of knowledge construction evolving through time, epistemology promotes narratives that reconstruct the past and present as a combination of potential futures. To add to this dialogue, narratives as an epistemological option also favor the development of authentic knowledge in ELT teacher education (Sarasa, 2015), as they provide a real-life context for understanding concepts and processes, particularly during the teaching-learning processes.

In a study that used autobiographies to explore the beliefs of student-teachers in a teacher education program, Durán Narváez et al. (2013) found that past and present events shape the participants' beliefs. Indeed, the authors consider autobiographies a fundamental tool for recording events along a temporal line. According to them, autobiographies seem to be a useful tool for examining teachers' beliefs, conceptualizations, ideas, and behaviors.

To sum up, the epistemological rationale in narratives highlights the significance of addressing problematic human experiences (Castañeda-Trujillo & Aguirre-Hernández, 2018) and gives meaning to what has happened or is happening in the contexts (e.g., EFL classes), events, or activities in which communities are involved.

Narratives in the Nature of Being(s)

Narrative and storytelling are structural conditions of human existence and have a fundamental ontological approach. Hence, people and institutions give meaning to reality and its experience through different narratives of a historical, social, and cultural nature (Pavlenko, 2007).

Social reality is ontologically subjective since it is created, preserved, and given meaning by common beliefs, behaviors, and interactions rather than existing independently of humans. However, studies on this topic achieve objectivity precisely with language, as argued by Berger and Luckmann (1972). We also spotted a connection between EFL teachers' realities and professional identities; it can be deduced that (auto)biographies (as fundamental components in narratives) purport to be, in essence, primarily objective reflections to analyze an individual's personality, reasons, difficulties, and development of their achieve-

ments and failures in life by looking at a range of significant events in chronological order.

Likewise, Londoño Bonilla (2022) identifies biographical factors such as experiences in educational trajectories, representations of being a teacher, working conditions, individual and social motivations, and the potential these factors have to shape a different future by transforming reality. While the relevance of narratives in defining one's identity can be acknowledged, Moreno (2004) underscores the need to discuss "life stories"—accounts that cannot be fully conveyed without focusing on meaningful events or aspects. These narratives can take autobiographical forms or be expressed orally or in writing to an interlocutor.

As a contribution from reflections, we should say that life stories narrate experiences lived by the narrator, which are brought into the ELT field to be (re)interpreted by teachers. These experiences are remembered, interpreted, and carried out by the life storyteller (Bonilla-Medina et al., 2021). Hence, biographies, autobiographies, life stories, and so on, are directly immersed in the nature of being and self, where ontology brings out a condition of life, including the relations of people with events, histories, and their natural characteristics. Ontology studies "being and reality" as a narrative condition; thus, the events people experience are shaped by interactions with others and by life stories that unfold in certain contexts and memorable situations.

For instance, Cárdenas (2024) used documentary evidence (published issues, routinely gathered data, editing processes, and connection with editorial teams) and her personal recollections from her time as *Profile* editor to understand the viewpoints of authors and reviewers. This means that communities in the knowledge society are characterized by their ability to produce, disseminate, and exchange knowledge as a fundamental component of their existence rather than something that exists independently of them. According to Cárdenas, life stories can also be used to pinpoint the preliminary, ongoing, and transforming issues that need to be fixed to preserve a local, reputable scientific journal for English language teachers. This systematic review benefits from the reflection of a journal editor, as it illustrates how research communities create trustworthy knowledge and how editors consider the way scholars should responsibly present, frame, and promote that knowledge.

Furthermore, the ontological trend within narrative research highlights another key factor: the participants' socio-emotional issues and personal traits, which are strongly connected to discourse practices (Souza de Oliveira & Fabrício, 2023). We, as narrative perspective researchers, contend that emotions and feelings are direct representations of the self (a sense of being), as social theory holds (Barbalet, 2001). Moreover, an individual's biography, life story, and other narratives are shaped by subjectivities and experiences that are regarded as concrete representations of reality. Individuals can use narratives to understand their position in particular social contexts. For instance, Clavijo Olarte et al. (2019) showed how teachers and students challenged the difficult circumstances faced in the early 21st century, especially those who work and learn in public schools with limited funding and resources in metropolitan areas.

Also, Ramos (2022) portrayed how the emotional experiences of English language teachers during their initial training and professional development significantly impact their academic journey. The author gathered information on emotions from written and spoken reports, individual interviews, screening sessions, class observations, and video recordings. The participants' emotions encouraged the researcher to ask about relational, genuine, and personal aspects. Then, from an exploratory stance, the narratives generated opportunities for reflection and self-awareness, which may allow the participants to transform their teaching practices or even their professional identity.

We argue that private notions, passing through human aspects and converging on sentimental assumptions, are important when handling narratives. Narratives from an academic community that have been expressed through personal/introspective conditions constitute another gap in this review. These narratives help people make sense of their experiences and knowledge, and they also address the fact that realities and concerns are not limited to one location, even though they are always changing, depending on the human aspects of life (Mendieta, 2013).

Narratives as a Methodological Approach in ELT Research

Among the various understandings of narratives that contribute to a comprehensive view of their role in ELT research in Latin America, one of paramount importance concerns methodological perspectives that advocate the use of narratives across different paradigms, methods, approaches, designs, and strategies. There seems to be an overlap in uses and understandings, and a plurality of voices encoded in the literature review, so that both the researcher and participants in a narrative study need to make an informed decision to clearly state in their narratives their understanding of the methodological aspects that characterize this sort of research approach. As suggested by Mendieta (2013), narrative research does not adhere to a single approach but encompasses a variety of methods and theoretical frameworks: "Narrative researchers make use of different methods and rely on different, though not necessarily competing, epistemological or theoretical ideas" (p. 140).

According to Sierra Ospina and Giraldo Gil (2020), narratives as a research approach allow researchers to interrogate the particularities of teaching contexts and the complexities of teachers' subjective experiences. From that view, situated scenarios and personal voices are key to better comprehending the ELT field. In Latin America, narratives have been used for understanding the complexities of teacher identities and revealing the lived realities of educators (Cruz-Arcila, 2020), as well as diverse life dimensions, including individuals' worldviews, actions, decision-making processes, conclusions, and personal judgments (Trejo Guzmán & Mora Vásquez, 2014). An important point concerns how researchers conceive the relationship between their own role and that of the participants. As Aguirre-Garzón and Ubaque-Casallas (2024) explain, "we are not talking here about an information collection process but about a sustained process of co-construction of knowledge" (p. 79). In this view, what matters is not only the data themselves but also the constant dialogue and the collaborative effort to make sense of participants' experiences.

For some scholars, narrative inquiry should complement rather than replace traditional research methods, as it offers unique insights into situated contexts. Seerig and Nicolaides (2022, as cited in Barkhuizen et al., 2013) argue that "narrative inquiry is relevant . . . because it enhances our comprehension of the inner thoughts of both teachers and students" (p. 190). Ubaque-Casallas (2023a) links narrative inquiry to the "no-methodology" approach, which allows for a more fluid and ethical engagement with narratives, where the focus is on co-constructing meaning rather than merely collecting data. Narrative inquiry represents a shift from viewing research as a data collection exercise to understanding it as a collaborative process that fosters deeper insights and transformative learning. This view not only enriches research findings but also empowers participants by acknowledging their agency and promotes ethical research practices.

