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Editorial 2022-2

Edgar Lucero[1]

In this current issue, HOW journal presents three action-research studies, two qualitative studies, and a literature review. These papers continue with the achievement of the journal's main objective which is to share outcomes of educational and research experiences intended to add understanding to English language teaching and education practices around the world. This is why, this current issue presents articles from Colombia, Mexico, and Chile.

The first three research articles of the current issue present action-research studies. These papers corroborate that this type of study continues to be a methodology that creates more awareness of the dynamics of English language teaching and education. As seen in these first three articles, action research still contributes to the development and improvement of language teaching, learning, and assessment practices. The authors of these articles present studies that have taken place in different majors at the university level, such as teaching education and technical instruction. The authors have used this type of study with a diversity of approaches, methodologies, and modalities, such as communicative language teaching, self-assessment principles, and multimedia instruction. Always containing an intervention, the authors have used action research to work on the student's difficulties when learning English or on the teachers' incorporation of their methodologies in context. A more detailed description of these articles is presented as follows.

The first action-research study describes pre-service teachers' use of project-based learning with a group of EFL eighth-graders at a secondary state school in Cordoba, Colombia. In this article, Tatiana Becerra-Posada, Paula García-Montes, Anamaría Sagre-Barbosa, María Isabel Carcamo, and Jose David Herazo-Rivera, from Universidad de Cordoba, reveal the affordances that this teaching approach has in the development of the student's communicative competence. The article presents the strategies that the pre-service teachers used to construct confidence when planning and reporting the projects.

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Also, in an action-research study, Nadia Lilian Lagunes-Reyes from Centro de Estudios Tecnológicos del Mar 07, María de los Milagros Cruz-Ramos from Escuela Normal "Juan Enríquez", and Mario Alberto Sandoval-Sánchez from Universidad Veracruzana, analyze learners' basic perceptions about the use of the flipped classroom as part of their EFL class in a Mexican technical high school. The six-week intervention of this study focuses on the simple past and its functions, which are the most challenging topic for those learners in the class. The 'flipped' part of the intervention consisted of before and after-lesson online activities that follow the principles for communicative language teaching and multimedia instruction. The study demonstrates that the flipped classroom is favorable for the learners since they perceived it as a technique to facilitate a rapid improvement of spoken fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary.

The third action-research study in this issue is by Guillermo Cañete-Gutiérrez and Maria-Jesus Inostroza-Araos, from Universidad de Concepción, Chile. They explore the contribution of self-assessment checklists on improving the oral presentations of two participants in an initial-level English as a second language course at a technician professional institute in Talcahuano, Chile. The four-week intervention offers the participants training on the criteria to self-assess their oral presentations by using checklists and analytic rubrics. The results of this study reveal that the participants improved their oral fluency, pronunciation, and confidence by developing more autonomy, language awareness, and self-reflective skills.

In the same line of improving speaking skills in English language learning, the fourth research article of this issue contributes to improving speaking skills with EFL young learners through corrective oral feedback. In this article, Pablo Aedo, from Universidad de Concepción, and Claudia Millafilo, from California Intercontinental University, present the perspectives of a group of 20 EFL young learners about the types of corrective oral feedback that they receive in their English language class. This qualitative exploratory study suggests that the learners appreciate the teacher's corrections and feedback but if done carefully and clearly by considering their language learning beliefs and motivation. The types of corrective oral feedback are composed of recasts, repetitions, and elicitation strategies. These types allowed the learners to reflect on their learning processes, participatory roles, and speaking strategies. This fourth article confirms that the use of English in speech is so important for oral communication to take place in this language in the EFL class. To reach this purpose, teacher accompaniment becomes relevant; the way teachers work on making learners aware of how they orally communicate is key to improving speaking skills in a language.

The last research article of this issue is about a qualitative descriptive study that examines the personal, professional, and social motivations and experiences of 40 EFL pre-service teachers to become English language teachers. In this study Nallely Garza-Rodríguez, from Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León, México, seeks to get an understanding of the main motivational forces that intervene in this decision. By analyzing the participants'

open-written narratives, the study shows how biographical experiences, perceived abilities to learn and teach English, and experiences in the teacher preparation program are the most influential in their decision to become EFL teachers.

In the section on reflections and revision of themes of this current issue, Yi-Fen Liu, from Tunghai University, Taiwan, a doctoral student in Education, ELT Emphasis, at Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas, Colombia, presents a profiling and literature review about language teacher identity in the previous two decades. This article mainly presents how this type of identity is defined and perceived in the ELT field. The article also describes the conceptual approaches, dominant trends, methodological development, and underexplored areas in language teacher identity.

As usual, from HOW journal, we hope that these new articles in this current issue maintain opportunities for the dissemination of knowledge concerning English language teaching-learning to the ELT community in general. These constitute part of the great scholarship on educational and research practices of English language teachers, educators, and researchers of Latin America.

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From the President of ASOCOPI

Jairo Enrique Castañeda Trujillo

I am writing this letter just after finishing our 57th Annual & 3rd International ASOCOPI Conference. Seeing so many colleagues, classmates, and friends gathering to share and learn together was indeed so exciting. The experience was uncomparable. The team of professors, undergraduate students, and the management and administrative staff of Universidad Católica Luis Amigó received us with unmatched warmth and a spirit of collaboration. To them, many thanks. This reunion reminded me of the importance of promoting spaces for sharing, not only from the academic but also from the personal, which makes ASOCOPI the association it is today, an association oriented to promoting English teaching, especially for the academic and human development of its members.

This year has been an up-and-down of emotions due to all the circumstances surrounding the pandemic and post-pandemic. However, the association has been kept on its feet thanks to the support of many of our partners and sponsors. It has not been an easy task, but we have succeeded with the other board members.

We maintained the broadcast of the monthly webinars that have been so helpful to English language teachers in the country and abroad. In this regard, I am very grateful for the collaboration of Adriana Bendeck, Blake Márquez, Carolina Rodríguez, Luz Ahida Aguirre, Zeila Restrepo, Carlos Andrés Sánchez, and Camilo Mazo. Additionally, I have to thank the sponsors who supported us by sending speakers to these webinars, such as Mauricio Ortega from LiveABC, Joseph Pearson from Moreland University, and Lorena Ojeda from Our StoryScape. These have become valuable learning spaces; therefore, we will continue to offer them to all English language teachers.

This year, we were fortunate to win the Horby Trust as part of our support for English language teacher associations. We used these funds in the strategy called "Nurturing and Sharing Local Expertise and Experiences in English Rural Education." To lead this project, we had the coordination of Claudia Uribe and Yolanda Samacá; for their excellent work, thanks so much! Likewise, academic professors from Colombia donated their time to enrich even more what rural teachers have been doing in Colombia. Professors such as Bertha Ramos, Nancy Carvajal, Ferney Cruz, Astrid Núñez Pardo, Carlo Granados, Marlon Vanegas, among others; to these professors, thanks so much for their generosity and commitment.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank Claudia Uribe, Adriana Sánchez, Evelin Quiceno, Claudia Suescun, Jhon Jairo Losada, José David Largo, Wilson Hernández, and Luís Ignacio Herrera. They have collaborated in designing the three diploma courses the association offered to all participating English language teachers. This initiative has brought many benefits to our associates from different parts of Colombia and the world to continue sharing and learning knowledge. The association seeks to continue with more courses, assuming this practice as a dissemination and contribution strategy to the ELT field.

Finally, I extend my gratitude and all my affection to those who, until these years, were my fellow board members. Claudia María Uribe, your charisma and generosity inspire me to work and to do it well. Kaithie Ramírez with that contagious joy, always attentive and willing to work. Adriana Sánchez, I love your order; you always get to the point; I admire your inexhaustible energy and enthusiasm. Eliana Alarcón, inseparable friend, tireless worker of ASOCOPI's social networks; I always receive the best personal and professional support from you. Yolanda Samacá, excellent friend and collaborator with the association's activities; thanks for your ideas and proposals. I also thank Miryam Cristina Vera, our officer manager, for all her excellent work and organization. I wish them all the best on the board in the coming years. Lastly, I cannot leave out two people who have been vital to what we do from ASOCOPI, Edgar Lucero, editor of HOW Journal, and José David Largo, assistant editor. HOW reflects their excellent work and commitment, not only with the journal but with the academic community; my eternal gratitude, appreciation, and respect for all they do for our profession.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank the generosity of our plenary speakers at the 57th Annual & 3rd International ASOCOPI Conference. Dr. Clarissa Menezes, Dr. Bedrettin Yazan, and Dr. Barbara Noel, our international plenary speakers. They all taught invaluable insights and shared their experiences and knowledge in an open and disinterested way. I hope to see you soon. To our local plenary speakers, Mg. Oscar Pelaez, Dr. Adriana Castañeda, and Dr. Ximena Bonilla, your friendship is the most valuable gift; your contributions to the community of English language teachers and educators in the country and the world are incomparable. Thanks so much. A fraternal embrace.

Finally, I would like to thank our associates, readers, students, and friends who have been present and supported us. Remember that your support is indispensable to continue strengthening the ELT in Colombia and the world. I want to take this opportunity to invite you to our next annual event, the 58th Annual & 4th International conference: "From the Global South: Our Roots, Perspectives and Transformations." This event will take place in Manizales, from October 12th to 14th, 2023. We all look forward to meeting you there to continue building community.

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Project-based Learning: The Promotion of Communicative Competence and Self-Confidence at a State High School in Colombia

Aprendizaje Basado en Proyectos: La Promoción de la Competencia Comunicativa y la Confianza en una Escuela Secundaria en Colombia

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Abstract

Project-based learning is a student-centered methodological approach that involves communication, cooperation, and autonomy. Even though project-based learning has been largely explored in foreign language teaching, little is known about its implementation in second-language beginner levels. This action research study describes the use of project-based learning by a pre-service teacher in a group of EFL eighth-graders at a secondary state school in Cordoba, Colombia. Data sources include video classroom observations, students' focus interviews and students' diaries. Findings reveal the affordances that project-based learning have in the development of the students' communicative competence, highlighting the strategies that they use to communicate and the way they construct confidence when planning and reporting their projects.

Keywords: communicative competence, project-based learning, self-confidence

Resumen

La enseñanza por medio de proyectos es un enfoque metodológico que conjuga la comunicación, la cooperación, y la autonomía. Aunque dicho enfoque ha sido ampliamente explorado en el campo de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras, poco se conoce de su implementación en estudiantes con niveles básicos en lengua extranjera. Este estudio de investigación acción describe la implementación del aprendizaje por medio de proyectos por parte de una docente practicante en un grupo de estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera de octavo grado en una escuela pública de Córdoba, Colombia. Los métodos de recolección de datos incluyen observaciones de clases, entrevistas a grupos focales y diarios de estudiantes. Los resultados muestran los beneficios de la metodología basada en proyectos en relación con el desarrollo de la competencia comunicativa; los resultados señalan las estrategias que los estudiantes usan para comunicarse y la manera en que adquieren la confianza necesaria para planear y reportar sus proyectos.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje basado en proyectos, competencia comunicativa, confianza

Introduction

Project-based learning (PBL) has become popular in the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Colombia. Researchers have examined the affordances of PBL in EFL contexts, arguing that PBL helps learners acquire concepts and promotes problem-solving skills (Bello Vargas, 2012; Pinzon, 2014; Vaca Torres & Gómez Rodriguez, 2017). Recent guidelines from the Colombian Ministry of National Education also suggest PBL as one of the approaches for teaching English in secondary schools, as PBL promotes the development of abilities such as communication, collaboration, critical thinking, technology, and problem solving (Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2016a, 2016b).

Even though PBL has been suggested as a method for EFL secondary education in Colombia and several research studies have reported its implementation in EFL classrooms, more research in the area is needed, especially in contexts where students have basic English language proficiency levels and rarely have significant opportunities for L2 practice.

Responding to this call, this action research study describes the implementation of a PBL instructional unit by a pre-service teacher (Juanita, pseudonym) and the affordances that this unit generates in terms of oral communication and self-confidence in a group of EFL eighth-graders in a state high-school in Cordoba, Colombia.

The motivations of this study are twofold. First, in preliminary observations to the study, Juanita noted that eighth-graders basically named objects in isolation (e.g., book, house, and picture) and chorally repeated sentences that the teacher asked them to pronounce. Also, the students felt little confident to participate individually in the class as they feared being laughed at by their classmates. Second, as part of a teaching training program, Juanita received guidance in the implementation of PBL as suggested in the EFL guidelines proposed by the Colombian Ministry of National Education. Therefore, she endeavored to implement PBL to meet the needs she had identified in the eighth-grade class. This study is anchored in two questions: (1) How do eighth-graders develop their communicative competence within a PBL instructional unit? (2) In what ways do eighth-graders build confidence during PBL lessons?

This paper adds to the relatively small amount of research that has examined the implementation of PBL with EFL learners at initial language proficiency levels (A1), particularly, in public schools in countries like Colombia where most students graduate with a A1 level (as indicated by ICFES, 2019). Second, the results of this study sheds light on how EFL learners develop communicative competence by using compensation strategies (e.g., approximation, foreignizing, and appealing for help) and teacher scaffolding.

Theoretical Framework

Communicative Competence

The teaching and learning of a foreign language involves not only the acquisition of language features (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) but also the understanding of social functions. Based on this functional view of language, Hymes (1972) proposed the notion of communicative competence, which covers the use of spoken and written language as well as the interaction among speakers, listeners, writers, and readers. Although the concept of communicative competence is four decades old, it continues being a key guiding principle in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. In Colombia, this concept constitutes one of the pedagogical principles guiding the suggested curriculum for teaching foreign languages (Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2016a, 2016b). Therefore, it is an area of exploration in this study.