Narratives have also been used as instruments (Mendieta Aguilar, 2011), whether in the form of oral, written, pictorial, and multimodal texts (Berkenbroc-Rosito et al., 2021). Moreover, they also coexist with complementary research instruments and techniques such as surveys, participant observation, notes, group discussions, recordings, recalls, and reflective

activities, among others (Castañeda-Trujillo & Aguirre-Hernández, 2018). Narratives are used as data sources to explore, among other things, the emotional landscape of teaching, which, as Ramos (2022) suggests, is necessary to comprehend teachers' development.

As some scholars have documented, narrative research in ELT overcomes a narrow view of methodological design. Castañeda-Trujillo et al. (2022) propose that narrative researchers do not simply gather stories; they should interpret them to make sense of their meanings and to unveil how they connect with research itself. Likewise, Ochoa Delgado et al. (2023) argue that this type of inquiry is hermeneutic in nature, and it involves a mutual relationship between the parts and the whole. Furthermore, de Laurentiis Brandão et al. (2023) argue that the flexibility of narrative inquiry enables the exploration of teaching and learning as it brings together different data sources, supports holistic analysis, values participants' voices, fosters reflection, and situates narratives within broader contexts. Taken together, these features allow researchers to have more informed insights into educational processes.

Despite their strengths, narrative studies in ELT also show certain limitations. The absence of a shared methodological framework leads to different interpretations, which can create inconsistencies or leave some accounts less firmly grounded. Because narratives focus on personal experience, questions of subjectivity and research bias inevitably arise, and these have often been spotted by more hegemonic perspectives concerned with traditional rigor. Another challenge has to do with scope: findings are usually attached to specific contexts, which limits generalization but at the same time acknowledges the importance of the local. Ethical issues such as agency and power relations also deserve closer attention. Finally, the potential of digital narratives and new technologies remains unexplored, even though they are becoming increasingly relevant in research.

Narratives to Nurture Pedagogical Practice

A key aspect highlighted in this review is the influence of narratives in language teaching programs and in studies conducted across different contexts in the region. Narratives are not limited to epistemological, ontological, and methodological considerations; they also promote reflections on teaching practices themselves. Through stories and the contexts in which they emerge, such practices can be strengthened, questioned, and enriched by pedagogical approaches that draw on narrative as both inspiration and method. Some pedagogical understandings derived from narratives are described below.

Some scholars suggest that narratives can serve as reflective tools for the development and professional growth of preservice and in-service teachers by fostering self-reflection, critical thinking, dialogue, and collaborative learning among educators and students (Aguirre-Garzón & Ubaque-Casallas, 2022; de Laurentiis Brandão, 2021; Huchim Aguilar & Reyes Chávez, 2013; Ubaque-Casallas, 2023b). Narratives may also contribute to language teaching and learning when teachers bring learners' stories into the classroom. Doing so can foster a more responsive environment that recognizes and builds on the students' diverse backgrounds and experiences (Ubaque, 2016). Besides, the possibility of understanding the reasons behind some students' resistance to learning English can inspire educators to think of effective and culturally situated teaching strategies (Rocha Pessoa & Plaza Pinto, 2013).

In our review, we also found that narratives (a) are valuable tools to foster inclusive and participatory learning environments (De Laurentis & Porta, 2014); (b) they allow individuals to recognize their capabilities and strengths (Bonilla-Medina et al., 2021), which in turn can promote a stronger sense of professional identity; (c) they contribute to understanding the teacher–student relationship and the socio-emotional dimensions of education (Rosas-Maldonado et al.,

2021); and (d) they can acknowledge the leaners' diverse identities and experiences to craft inclusive and socially responsive educational practices (Bonilla-Medina et al., 2021; Nascimento, 2019). For example, Nascimento (2019) explored how the narratives of Black teachers might offer a critical perspective on classroom materials and methods to confront the ideologies that reproduce racism and exclusion in educational settings.

Aguirre-Garzón and Ubaque-Casallas (2024) propose another interesting view. They suggest that narratives can be understood as "pedagogical sites" where learners and educators problematize and share who they are, for instance, as professionals. Narratives also open the possibility to rethink research practices in ethical and political terms. For instance, they can welcome voices often marginalized within educational discourse. Mosquera-Pérez and Losada-Rivas (2022) also claim that narratives can enhance the views of teachers that inform their pedagogical philosophies and methodologies.

The review also showed that a comprehensive understanding of identities and experiences is achieved when learners and teachers share their stories (Caldeira Andrade, 2007). Therefore, narratives might be considered a bridge between personal histories and language learning. In this sense, they become a democratizing tool in education (Sarasa, 2015), one that can "liberate students and teachers alike" (p. 15) and revalue local experiences within broader global dynamics. Ubaque-Casallas (2021) argues that narratives can challenge instrumental approaches to language teaching and promote social transformation. Therefore, a pedagogical view of narratives not only discusses epistemic, methodological, and ontological questions but also opens up the possibility of interrogating local practices and unveiling lived experiences.

Despite this overview, there are still some challenges, such as the limited empirical evidence on how narratives affect learning outcomes, which makes it difficult to assess their impact beyond a qualitative stance. Moreover, even though they promote inclusion and critical reflection, the use of narratives in the classroom often depends on teachers' readiness to integrate them. Institutional pressures, rigid assessment schemes, and the prevalence of standardized testing might restrict the potential of narratives.

Another limitation is the tendency to focus on teacher narratives, sometimes overlooking student voices and the ways learners actively construct meaning through storytelling. Furthermore, although narratives challenge dominant ideologies, their transformative potential is constrained when they are not accompanied by broader systemic changes in language education policies and practices.

Discussion

After identifying the trends and gaps in narrative research in ELT in Latin America, we propose three domains that may guide future narrative research and practice in ELT.

Narrative Instruments

Finding a method to access life events through specific instruments—such as autobiographies, case studies, and life stories—is fundamental in narrative research. These instruments facilitate the thematization of the narrator's self-intuitive processes, the chronological reconstruction of stories, and the interpretation of meaning (Cadei, 2005). These distinctive characteristics give narratives a crucial role in meaning-making, particularly in shaping personal identity. Even when individuals recognize, interpret, and reflect on their experiences, these experiences continue to actively shape their lives as teacher-researchers in ELT (Ovalle Quiroz & González, 2023).

Narrative research interweaves cognitive, emotional-affective, and relational dimensions, creating a highly formative value that serves as a transformative tool for individuals seeking to make sense

of the world while constructing their personal and relational identities. This process fosters transformation, emancipation, and reflection, contributing to the development of a well-rounded individual. Various narrative approaches act as pillars supporting introspection, self-analysis, and self-formation. As Caldeira Andrade (2007) notes, since storytelling is an innate human practice from an early age, the narrative model often feels more natural and accessible than other methods for reporting experiences. Furthermore, Mosquera-Pérez and Losada-Rivas (2022) note how the academic community recognizes the value of narratives in allowing researchers to interpret and understand, from a critical perspective, the realities that shape and reflect social issues.

Narrative as a Research Process

In ELT, understanding narrative as a research process provides a robust framework for examining the complexities of language teaching. Narratives, in a broad sense, not only serve as methods for gathering data but also become dynamic tools that assist participants and researchers in co-creating knowledge. When researchers commit to narratives, they may learn about teachers' and students' lived experiences and uncover connections among pedagogy, context, and identity.

Narrative inquiry is also seen as a way to analyze the events that influence teaching methods. To illustrate both individual and collective identities, it offers a lens through which to explore the social and personal aspects of educational experiences. This supports the claim that in trying to create effective teaching strategies and promote fruitful research, one needs a thorough understanding of the larger context of language learning.