Canale and Swain (1980) define four different sub-categories for the construction of communicative competence: linguistic competence, discourse competence (pragmatic

competence), sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Linguistic competence refers to the knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics, and phonology (Canale & Swain, 1980). Discourse competence refers to the sequential and functional use of the language (e.g., sending and receiving internal messages), whereas sociolinguistic competence relates to the sociocultural rules of language and discourse (e.g., rules of politeness, social relations, and age). Finally, strategic competence refers to the verbal and nonverbal strategies used to compensate for limitations in communication. Savignon (1983) argues that the strategic competence should not be regarded as merely compensatory strategies for limitations but as communication strategies that help compensate for factors such as fatigue, distraction, inattention, and language breakdowns. Bachman (1990) defines communication strategies as "functions of evaluation, planning and execution to determine the most effective methods to achieve the communicative goal" (p. 107).

That is, communication strategies are fundamental elements for communication. Adding to this issue, Tarone (1980) and Savignon (1983) describe a number of communication strategies that learners use for solving a communicative goal (see Table 1).

Table 1. Communication strategies

Strategy	Description
Circumlocution	Describing a word instead of using the target language word
Foreignizing	Saying a word with an L2 accent
Code-switching	Switching from L2 to L1
Appeal for help	Asking/indicating with verbal or nonverbal signals for correction, confirmation, and doubt
Word coinage	Making up a new word to communicate a desired thought
Topic avoidance	Avoiding talk about an unknown topic
Message abandonment	Beginning with a talk or concept and abandoning the message

Note: Taxonomy of communication strategies, adapted from Tarone (1980) and Savignon (1983)

Self-Confidence

Self-confidence (often times coined as self-esteem) is an affective principle that refers to the belief that one is capable of accomplishing a task (Brown, 2001). Although a long process, self-confidence could be co-constructed in the classroom by engaging students in sequential tasks (going from less demanding activities to more challenging tasks) and by using

verbal and nonverbal assistance to support task completion (Brown, 2001). Likewise, self-confidence could be constructed through a collaborative process in which teachers engage students in interesting tasks, monitor learners' work, and provide positive comments during assessment (Dornyei, 2001).

Project-based Learning

PBL has been defined as an active, student-centered approach to instruction that privileges students' autonomy, constructive investigations, communication, collaboration, and reflection within real-world practices or tasks (ChanLin, 2008; Fox, 2013; Grant & Branch, 2005; Haines, 1989; PBL usually encompasses a variety of individual or cooperative tasks over a long period of time (planning, research, and reporting), driven by the need to create an end-product (Beckett 2002; Fried-Booth, 2002). Hutchinson (1991) and Little (2007) regard project work as a significant approach for enhancing communicative competence and promoting language learning autonomy since PBL engages students in real-life tasks that boost motivation.

Phases in PBL

As discussed previously, PBL can be understood as a teaching approach which centers on learners and keeps track of the process that they go through during a project. In this process, teachers assist learners so that they can be responsible for their own learning and optimize their learning gains. The implementation of PBL follows different stages which are variously described by different authors. Simpson (2011), for example, suggests four different stages: *project start, development, report, and assessment*. The *project start* involves selecting topics based on students' interest and needs so that students can have some flexibility to work at their own level. *Project development* involves the research carried out by students either individually, in pairs, or as a group. *Reporting* to the class involves presenting and receiving feedback from other student, whereas *assessment* occurs when the final product is assessed by the class.

Miller (2011), alternatively, proposes a sequence of steps starting with the *Preparation phase*, which requires identifying the purpose of the project, determining its educational aims, selecting a final product, framing the general structure of the project, and organizing working groups. Next, the *Realization phase* consists of two main steps: Information gathering and Information processing. In this phase the teacher helps students to process data and prepares them for the language, skills, and strategic demands of the project. Next comes the *Presentation phase*, or "Information reporting cycle", in which teachers create language activities to help students to present successfully the final project outcomes (Alan & Stoller,

2005). The final phase is *evaluation,* which involves summative and formative assessment both throughout and at the end of the project.

Larmer et al. (2015) propose seven phases for project work implementation. This was the framework used in this study because it suggested a variety of pedagogical insights for the pre-service teacher who led the project work cycle reported. The first step in this framework is identifying a *challenging problem or question* whose answer requires students and the teacher to investigate, explore, and search for solutions. The second step is *sustained inquiry,* which implies not only a deeper look, but the exploration of the challenging question over an extended period of time. The third step is *authenticity,* which requires the teacher to provide students with authentic projects that involve real-world contexts involving actual processes, tools, or performance standards. The fourth step is *student voice and choice,* which refers to opportunities that students have to express their ideas, thoughts, and choices in the learning process. *Reflection*, the fifth step, is the time when the teacher and students think of what, how, and why they are learning, a dialogue which is usually informal and spontaneous. Next, *critique and revision* implies ongoing and constructive feedback to realize high levels of work in which rubrics can be used for guiding and assessing performance. The final step is *a public product* which involves the communication of the final product to an audience.

Methods

This study follows a qualitative research tradition for understanding the meaning one pre-service teacher and her students made of the implementation of project work in the natural setting of their classroom, focusing on learners' development of communicative competence and self-confidence. Qualitative research involves questions, procedures, and data gathering from the participants' context, and researchers' interpretations of them (Heigham & Croker, 2009). Consistent with the nature of qualitative research, the study uses action research in order to describe the implementation of PBL by a pre-service teacher in a group of EFL eighth-graders at a secondary state school in Cordoba, Colombia. Action research is based on reflective practice that involves the teacher as the researcher in analyzing teaching/learning and implementing a plan to improve it, reflecting on it, and making any changes if needed (Handscomb & MacBeath, 2009).

We followed the five stages constituting the implementation cycle of action research. First, we identified the issue under analysis that was relevant to our research context. Second, we obtained information to understand the problem of the study and devised ways of overcoming the problematic situation. Third, we designed and then, fouth, implemented a number of lessons using PBL. Finally, we collected data to investigate the extent to which the plan we proposed had been successful (Ellis, 2013).

Participants and Context

This study took place in a low-income, urban state school in Monteria, Colombia. Participants were one pre-service EFL teacher (Juanita, pseudonym) and a group of 32 eighth graders. Juanita was a fluent L2 English language speaker in her last term of her teaching preparation program, doing her required practicum. The eighth graders were beginning English language learners who could understand familiar L2 words, translate simple sentences from their L1 to the L2, and name familiar objects. The students responded to the teacher's questions as a group and hardly ever participated individually in the lessons, arguing their lack of confidence to do oral tasks in English.

The PBL Program

The PBL program consisted of a six-lesson project about food and nutrition during six weeks. The program was realized in six different steps: first, Juanita negotiated with the students an interesting driving question (what does Colombian traditional food come with? (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010, which tied to the topic suggested in their textbook: Colombian food. As a second step, Juanita and her students agreed on a product for their project**:** The oral presentation of a dish recipe in small groups using a Pictionary. Next, she assisted the students in browsing and selecting information from different sources (e.g., Wikipedia, recipe books) about the dishes each group had chosen. After this, each group presented the information they had gathered, receiving feedback and help from the teacher and classmates.

Once the teacher had identified the main lexico-grammatical and discourse problems in the students' presentations, she moved to the preparation of the students' final products. To this end, she reinforced aspects of form and discourse (e.g., the use of adverbs of frequency, use of simple present tense, pronunciation of dish ingredients, and the sequence of stages in the dish presentation). Then, she asked the students to rehearse their presentations in groups; both herself and peers provided. As a final step, the students presented their products in front of their classmates, receiving help from them and Juanita as needed (see Table 2 for further details; T stands for teacher, SS stands for students).

Data Sources

Data sources included classroom observations and field notes during the six lessons of the project. These sources served to illustrate how the project took place and the interactions that occurred in each stage. The students' diaries and two focus groups interviews (before

Table 2. Implementation of the PBL unit.

Steps in the PBL unit	Description
Choosing a driving question	T and SS agreed to answer the question: What does Colombian traditional food come with?
Agreeing on a product	SS chose a traditional Colombian dish, for example Lechona Tolimense, Arroz con Pollo, or Ajiaco. They agreed on presenting the dish recipe and a Pictionary that illustrated its ingredients, preparation, and nutritional facts.
Preparing the students for information gathering	T guided her students to search for different recipes online and then compare them with the recipes people in their context actually follow to prepare those dishes. SS shared the information about their dish during the subsequent lesson.
Searching and gathering information	SS browsed different websites for information about their traditional dish.
Selecting the right information	SS shared their information with the class. T helped the rest of the class to understand and asked SS to take notes, ask, and answer questions about each dish. SS in each group selected the most relevant data to describe their recipe and its ingredients, discarding irrelevant information.
Getting ready for the presentation	T focused on aspects of form specific to the presentation of a recipe (Explicit instruction of sequence adverbs, present simple). SS simulated their presentation focusing on aspects of public speaking (introducing themselves and their recipe, addressing the audience, etc.). SS presented advances on their Pictionary; T gave SS feedback on it.
Presenting the final product	SS presented to the class their traditional dish along with their pictionaries. T commented on SS' presentations and asked questions to the presenters and the class.

and after the project) were also used to capture the students' initial perceptions about L2 use in the classroom and their insights towards the implementation of PBL.

Data Analysis

Data analysis involved describing the students' language use and the confidence they gained through the project. For the analysis of language use, we transcribed the episodes

using the conventions described in Table 3, adapted from J. Herazo (personal communication, July 29, 2013).

Table 3. Transcription conventions

Mark	Description
S1	Identified student
?	Question intonation
T	Teacher
,	A normal pause
S?	Unidentified student
(.3)	Approximately 3 seconds pause
SS	Several students at the same time
:::	Lengthening of sound
(())	Comments by researcher
XXX	Unintelligible talk
[dog]	Mispronounced word
Abcde	Soft speech, like whispering
(dog)	Best guess: Not sure whether what is in parenthesis was what was said
DOG	Said with emphasis
dog dog	Underlined segments indicate simultaneous talk Translation to L2

We focused on the final product that the students shared in the class, analyzing how they realized this final task. For the analysis of the presentation, first we divided the task into the specific episodes. Then, we identified the communication strategies that the students used in each stage along with the teacher's scaffolding. We used thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to identify common patterns in the focus group interviews, diaries, and classroom interaction related to self-confidence (e.g., fears, participation, and collaboration). For reliability in the analysis, we compared the information from the different data sources: observations, focus group interviews, and the students' diaries.

Results

Prior to the implementation of PBL, the students had little opportunities for completing communicative/functional goals as most oral exercises consisted of drills

and repetition. Therefore, they basically chorally repeated sentences and mentioned some of the vocabulary they learnt in the classroom. During the project-based lessons, Juanita engaged the students in diverse tasks (e.g. defining a topic, selecting a product, searching for information, and presenting the final product) that, as we will show next, contributed to the development of communicative competence and self-confidence. To illustrate these two overarching findings, we thoroughly describe one of the final products of the PBL projects explaining the diverse communication strategies that the students used to realize the task. Then, we explain how the teachers' and students' collaborative work helped them gain self-confidence throughout the project.

Communicative Competence

The students completed three tasks for the presentation of their final projects in the PBL unit. To illustrate how they realized each task, we present a dyad's description of a typical Colombian dish (*la lechona*), highlighting the strategies that the students used to achieve the communicative goal/language function proposed in the project.

Step 1-Description of Ingredients

In the first part of the presentation (see excerpt 1), Sara (S) and Gaby (G) (pseudonyms) described the ingredients of *la lechona* (e.g. pork, garlic, and green peas).

As seen in Excerpt 1, Gaby started the description by code switching from the L1 to the L2 to announce the dish ingredients (Turn 5, *voy a decir los* ingredients). While expressing this idea, the teacher overlapped using a rising intonation to indicate the continuation of the description (Turn 6, OUR RECIPE?). After the teacher's scaffolding, Sara started the description mostly in the L2 indicating the dish ingredients (Turn 5, *la lechona* contains …). In the subsequent turns, Sara and Gaby continued the description by using two communication strategies, foreignizing and approximation. In turn 12, for example, Gaby used the expression *orange zum* instead of orange juice, thus foreignizing the word "*zumo*". Then, in turn 13, Sara said the word banana as an approximation of the word plantain. The communication strategies and teacher's scaffolding allowed the students to describe the ingredients of *la lechona*, thus achieving the corresponding communicative goal of the task.

Step 2. Description of Dish Preparation

In the second part of the presentation (see excerpt 2), Sara and Gaby described the different steps to prepare *la lechona* (e.g, cook the bacon, mix the pork).

Excerpt 1- Describing ingredients

1	S	Good morning students.
2	T	Yes, My name is? … ((indicating how to start the presentation/modelling))
3	S	My name is Sara. ((following the T mode, pointing at student 2))
4	G	My name is Gabriela.
5	G	Emmm, voy a decir los ingre ((code switching))
6	T	OUR RECIPE?
7	S	La lechona los ((code-switching)) ingredients.
8	T	Very good.
9	S	Ehhh la lechona, contains, pork [cooked] green peas, [cooked] rice.
10	G	Pork chops, salt, xxx
11	S	Ehhh...garlic ground cumin achiote ((foreignizing)) pow [powder]
12	G	Butter, lemon bites, orange zum ((foreignizing))
13	S	Juice, aluminium y ((code switching)) boiled pork or banana ((approximation)

Excerpt 2- Dish preparation

1	S	Ehh preparation ((shaking hands))
4	T	Preparation okay
1	S	Dice, ehhh …co::ok ((appeal for help))
5	T	Number 1, cook the bacon ((showing the recipe book)), number 2, add the?
1	S	[salt]
6	T	Salt ok and?
1	S	Marinate xxxx
7	T	Mix?
1	S	Mix rice, peas and vegetables.
8	T	What is mix? ((teacher asks the whole class))
1	S	Mezclar.
9	?	Very good, (The T demonstrates the word) so to mix pork and rice and vegetables.
2	T	and::?
0		[Salt]
2	S	Salt, very good.
1	?	Put first rice and meat rice and then put
2	T	Ohh yeah, you put that dough, I told you amm, how to say masa right?
2	S	Dough, so you Put the dough and then you put the pork AND?
2	T	Rice and[spice]
3		Rice and spices so everything
2	S	Bake the preparation in 300 grados (code switching)

As seen in Excerpt 2, Sara started the description mentioning the goal in the second episode (Turn 14, *preparation*). Then, she moved to the dish preparation (Turn 16, *ehh cook*) gazing at the teacher as if appealing for help to complete her previous thought. In the subsequent turn, the teacher completed the student's incomplete utterance indicating the steps to prepare the

dish (Turn 17, *number 1 cook the bacon*). Then, she uttered an incomplete sentence (Turn 17, *number 2 add the?)* which Sara successfully completed in turn 18 *salt*. In the four subsequent turns, the teacher continued scaffolding the students by providing incomplete utterances (See turns 19, 21, 23 and 25) that they completed in order to describe the steps to prepare the dish (See turns 20, 22, 24 and 26).

After this, Sara continued the description mostly in the L2 mentioning two more steps (turn 28, *put first rice and meat and then put*). To that end, she used two communication strategies: *Appealing for help* and *code switching*. In turn 28, for example, Gaby appealed for help to continue the description; then, in turn 32, she code-switched from L2 to L1 to express the final step in preparing the dish. As in the first episode, the students completed the communication goal of the task thanks to communication strategies and to their responses to the teacher's scaffolds.

Step 3-Describing Nutritional Facts

In the third part of the presentation (see excerpt 3), Sara and Gaby mentioned the main nutritional facts of *la lechona,* associating the ingredients with their nutritional indicator (e.g., pork protein).

Excerpt 3. Describing nutritional facts

33	G	Nutri ((gazes at S))
34	S	Nutritional.
35	G	Nutritional facts (.1) pork protein
36	G	[green peas]
37	T	DRY PEAS (indicates how to pronounce the word)
38	G	Dry peas, protein, calcium, iron, vitamin, rice, calories, nutrients, Salt, *vitaminas*, and minerals (code switching)
39	T	VITAMIN AND MINERALS
40	S	Garlic minerals, calcium, *vitamina B doce*
41	T	Vitamin B12, (code switching) very good.
42	Ss	((claps))

Gaby started the description appealing for help (See turn 33) to introduce the main topic in the episode: nutritional facts. After receiving help from Sara, Mary restated the word and started the description of the nutritional facts in the L2 (See turn 35). In the subsequent turns, Gaby code switched to continue the description in the presentation. In turn 38, for example, Gaby switched to her L2 to mention the word *vitamina*s and in turn 40 saying *vitamina B doce*. Thus, Gaby could describe the nutritional facts of *la lechona* using these communication strategies and her peer's help.

Findings indicate that the project-based unit provided opportunity for the students to develop communicative competence and its corresponding subcategories (i.e, linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence). When presenting the project, the students identified the lexical aspects of the language (i.e. linguistic competence) and pointed to its sequential and functional use (i.e. discourse competence) by describing the stages to prepare *la lechona*. To this end, the students resorted to diverse verbal and nonverbal strategies to compensate for communication breakdowns (i.e., strategic competence).

The Construction of Self-confidence

The construction of self-confidence was a significant gain in the implementation of PBL. During a focus group before the project started, the students manifested that it was challenging for them to participate because of their fear of making mistakes and of being laughed at by other students in the class. This was evident when the students responded to the pre-service teacher in the interview about the reasons for not participating in the English language class. Mary, for example, commented, "you clearly saw Di in the classroom... he laughed when we tried to participate"[6]. Javier also said "teacher you have noticed that they always laugh even if they do not know the answers they laugh and that is embarrassing". These comments indicate that laughing at students who participated in the class was a common practice in the classroom that both teachers and students were aware of.

During the PBL stages, the students started to gain self-confidence as they collaboratively responded to the project tasks and helped each other in the completion of project stages. In excerpt 4 (see below), for example, it is clear how the students collaboratively interacted in response to the teacher's questions about the ingredients of a typical dish.

As seen in excerpt 4, several students chorally responded to the teacher's questions in turn 1 while others raised their hands for participation. In the subsequent turns, student 1 answered the question the teacher had addressed without any interruption from the other students. As the interaction went on, student 1 continued responding to the teacher's questions getting help from other students (turn 11). Thus, instead of laughing at student 1, as usually happened in the classroom, the students helped each other in the interaction.

This collaborative environment between the teacher and students along with the student's participation in the different tasks helped them gain confidence and overcome the fears they

[6] Originally in Spanish, our translation.

Excerpt 4. Description of chicken rice

1	T	What is rice with chicken?
2	SS	Hey arroz con pollo!
		Rice with chicken
3	SS	(rising hands)
4	T	What does arroz con pollo rice with chicken come with?
5	S1	White rice
6	T	((repeats))
7	S1	Protein, olive oil, achiote
8	S1	Salt carrots habichuelas
		Green peas
9	S2	(…)
10	T	And the chicken! Where is the chicken?
11	SS	El pollo!
		The chicken
12	S1	Chicken meat!

manifested when the project started. Felipe, for example, wrote in his diary after presenting the recipe book to the class: "when it was my turn, I participated with ease because the teacher had explained to us what we had to do in the other classes...we had practiced"[7]. Similarly, Gabriel reflected: "when it was my turn, I felt at ease because the teacher corrected our mistakes in case we made any, I felt happy." Lina said: "today I presented my book menu, at first I felt ashamed, but then, I felt better because the teacher helped me". These comments indicate that involvement in the previous stages and the student's scaffolding and corrections contributed to their self-confidence during their performance. In fact, all the students in the classroom successfully shared their final product as an oral presentation. This was true even for students like Mary, who had initially voiced their fears and reluctance to classroom participation due to their classmates' constant laughter. Excerpt 5 illustrates Mary's final performance in the classroom.

Maria was hesitant to initiate the presentation expressing that she could not do it (See turn 3). Interestingly, after the students and teacher's encouraging discourse (See turn 1, turn 2, and turn 4) and the teacher's scaffolding (See turn 5), Maria completed the first stage in the presentation. This is an interesting achievement given that she had previously expressed her uneasiness and fears towards classroom participation.

[7] The students' comments have been translated from Spanish.

Excerpt 5. Dish ingredients

1	T	Ok! *Son tus mismos compañeros*! *They´re your own classmates*
2	S1	*Dale! Tu puedes*! *Come on! You can do it!*
3	M	No, no, no ((ashamed))
4	T	Come on Mary!
5	T	Say good morning!
6	M	Good morning, my name is Mary, my recipe contains avocado, banana, garlic, meat, lemon, onion, orange…
7	T	Thank you Mary! Sit down!
8	SS	(clapping)

Discussion and Conclusions

The findings of this study revealed that project work contributed to the students' development of communicative competence and to their construction of self-confidence. As described above, the different stages in the PBL project gave the students the opportunity to practice language for communication since the overall project had a communicative goal: The description of a typical dish. The students engaged in reaching a communicative goal, thus going beyond the recognition of lexico grammatical features.

Realizing the project communicative goal involved a constant collaboration between the teacher and the students as well as the use of diverse communication strategies. Juanita assisted the students through the different phases in the PBL project, simplifying the task so that they could successfully reach the final goal. This is a key element when scaffolding students' learning through interactions (Donato, 1994) and one likely reason for student improvement. In the final presentation, Juanita scaffolded the students in preparing the dish. She provided verbal hints (e.g. giving the students incomplete sentences for them to fill in) until they could respond to the task independently. Also, the students used diverse communication strategies (e.g., approximation, foreignizing, and appealing for help) to compensate for the breakdowns they had when communicating their ideas (Savignon, 1983).

PBL also promoted the students' self-confidence. Results showed that the PBL lessons created an enjoyable and low-pressure learning environment that helped the students to engage and participate in the different tasks. As the students had to collaboratively work on the completion of the tasks, they relied on classmates' and teacher's support to pronounce words, find information, look for vocabulary, and constantly assess their work. As researchers

have explained (e.g., Johnson et al., 1998; Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010; Lightner et al., 2007; Slavin, 1990), cooperative learning equips students with social skills that help learners feel more confident when interacting with other peers. In fact, this cooperative work from peers and the teacher helped the students to reduce the social pressure they had when the project started and thus respond to the tasks. This ties to Brown's (2001, 2007) conceptualization of self-confidence in that it is through the realization and support of diverse tasks that self-confidence is constructed.

Implications and Limitations

This study has shown that PBL helps students to improve their communicative competence as well as gain self-confidence. This is so because PBL involves the constant collaboration between the teacher and students as well as the immersion in real-world tasks. In the implementation of PBL, the teacher's role is fundamental since teachers provide students with opportunities to grow in the process and reach their final goals. This is even more relevant in students with basic language levels who are not daily exposed to the second language.

This study sheds light on the importance of teachers' scaffolding during PBL lessons. As this study showed, the teacher's support in the project was essential to help the students to complete the tasks and thus use the language to communicate. Our work also provides concrete examples of how PBL is enacted in L2 classrooms, pointing to the different stages the students and the teacher go through when presenting their final products.

Research in EFL classrooms in Córdoba (see Espitia & Perez, 2017; Henao & Montes, 2013; Nisperuza & Pacheco, 2017; Perez & Petro, 2013; Salamanca, 2016) have shown that teachers in state schools very often resort to traditional methodologies (e.g., grammar translation method and drills,) for the teaching of English. These teachers argue that students' language proficiency is too weak for doing communicative tasks, as was the case of Juanita prior to this study. As a way to reshape this conception, we suggest using PBL in the EFL classroom. This will allow for more opportunities to explore the affordances PBL may offer, especially to beginner learners.

Although sufficient for the aims of this study, data did not allow for tracking the students' communicative competence and self-confidence over time. Future research should see the affordances that PBL creates in longitudinal studies that can monitor students' development in a longer period of time. Also, results of this study cannot be generalized given its case-study design. Rather, results clearly show the advantages of PBL in the particular context of the study.

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Perceptions on the Use of the Flipped Classroom in the EFL Class

Percepciones acerca del Uso del Aula Invertida en la Clase de Inglés

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Abstract

The present action-research study analyzes students' basic perceptions about the use of the Flipped Classroom as part of their EFL class in a Mexican technical high school. To this end, 47 5th-

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semester students took two versions of a survey, which combined provided an understanding of their views after having taken part of a six-week intervention. The intervention focused on what is typically considered the most challenging topic of the semester: the simple past and its functions included in the official syllabus. On the one hand, the 'flipped' part of the lessons was divided into before and after-class online activities following a set of principles for the Flipped Classroom, Communicative Language Teaching, and Multimedia Instruction. On the other hand, in-class activities focused on reviewing content and communicative oral practice. The Flipped Classroom was favorably regarded. Students perceived it as a technique to facilitate a rapid improvement of certain aspects of speaking performance, especially in regards to fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary.

Keywords: flipped classroom, communicative language teaching, speaking performance, student perceptions, high-school, action research, English as a foreign language

Resumen

El presente estudio de investigación-acción analiza las percepciones de estudiantes sobre el uso del Aula Invertida como parte de la clase de inglés como lengua extranjera en un bachillerato técnico en México. Para este fin, 47 estudiantes de quinto semestre tomaron dos versiones de una encuesta, las cuales al combinarse proporcionan una aproximación a sus puntos de vista tras haber participado en una intervención de seis semanas. La intervención se centró en lo que normalmente se considera el tema más desafiante del semestre: el pasado simple y sus diferentes funciones incluidas en el programa oficial. Por un lado, la parte 'invertida' de las lecciones se dividió en actividades previas y posteriores a la clase, para lo cual se siguieron principios del Aula Invertida, el Enfoque Comunicativo para la Enseñanza de Lenguas y la Instrucción Multimedia. Por otro lado, las actividades realizadas durante la clase se centraron en el repaso de contenidos y la práctica comunicativa oral. Si bien, los estudiantes proporcionaron retroalimentación sobre algunos aspectos tecnológicos de la intervención, el Aula Invertida fue percibida de forma favorable. Los estudiantes la consideraron una técnica para facilitar una rápida mejora de ciertos aspectos del desempeño oral, especialmente en lo que respecta a la fluidez, la comprensión y el vocabulario.

Palabras clave: aula invertida, enfoque comunicativo, producción oral, percepciones de los estudiantes, educación media superior, investigación acción, inglés como lengua extranjera

Introduction

The official study programs for public high schools in Mexico state that students must develop their communicative competence in English to an equivalent of a B1 level in regard to the Common European Framework of Reference or CEFR (SEP, 2018). Even when the school system seemingly assigns enough hours in middle school and high school to reach the suggested cumulative of hours for a B1 level proposed by the Council of Europe (2001), Herrera Villa et al. (2013) determines that newly admitted university students have a very basic domain of oral performance in the English language upon entry.

As a matter of fact, a diagnostic test applied as part of the preliminary analysis for this action-research found that 53% of the students that took part in this project were not able to provide any personal information beyond their name. According to Golkova and Hubackova (2014), this low level of performance can be attributed to insufficient practice and interaction in the target language, which in this case could be linked to a public education system that is characterized by limited economic, technological, and staff resources (Amador et al., 2014) as well as by overcrowded classrooms (Zorrilla, 2002).

This research was carried out in a public technical high school where students obtain both their high school diplomas and a certificate as a technician in one of seven technical programs related to marine ecosystems. Groups in this school are typically large, consisting of 50 to 65 students each. Existing research focused on large class management reports success in promoting autonomous learning (Abdelrazeq, 2018; Winke & Rawal, 2018), as well as in using technology in and outside the classroom (Jarvis et al., 2014; Marsh et al., 2003; Voelkel & Bennett, 2014), with the combination of in and out of class instruction being managed through blended learning models. According to Marsh et al. (2003), blended instruction can improve the quality of instruction in large classes especially due to its structure, reduced verbal loads, self-pacing, and automation possibilities.