We might therefore notice that the narrative research process fosters reflexivity by inviting researchers to reflect on their roles and perspectives. This reflexivity creates an environment for collaborative research in which participants' views are valued. When addressing the co-construction of narratives, researchers may contest established power structures and hold a more equitable representation of educational possibilities.

Furthermore, narrative research emphasizes the importance of context to define learning objectives. Scholars seek to understand how cultural, social, and historical factors influence language learning, challenging traditional assumptions that promote reductionist interpretations of specific contexts. This perspective not only contextualizes research practice but also assists researchers and teachers in creating pedagogical approaches that better suit the realities of our students.

Digital Narratives

The development of digital narratives in ELT requires further studies, analyses, and pedagogical implications, as it seems to be an emerging area of work. To put it simply, digital narratives utilize multimedia and multimodal sources (such as images, videos, and audio) to tell stories in educational contexts (van Leeuwen, 2022). The potential of incorporating digital components in narratives can result in more participatory and interactive experiences.

For instance, López-Gopar et al. (2013) used pictures and videos, as multimodal signs, to present ethnographic representations of indigenous and mestizo children in Mexico who were learning English in semi-urban and rural areas of Oaxaca as part of a critical ethnographic action research project. Their study clearly evidenced how this type of narrative can engage participants and communities.

Likewise, digital narratives, conceived as a research tool and pedagogical strategy in ELT, may take various formats, such as social media posts, infographics, images, videos, and podcasts. These creative and digital formats may offer options to present content in less-used modes.

Conclusions

After this systematic review, we can conclude that examining narratives in ELT highlights their significance as a useful teaching tool and research option. However, caution should be taken with how they are used, as a careless approach could diminish their distinctiveness. In educational environments, narratives can be received more meaningfully when addressed thoughtfully.

The field of ELT has greatly benefited from narratives, which have also influenced ways of teaching across a variety of contexts. We think they bring reflective resources to teachers, students, and the community at large to encourage critical thinking, self-awareness, and collaborative learning. Incorporating narratives into the classroom can also improve the teaching process by creating a flexible and pleasant atmosphere that acknowledges students' diverse backgrounds and life experiences.

We also highlight the importance of analyzing the role researchers play in narrative studies. The ways narratives are co-constructed, and their meanings interpreted, can potentially be influenced by the multifaceted relationship between participants and researchers. Therefore, reflexivity is required to comprehend the subjective experiences of individuals as well as the learning context.

In addition, the possibility of adopting narratives can transform education because they provide teachers and students with a sense of agency. Instead of simply repeating experiences, people who share narratives engage with interesting learning processes. Active students may express their cultural backgrounds and particular identities in the classroom. This consideration supports, on the one hand, the idea that narratives are essential to knowledge generation and meaning making within the ELT context and, on the other, that they are more than educational instruments.

We hence agree that the use of narratives in ELT is not simply a pedagogical, methodological, ontological, or epistemological matter. It further demonstrates an ethical and political responsibility to fully understand languages, cultures, and identities in a range of educational scenarios. Researchers and teachers are invited to reflect upon the transformative potential of narratives in language education and the teaching of English in the region.

References

Aguirre-Garzón, E., & Ubaque-Casallas, D. (2022). Mentoring language student-teachers: A narrative perspective to mentors' experiences from borders and cracks. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *24*(2), 133–147. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v24n2.93096

Aguirre-Garzón, E., & Ubaque-Casallas, D. (2024). An EFL student-teacher's cuir identity: Narratives from a pedagogical practicum experience. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *26*(2), 73–87. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v26n2.110685

Aristizábal Cardona, A. J., & Ortiz Medina, J. M. (2023). Envisioning paths towards peacebuilding in foreign language teacher education. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *28*(1), 49–68. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v28n1a03

Banegas, D. L., De Stefani, M., Rebolledo, P., Rico Troncoso, C., & Smith, R. (Eds.). (2020). *Horizontes 1: ELT Research in Latin America*. IATEFL.

Barbalet, J. M. (2001). *Emotion, social theory, and social structure: A macrosociological approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Barkhuizen, G. (Ed.). (2013). *Narrative research in applied linguistics*. Cambridge University Press.

Barkhuizen, G., Benson, P., & Chik, A. (2013). *Narrative inquiry in language teaching and learning research* (1st ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203124994

Barkhuizen, G., & Wette, R. (2008). Narrative frames for investigating the experiences of language teachers. *System*, *36*(3), 372–387. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.02.002

Berger, P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1972). *La construcción social de la realidad* (S. Zuleta, Trans.). Amorrortu Editores.

Berkenbroc-Rosito, M. M., de Souza, J. P. P., & Souza, S. B. (2021). "Quilt", aesthetic experience and auto-biographical narrative: Future teachers and the art of listening. *Ensaio: Avaliação e Políticas Públicas em Educação*, *29*(113), 1024–1044. https://doi.org/10.1590/S0104-403602100002902907

Bolívar, A., Domingo, J., & Fernández, M. (2001). *La investigación biográfico-narrativa en educación: enfoque y metodología*. Editorial La Muralla.

Bonilla-Medina, S. X., Varela, K. V., & García, K. (2021). Configuration of racial identities of learners of English. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *23*(2), 137–150. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v23n2.90374

Bruner, J. (1986). *Actual minds, possible worlds*. Harvard University Press. https://doi.org/10.4159/9780674029019

Bruner, J. (1991). The narrative construction of reality. *Critical Inquiry*, *18*(1), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1086/448619

Cadei, L. (2005). *La ricerca e il sapere per l'educazione*. I. S. U. Università Cattolica.

Caldeira Andrade, L. A. (2007). Narrative and identity construction: An analysis of the L2 learning process. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, *7*(2), 199–214. https://doi.org/10.1590/S1984-63982007000200009

Cárdenas, M. L. (2024). Twenty-five years travelling the publication road: The Profile journal life story. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *26*(2), 15–26. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v26n2.114921

Castañeda-Trujillo, J. E., & Aguirre-Hernández, A. J. (2018). Pre-service English teachers' voices about the teaching practicum. *How Journal*, *25*(1), 156–173. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.25.1.420

Castañeda-Trujillo, J. E., Alarcón-Camacho, E. M., & Jaime-Osorio, M. F. (2022). Narratives about being and becoming English language teachers in an ELT education program. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *24*(1), 38–50. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.17940

Chong, S. W., & Plonsky, L. (2024). A typology of secondary research in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *15*(4), 1569–1594. https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2022-0189

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Clavijo Olarte, A., Ramírez Galindo, L. M., Medina Riveros, R. A., Rincón Ortega, J. A., Gómez Gutiérrez, A. J., Reyes Navarro, N. L., Chacón, V. H., Gutiérrez Herrera, M. L., Pulido Becerra, G., Rincón Jiménez, L. P., Torres Basante, C. F., Cabra, A. I., & Cerón Correa, A. I. (2019). *Las pedagogías de la comunidad a través de investigaciones locales en el contexto urbano*. Editorial UD. https://doi.org/10.69740/UD.97895878713 57.9789587874976

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.