The Flipped Classroom (FC) was of special interest to this research because through the transfer of instructional content outside the classroom, in-class time could be devoted to the practice of the language in agreement with the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Within the foreign language learning field, the FC has proved to be effective for EFL learners in improving their performance in speaking (Amiryousefi, 2019; Köroğlu & Çakır, 2017; Teng, 2018; Wang et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2018; Zarrinabadi & Ebrahimi, 2019), as well as in other language areas (Ahmad, 2016; Ekmekci, 2017; Engin, 2014; Meléndez & Iza, 2017; Mo & Mao, 2017).

In spite of the benefits, several criticisms have been made to the FC throughout the years. Song et al. (2017) explain that there is no clarity in how researchers design and implement the FC since many studies do not present or lack the pedagogical and theoretical principles underlying their courses of action. This criticism can be partially answered by Bergmann and Sams (2012) who assert that every class is different and teachers who aim at *flipping* their classes must personalize this technique for their own teaching. In other words, we should not understand the FC as a method, but as a flexible technique that allows teachers to manage the class time wisely to meet class goals.

In view of the above, the present study seeks to answer the following research question: What are the students' perceptions on Flipped Classroom as a strategy to improve their speaking performance?

Conceptual Framework

There are four key concepts to the way this research was approached: the Flipped Classroom, Multimedia Instruction, Communicative Language Teaching, and Interaction; research has provided a series of guidelines on how to apply each of these constructs to the design of instruction. Within this study, the Flipped Classroom (FC) is understood as a blended learning strategy that allows English classes to transit towards a learner-center model in which class time is used to interact in meaningful communicative tasks. On the matter of what aspects to consider when designing flipped classes, two of the most essential principles of FC include providing an incentive for students to prepare for class and employing a mechanism to assess student understanding (Kim et al., 2014). According to Lo & Hew (2017), preventing students from feeling overwhelmed by the change in instruction is important; this should be achieved by maintaining a similar workload when *flipping* the course as well as fostering a learning community for students to discuss their doubts outside the classroom.

On the matter of technology, Kim et al. (2014) advocate for the use of technologies that are familiar and easy to access, while Mayer (2005) contributes a series of specific guidelines for the creation of multimedia resources, as part of what he has denominated Multimedia Instruction (MI). How the FC and MI can be integrated seems evident, with the FC dictating when and where contents and instruction should be delivered and MI aiding in the creation of suitable resources to support instruction. Mayer (2005) outlined three main principles for MI: segmenting, personalization, and signaling. The first, segmenting, emphasizes on the need of dividing content into a series of short videos that last between 1 and 6 minutes; the second, personalization, suggests conducting the presentation in a conversational style instead of a non-personalized or too formal style; and the third, indicates that instructional materials should include highlighting the most relevant information for students.

As for the content to be covered in the instructional videos, Tucker (2012) explains that "it's not the videos on their own, but how they are integrated into an overall approach, that makes a difference" (p. 82). This can be linked to another FC principle, which deals with establishing clear connections between in-class and out-of-class activities in order to guarantee coherence in the course of action (Kim et al., 2014). Since finding existing videos that comply with all the characteristics mentioned above is difficult, Herreid and Schiller (2013) conclude that teachers better create their own videos carefully tailored for their students. In doing so, teachers need to consider how they will extend that video content into class time.

In order to guarantee that the FC is used in a more structured, goal-oriented manner, Song et al. (2017) strongly suggest framing FC instructions within a theoretical background. Since the main purpose of the official program is to foster the development of students'

communicative competence (SEP, 2017), the course objectives for our intervention can be achieved through the use of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2012), the CLT approach considers interaction in the target language not only as the goal to be achieved by students, but also as the means to do so.

That is to say, CLT is based on how learners engage in communication, which in itself allows learners to develop their communicative competence. The latter is understood as the use individuals make of their grammatical knowledge of morphology, phonology, and syntax, as well as their social knowledge to exchange information and negotiate meaning in communication (Cruz, 2020). Learners need to experience communication and to participate in the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning (Savignon, 2018) while receiving instruction on the linguistic elements related to what is correct and appropriate (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2012; Whong, 2011). Finding different interpretations of the roles of communication and linguistic form in CLT is possible; however, a balance between the two seems more in line with the purpose of this action-research.

It is known that thanks to interaction students are exposed to language models that constitute input. In a revised version of Long's Interaction Hypothesis, Ellis (1991) reaffirms the need for comprehensible input for language acquisition. Ellis also asserts that information-exchange tasks are more likely to facilitate L2 acquisition since these tasks involve interactional restructuring (clarification requests, confirmation and comprehension checks, repetitions). Ellis comments on the need of not only comprehensible input and interaction for acquisition but also on the need of opportunities for production; both of which can be related to the principles of the CLT approach.

Methodology

Research Design

The present study is classified as an action-research (AR) study based on an individual examination of the researcher's teaching practices and working context (Ferrance, 2000) for the purpose of defining which strategies, techniques, materials, etc., work best in a particular context. AR is problem-focused; it generally arises from a specific problem or issue that stems from the researcher's professional practice (Wallace, 2006). The current study has a qualitative design; thus, data were collected through a survey that was analyzed via coding. To enhance the validity of the results, within-method triangulation and data triangulation were applied to obtain students' perceptions, as suggested by Krefting (1991) and Arias (2000).

Sample

The sample of this study consisted of 47 students from the 5th semester of a public technical high school located in Veracruz, Mexico. These students were aged 17 and 18 years old at the time of the implementation; 22 of them were male and 25 female. In general, these students could be considered hard-working and quiet. However, they were not very participative (only a few students would answer questions asked to the whole group) but usually complied with all kinds of activities the teacher requested of them.

During speaking activities, most of them relied heavily on their notebooks or books, and seemed confused when asked to engage in free communicative activities (e.g., they struggled to express what they wanted to say and to understand their interlocutors). Only a minority of students, around 14%, showed advanced speaking skills. When engaged in conversation, most students neglected the use of basic communicative strategies to convey meaning, regardless of their role as either speaker or listener. Essentially, they did not use any interactional feature other than repetition to negotiate meaning. Whenever that failed, communication was hindered.

Data Collection

A survey was selected as the most appropriate instrument for this study because it would help gather data from all participants in a short period of time while also allowing them to answer anonymously, which was expected to encourage honesty in their answers. Thus, data were collected at the end of the implementation through a student-perception survey in two versions, with each version including a combination of open-ended and Likert-scale questions. The reasoning behind creating equivalent versions of the instrument was to validate the results through consistency of response. That is to say, both versions aimed to collect the same information through different wording in the questions. This equivalency was ensured by analyzing the questionnaires with the help of two reviewers. The survey was conducted in Spanish to avoid misunderstanding issues and student discouragement.

Data Analysis

Data regarding student perception was reduced following the principles proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) to facilitate its analysis. Afterwards, open-end coding was used as a means to enable researcher interpretation. Hence, for the purposes of this study, codes were assigned to similar data segments to identify patterns, which were then clustered into patterned codes or categories. Further analysis to establish associations amongst the patterned codes led to the decision of combining descriptive and evaluation coding since they complement each other (Saldaña, 2015). Data from the 94 surveys were introduced

in the software Atlas.ti version 8.4; then, students' answers were summarized in single words or short phrases through the 'citing' and 'open coding' functions. Similar or repeated information was clustered into higher patterns through the 'code groups' function.

Pedagogical Intervention

The main purpose of the intervention was to improve the participating students' speaking performance through the use of the Flipped Classroom (FC). Instructional materials were delivered prior to class to present and practice a topic, so that class activities could be focused on further practice and communication. The pedagogical elements of the intervention were based not only on the principles of the Flipped Classroom but also on those of Multimedia Instruction and Communicative Language Teaching. In the flipped lesson structure, both explanations and mechanical drills took place out of class, in a virtual environment. Out-of-class activities were set up on the learning management system (LMS) Edmodo. It is worth mentioning that the students were trained on the use of Edmodo prior to the start of the intervention.

In an effort to guarantee that the students would check the material before class, pre-class activities involved them taking notes or solving exercises as a requirement for face-to-face class the next day. As an additional measure, the students took low-stake online quizzes in Edmodo to assess their understanding. After-class activities included further grammar practice about the key points detected during communicative activities in class. Whenever the students had to complete an out-of-class activity, they were provided with videos containing either explanations or instructions for the activities to be carried out.

The intervention took place over the course of six weeks during the first two months of the spring semester of 2020, before the start of the sanitary contingency due to the COVID-19 pandemic. During this period of time, the class focused solely on the simple past which was exploited through the following communicative functions: (a) Expressing recent past activities; (b) Expressing how a holiday/important date was celebrated; (c) Talking about past vacations / an important trip; (d) Writing a journal; (e) Talking about memories; (f) Talking about their childhood; (g) Talking about past romantic relationships; and (h) Writing a short story.

Before-class Activities

Before-class activities aimed at providing the students with the basic knowledge necessary for in-class activities. The materials shared through Edmodo included videos, online grammar exercises, quizzes, Quizlet vocabulary activities, worksheets, PowerPoint presentations, texts, and audios. Videos were recorded as if the instructor was talking face to face to the students and asking them directly to do some activities in their notebooks before

continuing with the explanation. The first videos focused on structure as well as function, the latter focused mostly on function. Moreover, there was a set of videos targeted at noticing and correcting errors that the students made when writing or speaking during face-to-face instruction. All the videos were uploaded to a YouTube channel specifically created for this project. At the end of most videos, questions were posed so as to elicit an answer from the students or to foster student-student interaction in the target language; the students were encouraged to post their answers on YouTube.

Besides the video activities, the students practiced grammar with online exercises that offered them immediate feedback. Vocabulary presentation and practice was covered with the use of Quizlet. This platform was used to creating vocabulary sets that the students could learn through interactive flashcards and practice by means of varied exercises including spelling, multiple choice, listening, and writing. PowerPoint presentations (PPT) featured questions with vocabulary related to the topic or function and sample answers, as well as broader explanations that complemented information presented in videos.

In-class Activities

Since both before and in-class activities were designed as part of the same lesson plan or didactic sequence following the principles of the Flipped Classroom, before-class contents were recovered during in-class activities. That is to say, the grammar, vocabulary, and expressions presented and drilled mechanically out of class were exploited in face-to-face conversations in class. This was expected to boost student participation as well as to promote communication and interaction in the target language while consolidating the use of the language structures and functions.

Class activities focused on reviewing content of the digital materials shared in the platform (review activities), checking doubts, and giving the students the chance to interact with their partners (interaction activities). Review activities included transformation exercises and formulation of questions, team competitions, listening exercises, and gamified quizzes. Interaction activities usually involved conversations in pairs, surveys, collaborative writing, group discussions, team presentations, role plays, communicative games, and mingling activities.

The students were also asked to interact in Edmodo uploading photos and short texts and posting comments to each other. During speaking activities, the students were encouraged to use some strategies to negotiate meaning. More advanced students were asked to rephrase their questions when their partner did not understand them as well as to model answers to facilitate understanding. Less advanced students were reminded of the common expressions to ask someone to repeat a question, explain something, say the English word for something, etc.

Results

Flipped Classroom Engagement

More than half of the group (57%) reported to have worked in Edmodo on a regular basis, while the other half expressed that they had worked in the platform only a few times. Three participants stated that they had never used Edmodo. When asked about their views on Edmodo as a learning platform, the students' opinions leaned towards 'regular' and 'good' (See Figure 1).

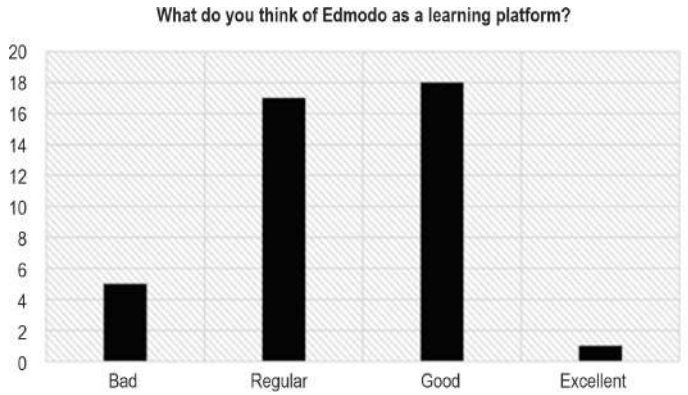

Figure 1. Student's Perceptions of Edmodo as a Learning Platform

A follow up question revealed negative comments regarding the lack of notifications (e.g., when a new video or activity was uploaded), and errors in the platform functions when uploading files, opening links, commenting, etc. Amongst the positive comments, the students mentioned Edmodo is user-friendly, as well as useful to learn and reinforce class contents.

Three quarters of the group reported to have watched all the videos or at least most of them (See Figure 2).

The following extracts illustrate that the students who did not watch the videos seem to have acted this way because of either apathy or forgetfulness:

S22: "I usually forgot to watch the videos"

S26: "I was a bit slack sometimes"

However, some blamed the absence of notifications from Edmodo as well as technical problems such as broken links:

S25: "I didn't get the notifications and saw the videos too late".