Cruz-Arcila, F. (2020). Rural English language teacher identities: Alternative narratives of professional success. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *25*(2), 435–453. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v25n02a05

de Laurentiis Brandão, A. C. (2021). First experiences of teaching EFL in metaphors. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *97*, 103214. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2020.103214

de Laurentiis Brandão, A. C., de Oliveira, V. A., & Santos, G. P. (2023). A pesquisa narrativa visual e o estudo da identidade do professor de língua inglesa. *Trabalhos Em Linguística Aplicada, 62*(2), 289–306. https://doi.org/10.1590/01031813v62220238670196

De Laurentis, C., & Porta, L. (2014). Voces de alumnos y docentes: narrativas como espacios contra públicos en la carrera del profesorado de inglés. *Praxis Educativa*, *18*(1), 32–41.

de Olivera Nascimento, A. K. (2019). Pibid Inglês: formação inicial de professores e letramentos - outros sentidos para English Everywhere. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, *19*(3), 579–602. https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-6398201913580

Duque Salazar, D. M., Tangarife Loaiza, M. A., & Velásquez Hoyos, Á. P. (2024). Interculturality in Latin American rural bilingual education: A systematic literature review.

Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, *26*(2), 199–215. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v26n2.109822

Durán Narváez, N. C., Lastra Ramírez, S. P., & Morales Vasco, A. M. (2013). Autobiographies: A way to explore student-teachers' beliefs in a teacher education program. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *15*(2), 35–47.

Dwyer, R., & Emerald, E. (2017). Narrative research in practice: Navigating the terrain. In R. Dwyer, R. Davis, & E. Emerald (Eds.), *Narrative research in practice: Stories from the field* (pp. 1–25). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-1579-3_1

Gómez-Vásquez, L. Y., & Guerrero Nieto, C. H. (2018). Non-native English-speaking teachers' subjectivities and Colombian language policies: A narrative study. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *20*(2), 51–64. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n2.67720

Hernández Sampieri, R., Fernández Collado, C., & Baptista Lucio, P. (2014). *Metodología de la investigación* (6th ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Holley, K. A., & Colyar, J. (2009). Rethinking texts: Narrative and the construction of qualitative research. *Educational Researcher*, *38*(9), 680–686. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X09351979

Huchim Aguilar, D., & Reyes Chávez, R. (2013). La investigación biográfico-narrativa, una alternativa para el estudio de los docentes. *Revista Electrónica "Actualidades Investigativas en Educación"*, *13*(3), 1–27. https://doi.org/10.15517/aie.v13i3.12026

Londoño Bonilla, P. (2022). Factores que influyen en la elección de enseñar inglés como lengua extranjera en escuelas primarias públicas en Colombia. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *27*(2), 468–483. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v27n2a11

López-Gopar, M. E., Núñez-Méndez, O., Sughrua, W., & Clemente, A. (2013). In pursuit of multilingual practices: Ethnographic accounts of teaching English to Mexican children. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *10*(3), 273–291. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2013.769557

Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, *51*(1), 36–76. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000350

Martínez-Luengas, M., & Méndez, P. (2023). Exploring the ELT observer's subject positions: Tensions, negotiations, and contradictions. *International Journal of Instruction*, *16*(1), 685–706. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2023.16138a

Mendieta Aguilar, J. A. (2011). Teachers' knowledge of second language and curriculum: A narrative experience. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *13*(1), 89–110.

Mendieta, J. A. (2013). Narrative research: An alternative approach to study language teaching and learning. *Folios*, (37), 135–147. https://doi.org/10.17227/01234870.37folios135.147

Mora, A., Trejo, P., & Roux, R. (2014). English language teachers' professional development and identities. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *16*(1), 49–62. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v16n1.38153

Moreno, A. (2004). "Historia de vida" e investigación. In M. Martínez Miguélez (Ed.), *Ciencia y arte en la metodología cualitativa* (pp. 203–228). Editorial Trillas.

Mosquera-Pérez, J. E., & Losada-Rivas, J. J. (2022). EFL teachers' professional identity: A narrative study with Colombian graduate students. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *24*(2), 47–62. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v24n2.91744

Nascimento, G. (2019). Racism in English language teaching? Autobiographical narratives of Black English language teachers in Brazil. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, *19*(4), 959–984. https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-6398201914813

Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783090563

Nunan, D. (2013). *What is this thing called language?* (2nd ed.). Palgrave Macmillan.

Ochoa Delgado, J. E., Arcentales Abad, M. K., Peralta Sari, L. A., & Conza Armijos, H. I. (2023). *Perfeccionando habilidades del idioma inglés y su enseñanza: relatos de becarios del programa Go Teacher*. SciELO Preprints. https://doi.org/10.1590/SciELOPreprints.7386

Ovalle Quiroz, M., & González, A. (2023). Imagined identities and imagined communities: Colombian English teachers' investment in their professional development. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *25*(1), 213–228. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v25n1.99248

Page, M. J., McKenzie, J. E., Bossuyt, P. M., Boutron, I., Hoffmann, T. C., Mulrow, C. D., Shamseer, L., Tetzlaff, J. M., Akl, E. A., Brennan, S. E., Chou, R., Glanville, J., Grimshaw, J. M., Hróbjartsson, A., Lalu, M. M., Li, T., Loder, E. W., Mayo-Wilson, E., McDonald, S., . . . Moher, D. (2021). The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ*, *372*(71), https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n71

Pavlenko, A. (2007). Autobiographic narratives as data in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, *28*(2), 163–188. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm008

Posada-Ortiz, J. (2022). English language preservice teachers' identity construction within academic and other communities. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *24*(1), 247–260. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v24n1.93110

Ramos, F. S. (2022). Emotions, perezhivanie, and transformation in an English teacher education course: A historical-cultural study. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, *22*(1), 241–269. https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-6398202218421

Ricoeur, P. (1999). *Historia y narratividad* (G. Aranzueque Sahuquillo, Trans.). Ediciones Paidós; ICE de la Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona. (Original work published 1978)

Rocha Pessoa, R., & Pinto Plaza, J. (2013). De resistências à aprendizagem da língua inglesa. *Trabalhos em Linguística Aplicada*, *52*(1), 31–51. https://doi.org/10.1590/S0103-18132013000100003

Rosas-Maldonado, M., Durán-Castro, M., & Martin, A. (2021). The socio-emotional influence of past teachers on novice English teachers' beliefs. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *23*(2), 215–230. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v23n2.90809

Sarasa, M. C. (2015). Narrative research into the possibilities of classroom-generated stories in English teacher education. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *17*(1), 13–24. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v17n1.43383

Sarasa, M. C. (2017). A narrative inquiry into pre-service English teachers' temporal investments in their initial education curriculum. *How Journal*, *24*(1), 27–43. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.24.1.337

Sierra Ospina, N., & Giraldo Gil, E. (2020). Hablando de política lingüística y formación docente: las voces de los/las docentes dibujan sus propios retratos. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, *20*(1), 163–188. https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-6398201914737

Souza de Oliveira, R., & Fabrício, B. F. (2023). "Null-subjectivities", language and learning: We need to disturb meaningfulness. *Gragoatá*, *28*(60), e-53281. https://doi.org/10.22409/gragoata.v28i60.53281

Trejo Guzmán, N. P., & Mora Vásquez, A. (2014). Narrativas autobiográficas de profesores de lengua inglesa: una mirada a la formación de su identidad profesional. *Revista Mexicana de Investigación Educativa*, *19*(63), 1245–1266.

Ubaque, D. (2016). Life stories: A way to explore language learners' narrative experiences and identities in an EFL context. *Folios*, (43), 153–164. https://doi.org/10.17227/0123487043folios153.164

Ubaque-Casallas, D. (2021). Language pedagogy and teacher identity: A decolonial lens to English language teaching from a teacher educator's experience. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *23*(2), 199–214. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v23n2.90754

Ubaque-Casallas, D. (2023a). Teacher identity in language pedagogy: A narrative perspective from two Colombian teacher educators' experience. *Folios*, (58), 140–154. https://doi.org/10.17227/folios.58-14523

Ubaque-Casallas, D. F. (2023b). Using translanguaging to decolonize English language teaching in Colombia: A narrative inquiry. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *28*(3), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.348890

van Leeuwen, T. (2022). *Multimodality and identity*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003186625

Vasilachis de Gialdino, I. (2003). *Pobres, pobreza, identidad y representaciones sociales*. Gedisa.

About the Authors

Miguel Martínez-Luengas holds an MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (Universidad Internacional UNINI) and an EdD in ELT (Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas, Colombia). He is a full-time professor at Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Bogotá. His research areas focus on subject positioning, criticality, bilingualism, teacher education, and narrative studies in English teaching.

Andrés Felipe Micán-Castiblanco holds an MA in Neuropsychology and Education (Universidad Internacional de La Rioja, Spain), an MA in Foreign Language Teaching (Universidad Pedagógica Nacional, Colombia), and an MA in Literary Studies (Universidad Nacional de Colombia). He is an EdD in ELT candidate at Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas, Colombia. He is a full-time educator-researcher at Pontificia Universidad Javeriana.

Roles: both authors contributed equally to the conception of the research project; development of methods; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; major contribution of investigation materials; and drawing up the different text versions of the paper.

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.

Profile is registered in Scopus, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, Latindex (catálogo 2.0), EBSCO, Informe Académico, Academic OneFile, Red Iberoamericana de Innovación y Conocimiento Científico (REDIB), the Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ), and Dialnet. It is indexed in the MLA International Bibliography, Educational Research Abstracts online (ERA), the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), The Emerging Sources Citation Index (Clarivate Analytics), The European Reference Index for the Humanities and the Social Sciences (ERIH PLUS), IRESIE, LatAm Plus, the Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts database (LLBA), Redalyc, SciELO Citation Index (Web of Science), CLASE, The Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Publindex-Minciencias (classified in category A1), and Scimago Journal Rank (SJR) 2024: Quartile 1 (Linguistics and Language), Quartile 2 (Education).

Our Purpose

The *Profile* journal is published twice a year (January and July). Its main goal is to share the results of research carried out in the field of English language teaching and learning. As such, this publication can be classified in the big areas of Language Education and Applied Linguistics. This journal accepts mainly three types of documents: research articles, articles of revision, and reflections. Research approaches can have a, qualitative, or mixed orientation and they include but are not limited to, action research, narrative inquiry, discourse analysis, case studies, statistical analysis, and so on. The journal also includes articles written by teacher educators and guest teachers who are willing to disseminate their reflections, innovations, and research findings.

Sections of the Journal

Issues from Teacher Researchers: This section includes research reports (action research, case studies, narrative inquiry, etc.). Manuscripts should have an introduction, theoretical framework or literature review, method, context and participants, analysis, findings, conclusions.

Issues from Novice Teacher Researchers: This section contains manuscripts exclusively based on research conducted by new teachers as part of the monographs undertaken to get their BEd or BA degrees or for the theses to obtain a master's degree. These manuscripts may include the tutor of the monograph or thesis as a co-author if his/her contribution in the composition of the manuscript has been significant (people who

were not involved in the development of the thesis should not appear as authors of the manuscript). In this case, the main author is the one who obtained the BEd, BA, or MA degree.

Issues Based on Reflections and Innovations: This section gathers reflections about a specific topic with analytical, interpretative or critical perspectives that are supported by different sources. Innovations include the justification, description, explanation and samples of pedagogical interventions in specific teaching fields. This section also includes literature reviews, which should be based on a robust sample—typically around 30 works or more—to ensure comprehensiveness.

Submitting an Article

Submission, review, and publication of manuscripts in the *Profile* journal are free of charge for authors. To be considered for publication, authors should complete the submission process via our platform. There, the authors upload the manuscript, the consent form—if applicable—the submission form, and the figures, tables, etc. The process starts by registering as a user on the journal webpage: https://revistas.unal.edu.co/index.php/profile.

Authorship limit: Manuscripts submitted to the journal must be authored by a maximum of **four (4) authors.** Submissions that exceed this authorship limit will not be considered for review.

After clicking on the "register" option at the top of the page, authors are asked to fill in the registration form. At the end of the form, authors should make sure they choose the option "Register as: Author". This option will allow authors to upload the submission. As stated in our Publication Ethics and Publication Malpractice Statement, authors must send contributions that are original (not previously published), valid (containing data that can be replicated and processed according to given method and processes), and relevant (information that advances the knowledge in the field).

Preliminary research findings from ongoing investigations that have been published in preprint repositories are accepted. In such cases, the authors must declare this situation and provide the corresponding link.

Once registered as an author, the user can start the five-step submission process. It is important to follow each step and to upload the manuscript and all of the supplementary files as requested in the checklist for submissions. The authors' names or biographical data should not be included within the manuscript (this information is registered in the submission form) to ensure anonymity during the review process. Authors are encouraged to declare how they handled sensitive data and what measures they took to protect participants' privacy. The journal will work with authors to manage research data in accordance with applicable data protection regulations.

Profile does not accept multiple submissions from the same author (or coauthor). Authors must wait until an editorial decision has been made on their active submission before submitting a new one.

Paper Format

The manuscript should be saved in single-column format, double-spaced as a Word document, in Times New Roman 12, and have margins of three centimeters. Block quotations and samples taken from data should be in Times New Roman 10 and indented at 1.25 centimeters. All pages of the manuscript should be numbered at the top. The first line of every paragraph should be indented at 1.25 centimeters (except for the abstracts, block quotations, titles, headings, and tables and figures titles). Titles and subtitles should be used judiciously to clearly identify the different sections and subsections of the manuscript. Titles should not be labelled with numbers or letters, but following the levels of heading recommended by APA:

First Level Heading Centered

Second Level Heading Flush Left

Third Level Heading Flush Left

Fourth level heading. Indented and with text following the period.

Manuscripts should contain abstracts of no more than 120 words and should include keywords (no more than five). Abbreviations and references in the abstract should be avoided. A good abstract offers a succinct account of the problem, methods, findings, and conclusions of the study. The abstract and the keywords should be in both Spanish and English. Keywords should be organized in alphabetical order. To guarantee the impact of the keywords, authors are requested to contrast them with a thesaurus (two samples of online, free access thesauruses are those by UNESCO and ERIC). Similarly, the complete bibliographic information for each citation must be included in the list of references following the American Psychological Association (APA) style, 7th edition (see some samples of references below).

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.

Besides the guidelines included here, manuscripts are expected to follow the standards of high quality academic papers as regards structure, clarity of language, and formal style. Manuscripts lacking these basic elements will not be included in the process of evaluation.

Plagiarism and Self-Citation

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.

Profile will reject papers with evidence of plagiarism or any other unethical practice (e.g., parallel submission, fragmented or duplicated publication), and its decision will be final. Manuscripts by authors whose articles have been rejected because of unethical practices will not be considered for evaluation in future issues.

Number of Words

Papers cannot exceed 8,000 words, including the abstracts, keywords, references, appendices, footnotes, authors' biodata, and acknowledgments (the last two should only appear in the submission form, not in the manuscript). Footnotes should appear on the same page, not at the end of the document. The number of words should be indicated at the end of the article. The title of the manuscript should have a maximum of 13 words.