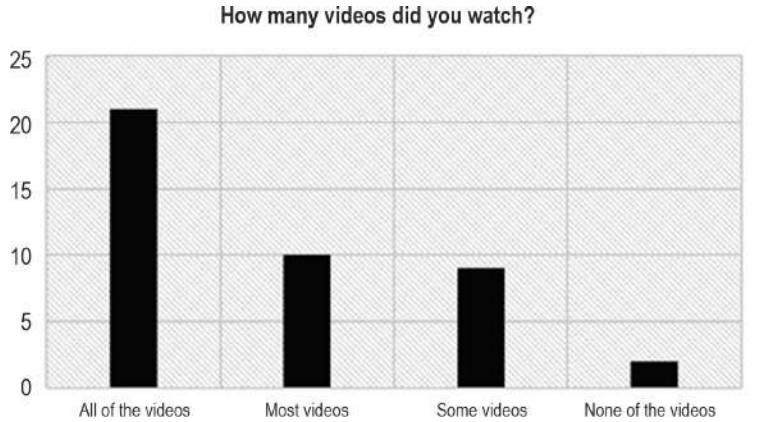

Figure 2. Student's Report on the Number of Instructional Videos Viewed

Even though half of the group assured to have watched the videos, only a third of the students expressed they had completed the activities by themselves without help or cheating. The rest of the group indicated they had done most (40%) or some (30%) activities on their own. When the students were asked about their reasons, half of them acknowledged it was due to apathy or forgetfulness:

S17: "The truth is that I forgot, or I lost track of time"

S22: "Sometimes I cheated just to comply with the homework"

Flipped Classroom Instruction

When asked to compare video instruction with face-to-face instruction, 37% of the students mentioned video instruction was more effective, and 55% of them considered it as equally effective to face-to-face instruction (See Figure 3).

The students perceived that the teacher explained the topic in the videos as she would do it in class, as reported by 28% of the students:

S2: "She explained things almost the same as when we're in class"

S25: "The teacher explained exactly the same as in class, very active"

S35: "She did everything the same way"

However, some students expressed that they did not do some of the out-of-class-activities due to a lack of understanding of the instructions, as we can appreciate in the following extracts:

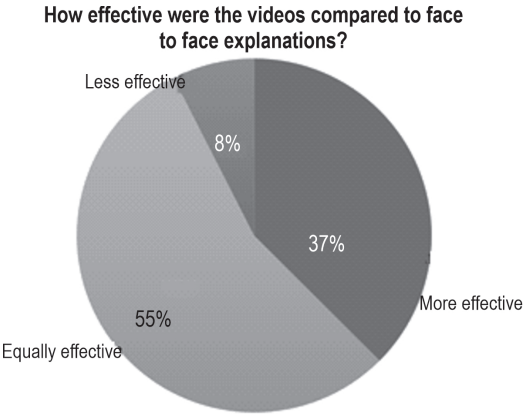

Figure 3. Students' Perceptions Regarding Effectiveness of Instructional Videos

S34: "Sometimes it was difficult for me to understand"

S40: "Because I struggle, and I didn't understand much"

The students were also asked whether they considered that practicing grammar and vocabulary prior to class had made any difference for them. 88% of the participants indicated that prior practice was helpful while 38% of them felt that they were better prepared for class (See Figure 4).

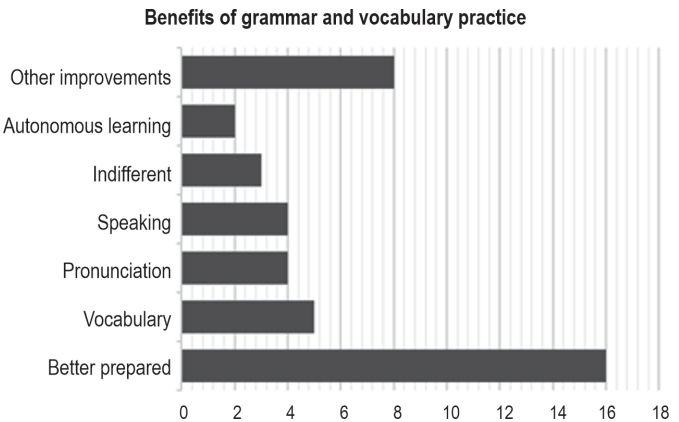

Figure 4. Students' Perceived benefits of Practicing Grammar and Vocabulary Prior to Class

As a matter of fact, the students explained that the benefits of practicing grammar and vocabulary prior to interacting face-to-face in the target language helped them understand better:

S16: "I got to class with more knowledge and I could reinforce that in class"

S19: "I put it in practice with my classmates, in pairs or in teams"

S28: "It was easier to grasp the topic because I already knew something"

S31: "I knew what the class would be about and I understood more"

As for the students' preferences regarding the inclusion of Flipped Classroom, the great majority indicated to have liked it. Some students expressed a strong preference towards this technique, while a minority declared to be indifferent to it (See Figure 5).

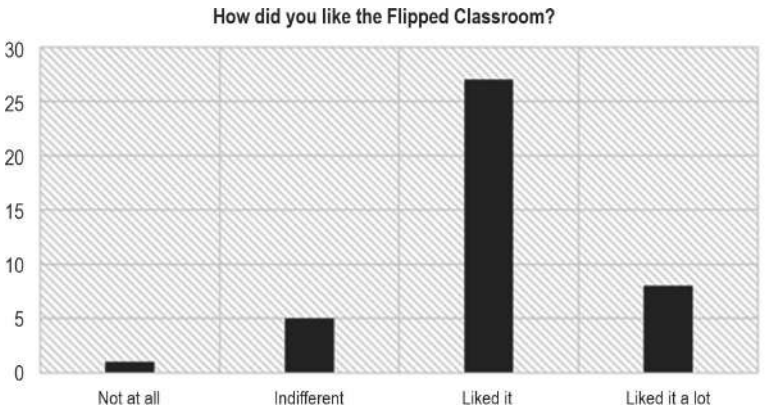

Figure 5. Students' Preferences regarding FC

Self-perceived Oral Performance through the Use of the Flipped Classroom

A latter question of the survey aimed at establishing whether the students had noticed any changes in relation to their speaking performance. A great number of respondents (89%) said to have noticed some type of improvement in contrast to the ones that perceived no improvement at all (11%). The students appreciated, sorted in descending order, improvement in overall speaking, fluency, understanding, and vocabulary. Some examples of their comments are:

S2: "A little, I learned to have conversations with my partners"

S18: "I can talk more, have a longer conversation"

S30: "…less embarrassment and more fluid"

S5: "It helped to expand my vocabulary and expressions"

According to the students, games were the most beneficial activity in class, followed by conversations in pairs and grammar-vocabulary exercises (See Figure 6).

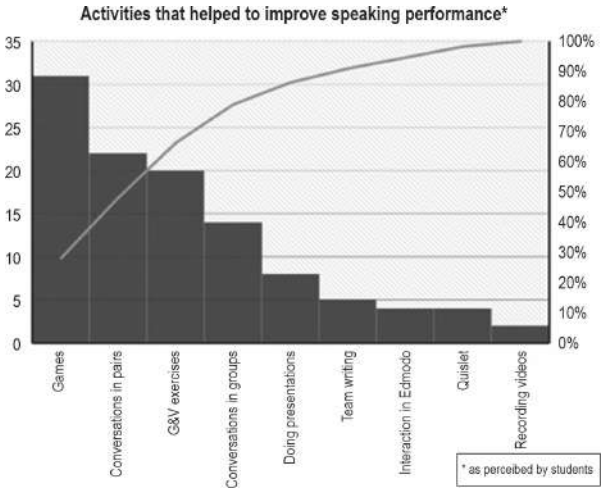

Figure 6. Activities Considered by Students to help Improve their Speaking Performance

Discussion

After analyzing the results, the following assertions emerged in relation to the students' perception of using Flipped Classroom to enhance their speaking performance:

1. Flipped Classroom contributes to enhancing certain aspects of students' self-perceived speaking performance within relatively short periods of time: From the results presented in the previous section, FC influences student perception over different aspects of oral performance, impacting fluency and vocabulary the most. The benefit of using this strategy to enhance students' confidence is acknowledged: learners that feel prepared for class are prone to participate in information exchange. As Boonkit (2010) realized in his study, "building up confidence in speaking was mainly reported as a factor that strengthened speaking performance" (p. 1308).

   The reason for the participating students' overlooking the grammar aspect when asked about the benefits of FC could be that some speaking skills may need longer periods of time to develop than others. Within a cognitivist view, McLaughlin and

Heredia (1996) state that complex behavior is composed of simpler processes that are integrated into regular performance through time and practice. The present implementation lasted six weeks, a period of time that may have not been long enough for certain students to develop a new grammatical structure.

2. Video explanations are more or at least as effective as face-to-face explanations: The main reasons why over two thirds of the group considered videos were equally effective or even more effective than traditional classes were the opportunity to repeat the videos as needed as well as how close video explanations resembled the teacher's face-to-face explanations before the implementation and the close resemblance with teacher's face-to-face explanations. Bonk and Graham (2012) and Marsh et al. (2003) had already mentioned greater flexibility, access, and self-pacing amongst the advantages of blended learning.

   The fact that the participating students perceived no difference between teacher's videos and in-class explanations means that the principles proposed by Mayer (2005) were successfully accomplished. As Mayer suggested, videos were kept short, lasting on average less than three minutes. The personalization principle was key during video elaboration; survey results demonstrate that conversational style was such that watching a video was "exactly the same" for the students as having the teacher in front of them providing an explanation.

3. Students had a positive perception about the Flipped Classroom: The participants commented that FC implementation had helped them be better prepared for English classes and noticed positive results in certain aspects of their speaking performance. They mainly mentioned improvement in vocabulary, pronunciation, and speaking in general. Amiryousefi's (2019) classroom experience findings coincide with the aforementioned: students reported that the use of online platforms and course materials prior to class made them more prepared for in-class discussions and tasks. Various authors have also concluded from interviews and questionnaires that students regard FC positively for several reasons: it allows them to study at their own pace (Wang et al., 2018), classes are more enjoyable (Amiryousefi, 2019), it increases student participation (Köroğlu & Çakır, 2017; Teng, 2018), and promotes learner autonomy (Teng, 2018; Wu et al., 2018) as well as student engagement (Wu et al., 2018).

Nevertheless, the participating students also provided some recommendations to obtain full benefit of future FC implementations: (1) there were various comments on technological improvements; (2) some students expressed their satisfaction with the implementation as it was; (3) other students recommended longer explanations and to increment the number of activities; (4) a few students advised to create more

engaging videos, consider students' interests, more collaborative work, and more games. Additionally, the students recognized that they did not get as involved in the project as they could have.

Conclusions

The present study explored students' perceptions on using Flipped Classroom to increase opportunities for communicative tasks in an English class. As the results suggest, FC facilitates a rapid self-perceived improvement of certain speaking performance aspects, namely: fluency, vocabulary, and readiness to take part in communicative activities. Nevertheless, FC was not perceived as particularly effective for acquiring new grammatical structures. This aspect of oral performance may require more time to develop, considering that the present intervention lasted six weeks. In regard to students' overall perceptions towards FC, these were mostly positive inasmuch as they reported that video explanations were quite effective, they felt more prepared for classes, and perceived that their speaking performance had improved.

As for the study limitations, strategies to maintain student engagement were obviated in this intervention. This is certainly an area of interest to focus on in future studies. Additionally, technological resources were not optimal given that various students complained about the lack of notifications from Edmodo and failure to use the functions of uploading, commenting, or opening links in the platform. Since this study focused on exploring the perceptions of technical high school students who were mainly beginner learners, with specific characteristics as a group, the results hereby obtained should be read in the light of these conditions.

To date, there has been little examination of the use of blended learning as an alternative to manage large foreign language classes and use class time productively in the southeast region of Mexico. The present study analyzed only students' perception towards the use of a blended learning model. Hence, future research on Flipped Classroom should focus on both recording students' perception and assessing their oral communicative competence through a mixed methods approach. Over the past two years, we witnessed how education hastily shifted from a presence-based to an online modality. In the future, education could be expected to shift to a blended modality. A broad understanding of the implications, benefits and challenges of blended learning techniques would allow teachers to prepare for a new era in the educational setting. In this scenario, the Flipped Classroom has the potential to be useful and effective in contributing to the development of language learners' speaking skills.

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Appendix A: Student perception survey. Version 1

Es sumamente importante que tus respuestas sean honestas y lo más claras posibles. La información que proporciones se mantendrá totalmente privada y no afectará en ninguna forma tus calificaciones en esta clase.

1. ¿Viste todos los videos antes de clases?
   Sí
   No: ¿Por qué? _____
   _____

2. ¿Hiciste tú mismo todos los ejercicios de gramática y vocabulario de tarea?
   Sí
   No: ¿Por qué? _____
   _____

3. Elige la opción con la que más te identifiques
   a) No hice nada en Edmodo
   b) Trabajé pocas veces en Edmodo
   c) Trabajé seguido en Edmodo
   d) Siempre trabajé en Edmodo

4. ¿Cómo describirías tu experiencia en general al usar la plataforma Edmodo?
   Mala Regular Buena Excelente
   ¿Por qué? _____
   _____

5. Me parece que la explicación de los temas…
   a) Es más efectiva con videos
   b) Es más efectiva en clase
   c) Ambas opciones me parecen igual de efectivas
   ¿Por qué? _____
   _____

6. Siento que al hacer ejercicios de gramática y vocabulario antes de la clase…

a) Voy mejor preparado a clase porque ya vi el tema y practiqué en casa
b) No noto ninguna diferencia, es lo mismo que hacer los ejercicios en clase
c) Me confundo más y/o entiendo menos

7. ¿Qué tan útil te pareció Quizlet para aprender y practicar vocabulario?
No usé Quizlet* Nada útil Poco útil Útil Muy útil
*¿Por qué? _____
_____

8. Al final de este parcial considero que mi habilidad oral es… que al principio
Peor Igual Un poco mejor Mucho mejor

9. Comenta cuáles fueron las actividades (dentro y fuera de clase) que consideras que te sirvieron para mejorar tu habilidad oral
_____
_____

10. Elige la opción con la que te identifiques mejor
a) En general, no me gustó trabajar con Aula Invertida en mi clase de Inglés
b) En general, me fue indiferente trabajar con Aula Invertida en mi clase de Inglés
c) En general, me gustó algo trabajar con Aula Invertida en mi clase de Inglés
d) En general, me gustó mucho trabajar con Aula Invertida en mi clase de Inglés

11. ¿Qué sugieres para mejorar el uso del modelo de Aula Invertida?
_____
_____

¡Gracias por tu participación!

Appendix B: Student perception survey. Version 2

Esta encuesta tiene por objetivo recabar información acerca de tu experiencia con el modelo de Aula Invertida durante tus clases de inglés. Es sumamente importante que respondas todas las preguntas, que tus respuestas sean honestas y lo más claras posibles. La información que proporciones se mantendrá totalmente privada y no afectará en ninguna forma tus calificaciones en esta clase.

1. ¿Qué tan seguido trabajaste en Edmodo?
   a) Nunca
   b) Pocas veces
   c) Regularmente
   d) Siempre

2. ¿Qué te pareció Edmodo como plataforma educativa?
   Mala Regular Buena Excelente
   ¿Por qué? _____
   _____

3. Los videos me resultaron _____ que escuchar la explicación de la maestra en clase
   a) Más efectivos
   b) Igual de efectivos
   c) Menos efectivos
   ¿Por qué? _____
   _____

4. Elige la opción con la que más te identifiques
   a) No vi ninguno de los videos subidos por la maestra
   b) Vi algunos videos subidos por la maestra
   c) Vi la mayoría de los videos que subió la maestra
   d) Vi todos los videos que subió la maestra
   ¿Por qué no viste algunos de los videos (si los viste todos, no contestes esta pregunta)? _____
   _____

5. Elige la opción con la que más te identifiques
   a) No hice ninguno de los ejercicios de gramática/vocabulario (o los copié de algún compañero)
   b) Hice algunos ejercicios (o me copié algunas veces)
   c) Hice la mayoría de los ejercicios
   d) Hice todos los ejercicios de gramática/vocabulario por mí mismo(a)

   ¿Por qué no hiciste algunos de los ejercicios (si los hiciste todos, no contestes esta pregunta)? _____

   _____

6. ¿Crees que estudiar y practicar la gramática y vocabulario antes de clase te ayudó o hizo alguna diferencia? Sí No

   ¿Por qué? _____

   _____

7. Elige la opción con la que te identifiques más
   a) No usé Quizlet para aprender y practicar vocabulario*
   b) Quizlet no me pareció útil para aprender/practicar vocabulario
   c) Quizlet me pareció algo útil para aprender/practicar vocabulario
   d) Quizlet me pareció muy útil para aprender/practicar vocabulario

   * ¿Por qué no lo usaste? _____

   _____

8. ¿Hubo algún cambio en tu habilidad para conversar en Inglés en este parcial? Descríbelo _____

   _____

9. Elige las actividades que te parecieron útiles para mejorar tu habilidad oral (puedes elegir más de una opción)
   a) Hacer ejercicios de gramática y vocabulario
   b) Interactuar en Edmodo con mis compañeros (preguntar y responder en posts)
   c) Hacer exposiciones de los temas que veíamos
   d) Escribir textos en equipo
   e) Tener conversaciones en parejas

f) Conversar en grupos (4 o 5 alumnos)
g) Juegos y competencias
h) Otro: _____

_____

10. En general, el uso del Aula Invertida en mi clase de Inglés…

No me gustó Me fue indiferente Me gustó un poco
Me gustó mucho

11. ¿Cómo crees que se hubiera podido aprovechar mejor el Aula Invertida?

_____

_____

¡Gracias por tu participación!


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Exploring the Contribution of Self-Assessment Checklists to Improve Oral Presentations

Explorando la Contribución de Listas de Cotejo de Autoevaluación para Mejorar Presentaciones Orales

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Abstract

This action research aims at exploring the contribution of self-assessment checklists on improving oral presentations of two participants that were taking an initial-level English as a second language course at a technician professional institute in Talcahuano, Chile. The intervention was carried out in four weekly sessions in which the participants were trained on the different criteria to assess their oral presentations. The participants self-assessed their work with a checklist and performed a second presentation based on their first self-assessment. Analytic rubrics were also used as an external assessment to compare results from the checklists. At the end of the intervention, a semi-structured interview was conducted to obtain the participants' perceptions about the process. Findings reveal that by developing autonomy, language awareness, and self-reflective skills, the use of the self-assessment checklist supported the participants not only to improve their oral presentation in overall aspects,

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mainly in fluency and pronunciation aspects, but also to make positive changes in their confidence and expectations about their performance.

Keywords: self-assessment, checklists, oral presentation, metalinguistic awareness

Resumen

Esta investigación acción tiene como objetivo explorar la contribución que las listas de cotejo de autoevaluación aportan al mejoramiento de presentaciones orales de dos participantes que estudiaban en un curso inicial de inglés como segunda lengua en un instituto técnico-profesional en Talcahuano, Chile. La intervención se realizó en cuatro sesiones semanales, en las que las participantes fueron preparadas en los diferentes criterios para evaluar sus presentaciones orales. Las participantes autoevaluaron su trabajo con una lista de cotejo de autoevaluación y realizaron una segunda presentación basada en su primera autoevaluación. Rúbricas analíticas también se usaron como una evaluación externa para comparar resultados de las listas de cotejo. Al finalizar la intervención, una entrevista semiestructurada se llevó a cabo para obtener las percepciones de las participantes acerca del proceso. Los resultados revelan que, a través del desarrollo de habilidades autorreflexivas, de autonomía y autoconciencia, la utilización de listas de cotejo de autoevaluación ayudó a las participantes no solo a mejorar su presentación oral en aspectos generales y en aspectos relacionados con la fluidez y pronunciación, sino también generó cambios positivos en sus expectativas respecto a su desempeño y confianza.

Palabras clave: autoevaluación, lista de cotejo, presentaciones orales, conciencia metalingüística

Introduction

It is widely known that speaking is an essential skill for communication in any language. Receptive skills are not the only ones that help learners acquire the language but also it is equally important to produce the language to become proficient (Goh & Burns, 2012). Thus, higher education curriculum considers the development of spoken communicative abilities in a foreign language as an objective for students' future lives (Li, 2018). One of the ways of developing English speaking abilities is through oral presentations. Oral presentations help learners develop different skills in the target language and other important skills (Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan, 2010).

Delivering oral presentations is part of the tasks that undergraduate students have to do as a requirement for a beginner-level English as a second language course at a technician-professional institution in Talcahuano, Chile. However, these undergraduates generally seem to struggle with this type of tasks as they were unaware of the quality of their performance, and they did not seem to be confident about their own presentation. Consequently, searching for an approach that could help students improve their language performance in oral presentations in English was necessary. This is why, this action research study aims at exploring the contribution of self-assessment checklists on improving oral presentations.

Theoretical Framework

This section presents the role of speaking skills in the English as a second language classroom, focusing on oral presentations as a task that addresses skills beyond the language performance, considering formative self-assessment as a way to involve adult learners in their learning process.

Speaking Skill in the EFL Classroom

Speaking is considered as an important language-communication skill (Goh & Burns, 2012; Ur, 2012), as one of the four majors ones developed when learning languages. Harmer (2001) explains that speaking not only involves knowledge of the language, but also processes language features mentally to express comprehensible information and convey an intended meaning. Furthermore, speaking considers interaction with others by including other skills such as listening, being aware of the interactors' feelings, turn-taking, and immediately processing the information that other people express at the moment it is received. In such manner, the form and meaning of speech rely on the context in which it is developed (Florez, 1999).

Speaking tasks are essential for granting opportunities for learners to practice spoken language to achieve higher fluency (Goh & Burns, 2012). In the context of classroom performance, Brown (2003) establishes categories to classify different types of oral production in the classroom: imitative, intensive, responsive, dialogues, and extensive. Extensive oral production are monologues, which are described by Goh and Burns (2012) as "an extended piece of discourse that an individual produces for an audience in formal or informal situations" (p. 211). Extensive (monologue) tasks vary from prepared speech to spontaneous speech. Considering the undergraduate language learning context, appropriate example of extensive tasks are oral presentations and speeches.

Oral Presentations

Li (2018) describes an oral presentation as a type of planned public speaking in which learners present a specific topic-based speech to the class, occurring in a particular context, with a specific theme and objective. In oral presentations, the speaker delivers the message to the audience through different linguistic, paralinguistic, and extra-linguistic requirements as well as other abilities such as psychological self-control and multimedia administration.

Additionally, oral presentations bring a variety of advantages for language learners. Al-Issa and Al-Qubtan (2010) describe at least eight of them. Figure 1 summarizes the benefits of oral presentations described by the author.

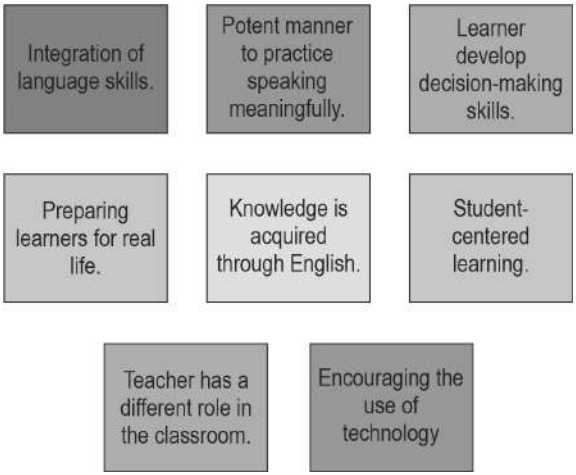

Figure 1. Benefits of Oral Presentations

Note. Summary of benefits of oral presentations (Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan, 2010).

As seen in Figure 1, oral presentations not only help learners develop abilities in the language learning area but also in the attitudinal area which may be advantageous and highly relevant for other aspects of adult learners' life.

In the context of this study, oral presentations in English as a second language need to be assessed to monitor learner's progress in language oral production.

Oral Presentations Formative Assessment

Assessment is defined as "all those activities undertaken by teachers, and by their students in assessing themselves, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they engaged" (Black & William, 1998, p. 2). There are different purposes that assessment rely on. For instance, Ur (2012) provides four purposes for assessing language: evaluating learner's overall level of English, evaluating learner's progress, evaluating particular elements during a course, and evaluating learner's strengths and weaknesses.

O'Malley and Pierce (1996) explain that learners at any level of proficiency need to prepare for oral presentations. These scholars suggest using students' reports on their oral presentation progress and worksheets to assess the preparation of the presentation. They also recommend using a scoring rubric before learner's presentation. When assessing the actual presentation, there must be consideration of clear criteria. Brown (2003) suggests

using a checklist regarding criteria about content and delivery. O'Malley and Pierce (1996) also suggest a self-assessment chart to assess oral presentations.

In the context of this action research, the need of searching for an approach for learners to improve their oral presentations directs the focus on a type of assessment that contributes with this objective. Thus, formative assessment seems to be an appropriate alternative to allow learners to be involved in their own learning process. There is agreement in the literature (e.g., Brown, 2003; Cheng & Fox, 2017; Green, 2014; Irons, 2008; Ur, 2012) that formative assessment focuses on the process of learners' development of learning. It provides guided and relevant feedback to support and improve their learning process. This type of assessment becomes more effective when learners are immersed and interested in their own learning process, as well as share their own perceptions with others. Through this process, they reflect on their progress, set goals, and plan their learning based on those goals (Green, 2014). Hence, self- assessment arises as one of the practices to completely involve adult learners in their own learning process.

Self-assessment

Self-assessment is one of the alternative forms of assessment that teachers can apply in their classrooms focusing on learners' performance. Hedge (2000) considers self-assessment as a type of metacognitive strategy aiming at helping learners to enhance their awareness of their individual progress. Therefore, this type of assessment involves the learner's ability to assess their own language performance and the ability to be self-critical. Similarly, Boud (1995) suggest that a key element of self-assessment is the learners' engagement in recognizing standards and/or criteria to implement them into their practice as well as form judgements on their own progress. In order to achieve this, learners need reflective practice to make them aware of the abilities and objectives that are required to determine the elements that do not match with what is expected (Yan & Brown, 2016). Moreover, Boud (1995) highlights the importance of developing self-assessment skills in learners, arguing that they are essential for increasing effective learning extended in time and for professional development or social responsibility.

Self-assessment brings a variety of benefits for learners' learning process. For example, Andrade and Heritage (2018) argue that self-assessment encourages self-regulation of learning by controlling it through the improvement of their differences between their progress and set goals. They also explain that self-assessment allows teachers to contribute with specific suggestions for improvement to learners' language performance. Similarly, Ekbatani and Pierson (2000) explain that self-assessment encourages learner's involvement and responsibility in making decision about their own learning. In addition, Harris and McCann (1994) mention that self-assessment support learners in finding means to change,

adapt, and improve their learning. Finally, Ur (2012) affirms that self-assessment encourages learners to self-reflection and to be responsible on their own learning process.

Self-assessment of oral presentations in a second language is an area which is still being explored by researchers. A number of studies provide insights of the contributions that self-assessment makes to oral presentations. For example, Reitmeier and Vrchota (2009) found that self-assessment helped learners to prepare their oral presentation and raised self-awareness. Furthermore, in regard to the use of self-assessment for language skills, studies carried out by Phan and Phoung (2017), Chalkia (2012), and Duque and Cuesta (2015) demonstrated that self-assessment helps learners improve their speaking skills, raise awareness of their own strengths and drawbacks, as well as enhancing confidence on their own performance.

Method

The current study seeks to solve a specific problem in a particular context, following a qualitative paradigm. In such manner, this research is constructed around a descriptive scope by specifying through deep description the qualities of the participants, the context, the events, actions, and the intervention process, as well as other elements that are matter of study. Additionally, in this study, the teacher-researcher planned and applied a specific self-assessment strategy to encourage the participants to improve their oral presentations. Therefore, the followed research design was action research which observed an issue from the language classroom, planed an appropriate action, then reflected on the implications for future practice based on information collected from different sources (Burns, 2010).