Graphics, Tables, and Figures

When possible, authors should design the figures or graphs directly in Microsoft Word or Excel. Regarding images (photographs, pictures), these should be

inserted in the manuscript, but authors should send them as independent files as well and with high resolution in a standard graphic format (e.g., JPG, PNG). Inside the manuscript, lower-resolution versions can be pasted (black and white versions will be used in print). Important: authors are required to present the necessary authorization to reproduce images that are copyrighted. In this case, the permission should be uploaded as a supplementary file.

Tables should be created in Microsoft Word (not pasted as images, because tables are included in the word-count of the document). Appendices, figures, and tables should include a title. They should be centered and follow these models:

Table 1. Ways of Doing Compositions

Figure 2. Results of the Diagnostic Survey

Appendix A. Lesson Plan Sample

The manuscript should be written in good English (American or British usage is accepted, but not a mixture of these) with the grammar, punctuation, and style adequate for academic texts. Italics are not to be used for expressions of Latin origin; for example, in vivo, et al., per se.

Ethical Issues

One of the requirements for the publication of articles about teaching or research experiences in which others have participated is to have a consent form signed by them or their parents—if they are under 18—to authorize the use of the information in the publication. If the article contains information provided by participants, authors should obtain consent forms and send to the editor a sample of the form used, together with the manuscript. Profile does not provide the forms; they are the ones designed by the teacher-researchers while they do their projects. Participants should be identified using consistent labels or pseudonyms (e.g., Participant 1, Student 4) to maintain anonymity.

For studies involving vulnerable populations, authors are required to provide details on the ethical authorization and the informed consents, as well as the measures taken to ensure the protection of participants. If necessary, the journal may request additional information to assess compliance with ethical principles.

If acknowledgments are included, these should be written in a short paragraph of no more than 100 words at the end of the submission form (not in the manuscript).

Use of artificial intelligence (AI) tools or technologies

For the sake of transparency, authors must disclose the use of generative artificial intelligence (AI) tools to assist with processes such as minor editing of a text or creating figures. Authors must reveal the details of such use (e.g., the type of AI tool used and the purpose of using the tool). In any case, the use of these tools must not exceed 15% of the total manuscript. Additionally, authors are encouraged to retain evidence of the terms used in AI queries, as the Editorial Committee may request them to make informed decisions.

As stated by COPE, "Authors are fully responsible for the content of their manuscript, even those parts produced by an AI tool, and are thus liable for any breach of publication ethics." (https://publicationethics.org/cope-position-statements/ai-author). The use of AI tools for fundamental aspects of a paper (such as research design, substantial writing of a text, or the creation, alteration, or manipulation of data and results) is not allowed. Therefore, these tools cannot be listed as an author of a paper. The use of AI for the consolidation and analysis of research data is allowed as long as it is part of software traditionally used in the field for this purpose (e.g., NVivo, ATLAS.ti, MAXQDA, etc.).

Submission Form

Authors should fill in and upload the submission form, which contains the following: title of the article (in both English and Spanish; the title in English with

a maximum of 13 words), author's(s') name(s), ORCID, institution, address, a short biographical statement (biodata) of no more than 50 words per author, and the date or period of time the document was written. The way the author's name is written in the biodata (pen name) is the one that will be followed once the article is published. For multiple authors, the order in which they are mentioned in the biodata will also correspond to the order in the published article (order of authorship). The authors should also indicate if the paper presents initial or final results of a project, including the project name or code number (if there is one) and the name of the institution that sponsored the project. Similarly, if the paper is based on an unpublished thesis or dissertation, authors should clarify this in a note and indicate the kind of thesis work (undergraduate, master's, doctoral dissertation), the degree obtained, and the university that granted such degree (people who were not involved in the development of the thesis should not appear as authors of the manuscript). Additionally, the authors must include a statement indicating that the article has not been simultaneously submitted to another publication and that it has not already been published elsewhere.

The submission form must contain the list and the order of authorship approved by all authors. Modifications to the list or the order of authors are not allowed after submission. Otherwise, the manuscript will be withdrawn from the editorial process and the authors should present it as a new submission.

Published articles are expected to contain the final list of authors. However, if authorship claims arise, each request for authorship changes will be evaluated on a case-by-case basis, allowing modifications only with proper justification and documented changes. Any changes must be approved by all the authors involved. The journal may refer to guidelines from international organizations, such as COPE, to ensure proper handling of these cases.

There is a section in the submission form where each author must indicate their contribution to the work, according to their specific roles during the study and manuscript writing.

By signing the submission form, the authors confirm their contribution to the work and compliance with authorship criteria. The Editor may verify this information and will take the necessary measures to ensure its validity.

Authors must disclose any potential conflict of interest (financial, personal, academic, etc.) that may have influenced the development of the study or that may arise during the evaluation of their manuscript. The submission form includes a section for authors to provide this information, as well as the sources that funded their study.

All the requirements mentioned above will be checked, and no evaluation will start until all of them are met. Delay in complying with our policies will have an impact on the time required for the evaluation process.

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.

The following samples illustrate some common cases. For more examples, please check the APA Style website (https://apastyle.apa.org/) or our latest issue, in its electronic version, on our website: http://www.revistas.unal.edu.co/index.php/profile

Book

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2017). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.

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 midlife 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.

Entry in a Dictionary

A retrieval date should be provided for sources from the Internet that are likely to be continuously updated or that are meant to change over time.

Merriam-Webster. (n.d.). Feedback. In *Merriam-Webster.com dictionary*. Retrieved January 28, 2020, from https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/feedback

Journal Article

Mesa Villa, C. P., Gómez-Giraldo, J. S., & Arango Montes, R. (2020). Becoming language teacher-researchers in a research seedbed. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *22*(1), 159–173. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v22n1.78806

Dissertations and Thesis

Unpublished dissertations or theses are only available in print in an institution's library.

Ariza, A. (2004). *EFL undergraduate students' understanding of autonomy and their reflection in their learning process* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas.

Risto, A. (2014). *The impact of texting and social media on students' academic writing skills* (Publication No. 3683242) [Doctoral dissertation, Tennessee State University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

Webpage on a Website

A URL shortener may be used for long or complex URLs (see first example below). When referring to a complete website, this can be done in text (there is no need to add a reference entry), for instance: the New York Public Library website (https://www.nypl.org/). For specific pages within a website, a reference entry should be provided:

Sigee, R. (2020, January 16). *Are authentic accents important in film and tv?* BBC. https://bbc.in/2uBtygp

UNICEF. (n.d.). *Education under attack*. Retrieved January 19, 2020, from https://www.unicef.org/education-under-attack

Data sharing and availability

Authors are responsible for ensuring the authenticity of the data presented, and the Editorial Committee may request the original files if there are doubts about the accuracy of the images or results.

With the aim of promoting transparency, facilitating the replication of research, and improving access to scientific information, authors are encouraged to retain their original data and be prepared to provide them if required for verification. In the submission form, there is a section where authors can declare data availability, specifying where and how the data can

be accessed. If the data cannot be shared for justified reasons (such as legal or confidentiality restrictions), authors must indicate this in the declaration. For the long-term preservation and availability of data, it is recommended that, whenever possible, authors deposit them in recognized public repositories.

Evaluation and Publication

Each new submission is initially reviewed by the editor to determine the suitability of a manuscript and to identify whether all the requirements have been met. The approved manuscripts go through a double blind peer review process that takes four to five months, provided that there are no unexpected delays. Reviewers' names will not be made available to authors under any circumstances. Authors should wait approximately four to five months until notification of a decision by the editor. If your article is accepted after having been read by at least two evaluators, you should be ready to revise it if necessary and to meet deadlines established by the editor to complete the editing processes. The *Profile* editor reserves the right to make editorial changes in the manuscripts recommended for publication for the purpose of clarity, concision, or style.