Research Problem

Students from the higher educational institution where the current study took place have to reach an A1 English language proficiency level as part of their degree requirements. For this, they must take compulsory English as a second language courses to achieve that level. The course includes the development of the four language skills in English. One of them is speaking, which involves a variety of complex processes (Harmer, 2001) and is essential for using a foreign language (Luoma, 2004). During the English language courses, students are required to perform different tasks to demonstrate achievement of the expected learning outcomes— one of them is performing an oral presentation. At this institution, several students fail the oral presentation assignment as part of the beginner English language course. In general, students struggle with linguistic (vocabulary or grammar aspects) and performance (pronunciation or fluency) aspects, and lack of confidence. Even if the instruction and criteria had been explicitly

presented during the lessons, they do not seem aware of their language performance in English, struggling to notice their points of improvement; therefore, failing to improve their oral presentations before delivering them.

The need of a tool to improve students' oral presentations has provided the teacher-researcher with the idea of exploring the potential of self-assessment in oral presentations. Many experts in the field describe the benefits of this type of assessment. For example, Hedge (2000) explains that self-assessment is a metacognitive strategy that enhances students' awareness of their own progress in learning. Additionally, it fosters self-reflection and evaluation of the students' own perception about their performance (Yan & Brown, 2016). Moreover, self-assessment encourages students to search for ways to change, adapt, and improve (Harris & McCann, 1994). In addition to this, Chalkia (2012), Duque and Cuesta (2015), and Phan and Phoung (2017) demonstrate that self-assessment is a powerful tool to improve students' skills. Provided that self-assessment brings advantages for language learning, this research specifically explored the contribution that self-assessment checklists offered to improve students' performance in their presentations.

Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are (1) to analyze overall language performance of an oral presentation after using self-assessment checklists; (2) to analyze the participants' improvement on each language aspect to self-assess their own oral presentation with a self-assessment checklist; and (3) to explore the participants' perceptions about using self-assessment checklists to improve their own oral presentation performance.

Participants

Students from the course were asked in classes to voluntarily participate in this research, from which two out of seventeen students offered with the intention of improving their oral presentation task. The participants were two female students in their twenties completing a nursing technical degree at a professional technician institute in Talcahuano, Chile. They came from different socio-cultural backgrounds, and had limited experiences with self-assessment.

They were taking 'English II' course; therefore, they have already completed English I, achieving an A1 level, which according to the CEFR[3] is a beginner level. The course was scheduled for three hours a week in afternoon schedule.

[3] Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, 2001.

Procedure

This action research was carried out as part of the regular English language course; therefore, as part of the course assignments, students were asked to video-record an oral presentation by following specific instructions and considering guiding questions provided by the teacher-researcher. As part of the assignment, students are offered the opportunity to resubmit their assignment after obtaining feedback from the teacher. Few students usually take this opportunity.

After the participants recorded their presentations, the intervention of this action research was carried out in four weekly sessions with the two volunteer student-participants in a time slot outside the regular timetable. The first three sessions were focused on providing the insights and brief training on assessing each criterion that the participants had to self-assess after every session. They were provided with video examples of exemplary and poor performance of the different assessment criteria: content and organization (session 1), vocabulary and grammar (session 2), fluency and pronunciation (session 3). These six example videos were produced by the teacher-researcher to display intentionally an excellent and a poor performance of each of the target criteria for every session. The purpose of presenting the videos was to inform the participants about what was expected from them, as well as guiding them through the self-assessment process after each session. In this way, the participants were encouraged to recognize standards and/or criteria to implement them into their practice as well as forming judgements on their own progress (Boud, 1995).

A summary of the intervention stages is displayed in Figure 2.

Data Collection Instruments

Analytic Rubric (See Appendix 1)

Two identical analytic rubrics were applied to assess the overall and criterion-specific performances of the initial and final participants' oral presentations. The rubrics were genuinely constructed around Brown's (2003) suggested criteria for assessing oral presentations. These selected criteria were five: content organization, fluency, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Each criterion is described within five descriptors that depict different levels of performances: Excellent, Good, Fair, Poor, and Absent, being "Excellent" an exemplary performance and "Absent" a deficient performance. The rubrics content was in Spanish to guarantee the participant's comprehension of the results and assessment criteria.

Self-Assessment Checklists (See Appendix 2)

Two identical self-assessment checklists were delivered to the participants to encourage them to self-assess their initial and final oral presentation. Its content was in Spanish to

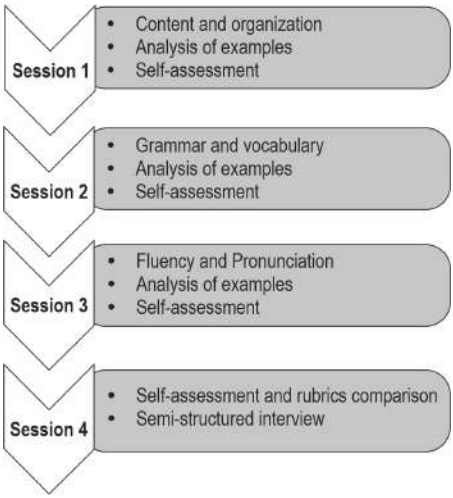

Figure 2. *Intervention stages*

Note. Summary of intervention stages. Language performance aspects to be self-assessed and tasks for each session are briefly described.

assure the participants' comprehension. The self-assessment checklist was constructed around the same five criteria as the analytic rubrics mentioned above. However, the criteria descriptors for self-assessing were expressed in format of yes-no questions to simplify the descriptors and facilitate the process of self-assessing participants' own performance in the different criteria presented. There was a section next to each answer with the question *"What do I need to improve?"* in which the participants had to write notes about specific details that they identified for improving in their second presentation. This self-assessment checklist had to be applied twice: to the initial presentation and the final presentation.

Semi-structured Interview (see Appendix 3)

This was conducted at the end of the intervention to identify the perceptions that the participants had over the process of using self-assessment checklists. This type of instrument is a key element to explore the way they experienced and understood this process. It provides with access to information about their activities, experiences, and opinions with their own point of view (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). This semi-structured interview was carried out in Spanish, with the purpose of obtaining richer information from the participants, since their language competences are limited to an initial proficiency level of English. The questions in this interview were built around three main dimensions which were directly related to the

third objective of this study: perceptions about the self-assessment process, perceptions about the use of self-assessment checklists, and perceptions about obtained results.

Data Analysis Techniques

The data were analyzed according to the different instruments used to gather relevant information. The data obtained from the rubrics were analyzed considering the variation of average scores and the specific score from the different criteria assessed in the initial and final oral presentation of each participant. Secondly, in a similar manner, the scores obtained from the self-assessment checklists in the initial and final presentation were compared to analyze the variation of average scores and specific scores of the assessment criteria. Moreover, the comments that the participants made in this instrument were considered as a way of explaining the scores they provided. Finally, the semi-structured interview was transcribed and a thematic analysis was employed considering Braun and Clarke's (2006) stages: data familiarization, coding, searching for themes, as well as theme review, definition and naming.

Findings

The participants were provided with training in the different assessment criteria required. The purpose of this was that they could recognize the criteria to implement them in their presentations and build judgements on their own progress, which is one of the key elements of self-assessment according to Boud (1995). After this, the participants were asked to self-assess their first presentation, prepare another presentation based on their assessment, and self-assess their final presentation with a self-assessment checklist. The teacher also assessed the initial and final presentation with analytic rubrics.

Oral Presentation Overall Performance

Findings regarding the oral presentation overall performance consider data obtained from the analytic rubrics and the self-assessment checklists. Results obtained from the analytic rubrics showed an increment in the overall scores of the presentations. Figure 3 represents the increment in the overall scores (Y-axis) in the analytic rubric used to assess participant 1 and participant 2's presentations before and after the intervention (X-axis).

Figure 3 shows the increment of average scores of the analytic rubric obtained by the participants after (post) the intervention. Participant 1 obtained an increment of 3 points and participant 2 obtained an increment of 2 points after the intervention by comparing scores from the pre-intervention stage. This increment is also reflected in the self-assessment checklists where the participants assessed themselves with higher scores in the

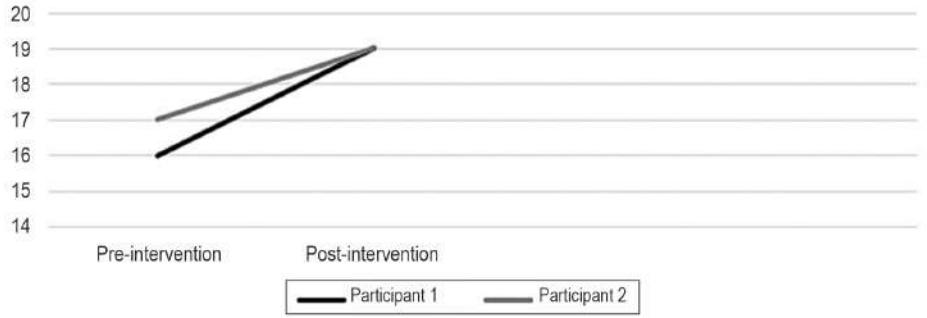

Figure 3. Analytic rubric average scores

Note. Participant 1 and 2's average scores from the analytic rubrics in the pre- and post-intervention stages.

post-intervention stage. Figure 4 displays the variation of scores obtained from the self-assessment checklists that the participants used before and after the intervention.

Figure 4 presents the variation of scores (Y-axis) obtained from the self-assessment checklists that the participants used before and after the intervention (X-axis). Participant 1 increased 5 points and participant 2 increased 2 points after the intervention.

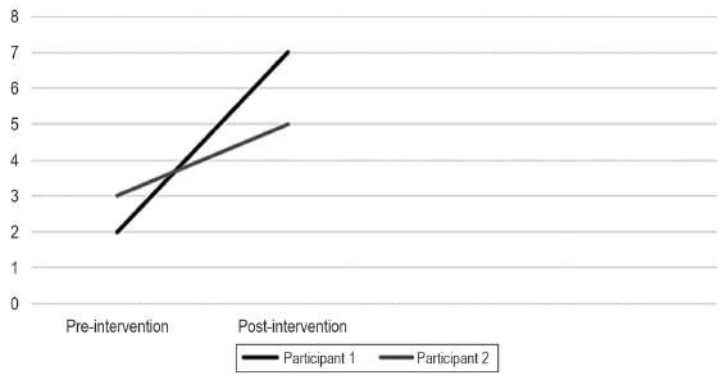

Figure 4. Self-assessment checklist average scores

Note. Participant 1 and 2's average scores from the self-assessment checklists in the pre- and post-intervention stages.

These results support the idea of Andrade and Heritage (2018) who argued that self-assessment improves language performance. This has also been demonstrated in similar studies such as in Chalkia (2012) and Duque and Cuesta (2015).

Oral Presentation Performance by Specific Language Aspect

With respect to the participants' performance by specific language aspects, data obtained from each criterion in the analytic rubric and the self-assessment checklist were considered for analysis.

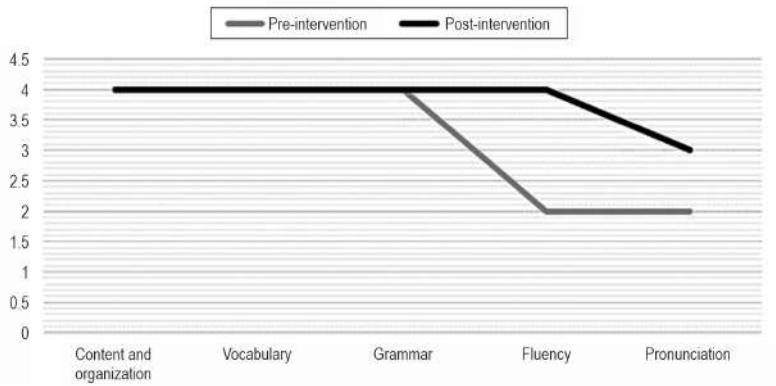

Figure 5. Participant 1's criteria scores from analytic rubrics

Note. Comparison of participant 1's analytic rubrics scores for each criterion before and after the intervention.

The findings in the analytic rubric revealed that the participants improved their pronunciation and fluency aspects of their presentation after the intervention. Figure 5 and Figure 6 represent participant 1 and participant 2's variation of scores in each criterion considered for assessment respectively. Both figures show the analytic rubric score (Y-axis) by specific language aspect (X-axis).

It can be observed that the participants maintained their maximum score (4) in content and organization, and vocabulary and grammar. Participant 1 increased 2 points in fluency, reaching the maximum score in that criterion after the intervention. She also increased 1 point in pronunciation, obtaining 3 points in this criterion. Similarly, participant 2 increased 1 point in fluency, obtaining the maximum score in fluency after the intervention, and 1 point in pronunciation, scoring 3 points after the intervention.

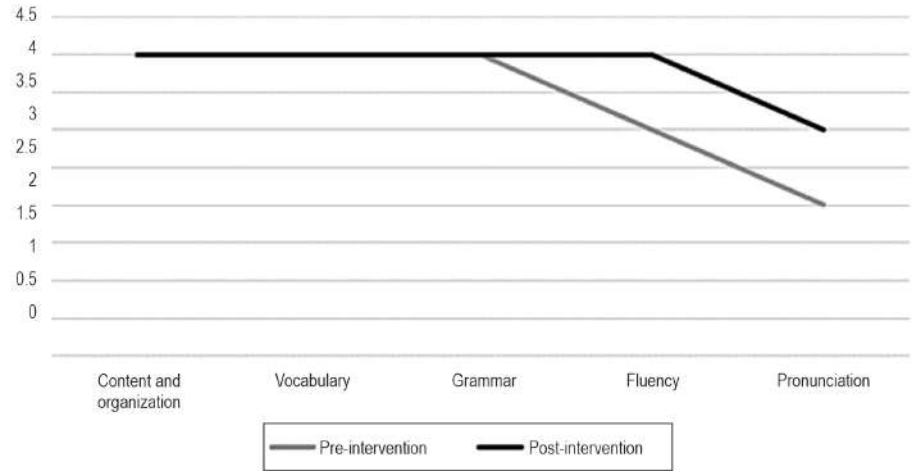

Figure 6. *Participant 2's criteria scores from analytic rubrics.*

Note. Comparison of participant 2's analytic rubrics scores for each criterion before and after the intervention.