Evaluators will have four weeks to prepare their feedback and they can give one of three possible recommendations after reviewing a manuscript: (a) recommended for publication, (b) revise and resubmit, or (c) rejected. If the concepts from the two reviewers are at odds, the following scenarios may arise:

Recommended for publication + Revise and resubmit = The manuscript will be sent to the author for revision and resubmission.

Rejected + Revise and resubmit = The manuscript will be rejected.

Recommended for publication + Rejected = The article will be sent to a third reviewer. Only the two concepts that are similar at the end of the review will be taken into account to reach a final decision.

If major changes are required by the evaluators or the editor, the article will be returned to the author(s) for amending, indicating that revision and resubmission is required. The improved version should be submitted within three weeks. After this period, the article will be regarded as a new submission.

The revised version of the manuscript should be sent to the editor together with a cover letter. It should include the authors' explanations of how they addressed (or did not address) the reviewers' comments. The resubmission will then be submitted again for evaluation. Once the manuscript has been recommended for publication by both reviewers, it will be reviewed by the Editorial Committee to reach a final decision. The Editorial Committee will take into account the reviewers' recommendations and will decide whether the article can be published. The date of publication will depend upon the amount of time taken for revision and resubmission.

Once the article is accepted, the edited version will be sent to the author(s) for approval. Upon publication, authors will receive a PDF copy of their articles.

If minor errors are detected in published articles that do not affect the main conclusions of the study (e.g., typographical errors, formatting issues, or adjustments to supplementary information), the necessary corrections may be made and will be clearly indicated in the article through online updates, errata notices, or editorial notes, ensuring that readers can identify the changes made.

Corrections, retractions, and expressions of concern

If significant errors are found in published articles that affect the interpretation of data or results, the necessary corrections will be made and published. These corrections will be clearly indicated and linked to the original article. In cases where the error severely compromises the validity of the research or ethical misconduct is evident, the need for a retraction will be

assessed in accordance with international guidelines (such as those recommended by COPE). Retractions will be made public, stating the reasons for which an article has been withdrawn.

Copyright

Once an article is accepted, the author(s) should authorize us to reproduce the full text on the Internet and in any other source sponsored by Universidad Nacional de Colombia. This will entail filling in a nonexclusive publication license as indicated by the editor. Authors retain the intellectual property of their manuscripts with the following restriction: first publication is granted to the *Profile* journal.

If authors wish to use the article again in a publication written or edited by them, they may do so provided that its original publication in the *Profile* journal is acknowledged.

Sending Contributions

We accept submissions all year round, and manuscripts are reviewed in order of arrival. Date of publication of a manuscript, if accepted, depends on the duration of the peer-review process which lasts, at least, four months.

Letters to the editor should be sent to rprofile_fchbog@unal.edu.co or to the following address:

Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development
Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras,
Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Ciudad Universitaria. Carrera 30 # 45-03, Bogotá, Colombia
Phone: 57(601) 316-5000 ext. 16780.

Publication Ethics and Publication Malpractice Statement

PROFILE
Issues in Teachers' Professional Development

Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development journal is committed to following the international standards for scientific publications, guaranteeing the ethical and fair use of the content submitted to and published in the journal. To this end, the following guiding aspects, based on the recommendations by the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), have been identified to facilitate and clarify the work of the editor, the authors, and the reviewers.

Editor

The Editor is responsible for the overall quality of the journal (content, editorial processes, design and publication) and should ensure that the articles published are relevant to the academic community and that the journal in general complies with accepted publication guidelines for scientific journals.

The Editor, with the assistance of the Editorial Committee, must follow practices of "fair play" in the sense that manuscripts are evaluated for their intellectual content without regard to the race, gender, sexual orientation, religious belief, ethnic origin, citizenship, institutional affiliation, or political philosophy of the authors. Furthermore, the Editor must ensure the journal's editorial independence to guarantee that decisions regarding manuscripts are based solely on their scientific merit. Editorial decisions are not influenced by commercial or personal factors.

The Editor and the members of the Editorial Committee must declare any conflict of interest that could affect their judgment during the consideration of a manuscript. If necessary, they should seek the assistance of another editor (external or independent) for the assessment of the manuscript.

The Editor should maintain constant and prompt communication with authors and reviewers throughout the evaluation process to keep them informed about the state of any given manuscript.

The Editor assigns reviewers based on their expertise in the topic of a given manuscript. Initially, each manuscript is revised by two reviewers. However, if the concepts from the two reviewers are at odds, the Editor should assign a third reviewer to help reach a decision. The Editor takes into account the reviewers' suggestions, but the final decision on accepting or rejecting a paper lies with the Editor.

The journal specializes in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. However, it recognizes the importance of the cultures with which English comes into contact. Therefore, the Editor, in collaboration with the Editorial Committee, will require community approval and conduct case-by-case evaluations to ensure that research involving Indigenous communities respects their rights and traditional/ancestral knowledge.

The Editor must ensure that the information gathered during the evaluation of a manuscript (evaluation forms, reviewers' comments) is kept confidential and disclosed only to those involved in the process.

In collaboration with the editorial staff and/or the publisher (Universidad Nacional de Colombia), the Editor must decide on how to proceed in cases of a legal nature (libel, copyright infringement, plagiarism) or in response to allegations of scientific misconduct (e.g., falsification and fabrication of data). These decisions may also be based on the guidelines of international organizations such as COPE. In the case of plagiarism,

the Editor will proceed according to the journal's guidelines and policies. Investigations may be referred to the relevant institutions, and the results will be published when necessary.

Author

Authors must send contributions that are original (not previously published), valid (containing data that can be replicated and processed according to given methods or processes), and relevant (information that advances the knowledge in the field). Falsification and manipulation of data are unethical and unacceptable practices. Manuscripts must also be written with clarity, and authors are encouraged to proofread their manuscripts before submission.

Parallel submission (submission of a manuscript to more than one journal at a time), duplicate publication (the total or partial publication of a manuscript in another source without justification or authorization), fragmented publication (producing multiple manuscripts from the same study without justification), plagiarism, and self-plagiarism are unacceptable practices and may lead to the rejection of a manuscript during the initial review or the retraction of a published article. Depending on the case, the relevant institutions will be notified. Manuscripts by authors whose articles have been rejected because of these practices will not be considered for evaluation in future issues.

Authors must carefully read the "Guidelines for authors" and prepare their submissions accordingly. Any submission that fails to comply with the guidelines will not be sent for evaluation until the problems are addressed by the authors.

As expressed in the "Guidelines for authors", authors must include in the list of references and properly acknowledge throughout the manuscript all of the works that were directly consulted in the composition of the paper.

Authorship of a manuscript can be granted only to the people who made significant contributions either during the development of the study (i.e., conception or design of the study; the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data) or in the composition or writing of the manuscript (drafts and revisions). Authors are also accountable for all aspects of the manuscript and the study reported there. Practices such as including "guest" or "ghost"[1] authors must be avoided. People who made contributions that were not as important as those of the author(s) can be treated as collaborators, and their help may be acknowledged in a note at the end of the manuscript. These considerations also apply to interdisciplinary research or international collaborations, in which case a fair and transparent assessment is conducted to ensure clarity in the contributions. In the case of multiple authors, they all need to previously agree on the version of the manuscript that will be submitted (or resubmitted when reviewers ask for changes to be made). Authorship must never be granted to generative artificial intelligence tools.

As stated in the "Guidelines for authors", the consent form used to ask for permission from participants to use their data must be provided by authors. In case the participants are underage, the consent form must be signed by their parents or legal guardians. It is highly advisable that in the manuscript, the participants' identities always be concealed by the use of either pseudonyms or codes. Authors are also responsible for obtaining permission to replicate any copyrighted material used within the manuscript.

Authors must disclose any potential conflict of interest[2] that may arise during the evaluation of their manuscript. Authors are requested to provide information about the sources that funded their study.

1 "Guest authors" are those who are included because of their supposed prestige or enforced by an outside party (such as the institution where the authors work). "Ghost authors" are those who actually made a significant contribution but who, for some reason, are not listed as authors of the manuscript.

2 An instance of conflict of interest is when the authors have some kind of relationship (relative, work) with a journal's reviewer. The authors should inform the Editor of this situation when submitting the manuscript.

Authors must update their situation regarding conflicts of interest, if there is any significant change during the review process. This update should be made as soon as possible and communicated to the Editor before the manuscript is published.

For the sake of transparency, authors must disclose the use of generative artificial intelligence (AI) tools to assist with processes such as minor editing of a text or creating figures. Authors must reveal the details of such use (e.g., the type of AI tool used and the purpose of using the tool). In any case, the use of these tools must not exceed 10% of the total manuscript. Additionally, authors are encouraged to retain evidence of the terms used in AI queries, as the Editorial Committee may request them to make informed decisions.

As stated by COPE, "Authors are fully responsible for the content of their manuscript, even those parts produced by an AI tool, and are thus liable for any breach of publication ethics." (https://publicationethics.org/cope-position-statements/ai-author). The use of AI tools for fundamental aspects of a paper (such as research design, substantial writing of a text, or the creation, alteration, or manipulation of data and results) is not allowed. Therefore, these tools cannot be listed as an author of a paper. The use of AI for the consolidation and analysis of research data is allowed as long as it is part of software traditionally used in the field for this purpose (e.g., NVivo, ATLAS.ti, MAXQDA, etc.).

Authors should maintain respectful and professional communication with the Editor. They are entitled to appeal a review if they consider it to be poorly performed or without enough arguments.

After publication, authors still hold the copyright for their manuscript (the right to first publication being granted to *Profile*), and therefore, it is their responsibility to notify the Editor if they find any error. They will work with the Editor on how to better address the error, whether through an erratum or, in an extreme case, by retracting the article.

If the work described in the manuscript involves animal subjects, psychological procedures, or any hazardous element (e.g., chemicals), the authors must provide the necessary information to verify that they followed the international ethical standards for these cases.

Reviewer

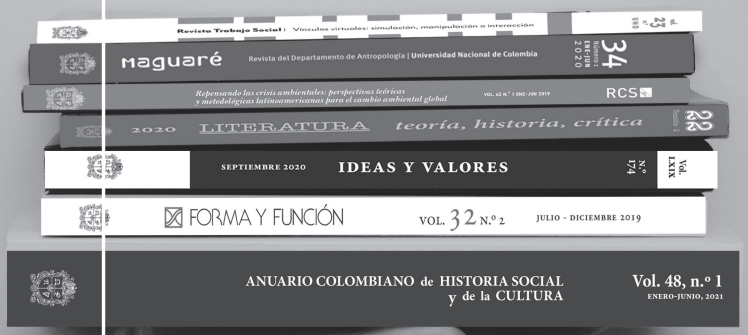
Reviewers are selected based on their expertise in the manuscript's topic, their publication output, their research experience, and their availability to complete the review within the established deadline. Authors' recommendations are considered as long as no conflicts of interest are identified and the proposed reviewer meets the required criteria in terms of knowledge and experience.

Reviewers must respond promptly to the Editor's evaluation requests, whether to accept them or decline them.

Reviewers must comply with the deadline established by the Editor to complete the review. The corresponding evaluation form must be adequately filled in, and reviewers are also entitled to write comments to the authors directly on the manuscript. Reviewers must perform their evaluations in a respectful and objective manner, attempting to provide the necessary arguments to support their comments or suggestions.

As part of the evaluation process, reviewers must treat the information used or produced with confidentiality.

Reviewers must also disclose any potential conflict of interest as well as any other major problem that they may detect during evaluation (falsification of data, plagiarism, parallel submission, etc.). If a conflict is identified, the manuscript is reassigned to another reviewer to ensure the impartiality of the process.



NUESTRAS REVISTAS

Facultad de Ciencias Humanas

Portal de revistas Universidad Nacional de Colombia

www.revistas.unal.edu.co

PROFILE: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development
Vol. 28, N.º 1 • enero - junio 2026
Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras
www.profile.unal.edu.co
rprofile_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Revista Colombiana de Psicología
Vol. 31, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Psicología
www.revistacolombiana
psicologia.unal.edu.co
revpsico_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Forma y Función
Vol. 36, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Lingüística
www.formayfuncion.unal.edu.co
fyf_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Cuadernos de Geografía: Revista Colombiana de Geografía
Vol. 32, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Geografía
www.cuadernosdegeografia.unal.edu.co
rcgeogra_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Anuario Colombiano de Historia Social y de la Cultura
Vol. 50, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Historia
www.anuariodehistoria.
unal.edu.co
anuhisto_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Literatura: Teoría, Historia, Crítica
Vol. 25, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Literatura
www.literaturathc.unal.edu.co
revliter_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Ideas y Valores
Vol. VXXII, Núm 181 • julio 2023
Departamento de Filosofía
www.ideasyvalores.unal.edu.co
revideva_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Revista Maguaré
Vol. 37, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Antropología
www.revistamaguare.unal.edu.co
revmag_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Revista Colombiana de Sociología
Vol. 46, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Sociología
www.revistacolombianasociologia.
unal.edu.co
revcolso_fchbog@unal.edu.co

Trabajo Social
Vol. 25, N.º 2 • julio-diciembre 2023
Departamento de Trabajo Social
www.revtrabajosocial.unal.edu.co
revtrasoc_bog@unal.edu.co

Desde el Jardín de Freud
N.º 21 • enero-diciembre 2021
Escuela de Estudios en Psicoanálisis y Cultura
www.jardindefreud.unal.edu.co
rpsifreud_bog@unal.edu.co

Matices en Lenguas Extranjeras
N.º 14 -2 • enero-diciembre 2020
Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras
www.revistas.unal.edu.co/index.
php/male
revlenex_fchbog@unal.edu.co

PUNTOS DE VENTA

UN la librería, Bogotá Plazoleta de Las Nieves • Calle 20 N.º 7-15 • Tel. 601 3165000 ext. 29494 | **Campus Ciudad Universitaria** Edificio Orlando Fals Borda (205) • Edificio de Posgrados de Ciencias • Humanas Rogelio Salmona (225) • Auditorio León de Greiff, piso 1 • Tel.: 601 316 5000, ext. 20040
www.unlalibreria.unal.edu.co | libreriaun_bog@unal.edu.co

Todas nuestras revistas académicas se pueden consultar *on-line* bajo la modalidad de acceso abierto.

CENTRO EDITORIAL

Edificio de Posgrados de la Facultad de Ciencias Humanas (225), sótano • Tel: 601 3165000 ext. 16139, 16141
editorial_fch@unal.edu.co | www.humanas.unal.edu.co

P R O F I L E

The current issue was published
in January 2026
in Bogotá D.C., Colombia.

Ancizar, Minion Pro, and Frutiger
fonts were used.