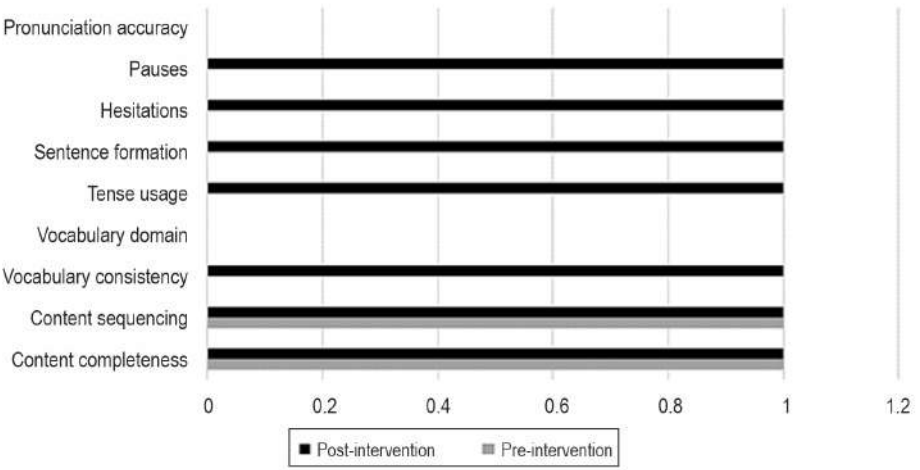

Figure 7. Participant 1's criteria scores from self-assessment checklists

Note. Comparison of participant 1's self-assessment checklists scores (X-axis) by criteria aspects (Y-axis) before and after the intervention.

When analyzing the results from the self-assessment checklists, participant 1's self-assessment checklist displays that most of the criteria maintained their maximum score or increased to the maximum score after the intervention. However, "vocabulary domain" and "pronunciation accuracy" remained in their minimum score. Figure 7 represents the variation in scores of each criterion in participant 1's self-assessment checklist in pre- and

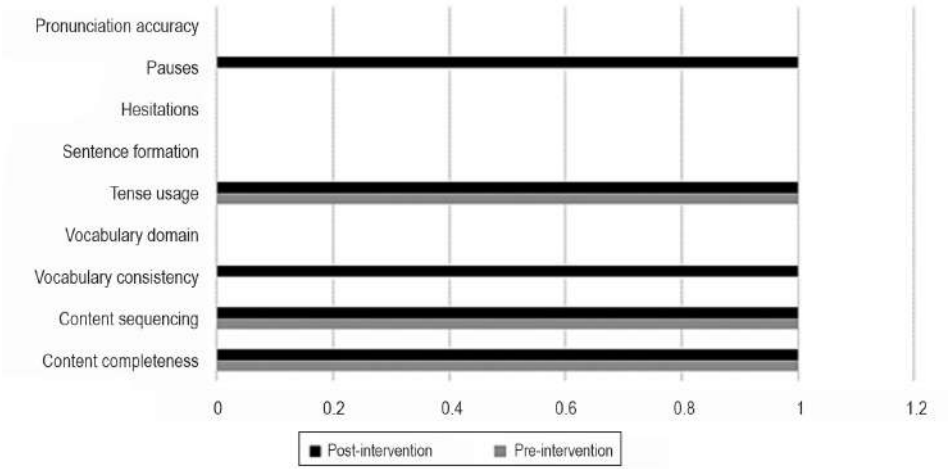

Figure 8. Participant 2's criteria scores from self-assessment checklists

Note. Comparison of participant 2's self-assessment checklists (X-axis) by criteria aspects (Y-axis) before and after the intervention.

post-intervention stages.

It is observed that most of the aspects maintained their maximum score or increased to the maximum score. However, "vocabulary domain" and "pronunciation accuracy" remained in their minimum score. Differently, participant 2's results were different from participant 1's. Figure 8 displays the results of each criterion in participant 2's self-assessment checklists.

It can be observed that three of the nine assessed aspects remained at their maximum score before and after the intervention: content completeness, content sequencing, and tense usage. The aspect of vocabulary consistency increased from 0 in the pre-intervention stage, to 1 in the post-intervention stage. However, pronunciation accuracy, hesitations, sentence formation and vocabulary domain did not present any variation and remained at their minimum score before and after the intervention.

An interesting point is the difference in scoring of the self-assessment checklist at the beginning and after the intervention. The participants scored with the minimum their own performance in many of the criteria used to assess their first video of their presentation. However, the second self-assessment checklist was more consistent with the results of the rubrics when assessing the final version of the video. The low scoring in the first stage of the current study can be explained by the data obtained from the semi-structured interview[4], in which the participants reported that they experienced emotions of anxiety and frustration at the beginning of the process:

"At the beginning, I felt frustrated […]" (Participant 1)

"I was nervous because I got nervous when I couldn't do it better […]" (Participant 2)

Perceptions on Using Self-Assessment Checklists

Data obtained from the semi-structured interview revealed that the participants had a positive perception about the process of using self-assessment checklist to improve their performance in oral presentations. The participants reported that the self-assessment checklists were helpful for improving their presentations:

"[…] It was quite useful. It helped me a lot this time." (Participant 1)

"[…] I also consider that it helped me a lot […]" (Participant 2)

The participants also expressed that they experienced changes in their expectations about their own oral presentations. Their expectations were low at the beginning of the process which grew to higher ones at the end of it:

"They were very low and now they are higher." (Participant 1)

"They changed […] Expectations last time were low […]" (Participant 2)

This could be connected to what the participants commented about feeling more confident of their work at the end of the process as well as having positive reactions when their own self-assessment was validated by the teacher's assessment:

"[…] I did not feel nervous […] because I felt that there were some aspects that I did improve." (Participant 2)

"I felt […] like happiness because I saw that we had some parts I considered I improved and you also noticed that […]" (Participant 1)

[4] The semi-structured interview was originally conducted in Spanish. Responses were translated into English for publication purposes in this article.

These findings are consistent with previous studies which reflect that self-confidence is fostered through the use of self-assessment techniques (Birjandi & Tamjid, 2010; Chalkia, 2012; Duque & Cuesta, 2015).

Self-Assessment Skills

The data obtained from the semi-structured interview provided with crucial information about self-assessment skills that the participants applied during this process. Hedge (2000) and Ekbatani and Pierson (2000) stated that self-assessment enhances students' awareness about their own progress. In the current study, the participants expressed that they were able to identify their weaknesses and strengths during the process and after it, by noticing improvement in their performances:

"It helped me to check my work: This is useful, this was wrong, this is what I have to improve." (Participant 1)

"[…] I could see that now I was more confident, the video was more fluent by only improving hesitation […]" (Participant 2)

These findings are also consistent with other studies that have also shown that self-assessment improves awareness skills in learners (Chalkia, 2012; Duque & Cuesta, 2015; Phan & Phoung, 2017; Reitmeier & Vrchota, 2009).

Additionally, the participants expressed that they had to search for effective strategies to improve their performances, which was also reflected on the scores obtained at the end of the process:

"[…] I searched on the internet how to accurately pronounce the words. It still was difficult for me." (Participant 1)

"[…] Despite I searched, helped and everything, I practiced it a lot and I was confused." (Participant 2)

These comments can be related to autonomy, which is one of the skills that self-assessment enhances in learners (Brown, 2003; Brown & Hudson, 1998; Ekbatani & Pierson, 2000; Harris & McCann, 1994). Moreover, Duque and Cuesta (2015) also revealed that self-assessment is a tool for fostering autonomy skills.

The participants also described to be self-reflective about their self-assessment process in a positive way. They were able to analyze their actions and their effectiveness in their performances:

"The theme of self-analyzing again […] I obtained positive results by analyzing a lot." (Participant 1)

"[…] And I think that, if I have done it a third time, it would have resulted better." (Participant 2).

Additionally, the participants were able to project their achievements for future learning experiences. They expressed that they would use self-assessment in the future, as well as it could be helpful as a tool for their everyday life:

"[…] Sometimes it is not that we do not know how to do it, we can also find the time to improve and do better, that is the idea […]" (Participant 2)

"Yes, it is useful for everything, it is useful even for life." (Participant 1)

These findings support Boud's idea (1995) about the importance of developing self-assessment skills to not only improving learning in academic contexts but also preparing learners for making accurate decisions in other aspects of their lives.

Conclusions

Results revealed that the participants improved their oral presentation scores; therefore, speaking performance after using the self-assessment checklist. The major improvement was in the checklist scores rather than in the rubric scores. Despite this, increment in scores suggests that self-assessment helped them enhance their overall performance in second language oral presentations.

Moreover, findings reported that the participants tended to score lower in their checklists than the scores in the rubrics criteria. However, most of the criteria scores increased after the intervention in the participants' checklists. Additionally, results revealed that the participants experienced a change of negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, frustration) to positive ones (e.g., relief) after the process on intervention. The participants also changed their expectations about their performance from low to high. Besides, they had positive perceptions about their improvement in their presentation as well as the use of the self-assessment checklist and the teacher's validation of their improvement in their presentations.

Finally, the use of self-assessment checklists also revealed that the participants developed skills that helped them improve their performance in their presentations. Similarly, these adult learners developed awareness on their own work that helped them identify their strengths and points of improvement during the process and after the results. In addition, their autonomy abilities were demonstrated by finding effective ways to improve their presentations by themselves. Moreover, self-reflection skills were displayed when the participants were able to review their skills, analyze how effective they were, and project them to future situations.

Overall, this study demonstrates that self-assessment checklists are effective tools to improve oral presentation; therefore, more opportunities for this type of assessment must be provided in all classrooms.

Limitations and Further Studies

This action research was aimed at finding a solution to a particular problem in a particular context with a specific number of participants. Therefore, generalizing the results

of this study is not pertinent in this case. Moreover, there was a limited time to implement the intervention and provide more training on self-assessment to the participants.

Conducting this study with a larger sample could provide further information on the benefits of self-assessment in adult language learning. Besides, replicating this research for a longer period could provide with more insights about improving oral presentations in a second language with self-assessment checklists.

Moreover, further studies need to be carried out regarding the use of self-assessment in oral presentations or other oral tasks, since few studies demonstrate that this could be a useful tool for learners to improve oral performance in the English language.

Self-assessment is a powerful tool that brings many benefits for learners. Findings in this research clearly suggest that this type of assessment helps learners to improve their abilities in language. In this way, some suggestions emerge from the results for EFL/ESL teachers in their practices. The results of this action research revealed that learners developed skills such as autonomy, self-reflection, and awareness which helped them improve their performance in oral presentations. These skills are not only useful for that purpose but also for other areas of knowledge or even for life development. Teachers should consider self-assessment as part of every lesson plan to promote the different abilities that learners could use as a tool for development.

Additionally, the participants in this research expressed that they felt anxious and frustrated before knowing the results of the assessment of their performances in their presentations. After the assessment results, an additional external validation of their self-assessment process caused positive reactions on them. In this case, it is recommended that teachers combine self-assessment with some external feedback. Thus, this could reduce the level of uncertainty or anxiety on learners and foster their confidence on their own work.

Finally, self-assessment provides not only with relevant information about learners' progress, but also about their thoughts and emotions (Yan & Brown, 2016). Teachers should take advantage of this rich information about learners and use it for providing more personalized and useful feedback.

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Appendix 1. Analytic Rubric (English Version)

Criteria	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)	Absent (0)
Content and Organization.	All the required information is included in the presentation: Who was she? What is she known for? When and where was she born? When did she die? How was her life? What were her contributions to the community? Why do I think this woman is important? The information is clear and follows a logical order.	There is one missing point in the information. The information is clear and follows a logical order.	There are two or three missing points in the information. Information is partially clear and has got some issues in logical order.	Four points in the information are missing. Information is difficult to understand and follows a deficient logical order.	Poor information. Five or more points are missing in the information. It cannot be understood and does not follow a logical order.
Fluency	The speaker expresses the information confidently and smoothly. The speaker barely hesitates or makes long pauses during the presentation, and it does not affect the comprehension of the information.	The speaker occasionally hesitates or makes a few long pauses during the presentation, but the information is comprehensible.	The speaker hesitates many times and/or makes some long pauses during the presentation. Information is still comprehensible	The speaker often hesitates and/or makes frequent long pauses during the presentation. Information is difficult to understand because of these breakdowns.	The speaker hesitates and/or makes very long pauses almost all the time. Information is incomprehensible because of these breakdowns.
Pronunciation	Accurate and comprehensible pronunciation of the information.	The speaker occasionally mispronounces words, but these do not affect the comprehension of the information.	The speaker sometimes makes mistakes in pronunciation of some words, making them difficult to understand. However, information still can be understood in its majority.	Information is difficult to understand because of frequent mistakes in pronunciation.	Information is impossible to understand because of mistakes in pronunciation.

Criteria	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)	Absent (0)
Grammar	Correct formation of sentences and use of tenses. Occasional errors do not prevent from understanding.	Most of the information is expressed in well-structured sentences. Occasional grammatical errors rarely interfere with understanding.	There are some mistakes in the structure of the sentences. There are some mistakes in tense usage. Errors occasionally interfere with understanding.	There are frequent errors in sentence structure and tense usage that lead to frequent misunderstanding.	Constant errors in sentence formation and tenses. Information is very difficult to understand.
Vocabulary	Vocabulary is consistently suitable to the topic. Student demonstrates control and understanding of vocabulary used. Minor mistakes in vocabulary do not affect meaning.	Vocabulary is suitable for the topic. Student makes occasional errors that rarely affect meaning.	Vocabulary is generally suitable for the topic. Vocabulary errors sometimes interfere with meaning.	Limited and/or inaccurate use of vocabulary. Errors often interfere with meaning	Inadequate and/ or poor use of vocabulary. Frequent errors lead to misunderstanding.

Appendix 2. Self-Assessment Checklist (English Version)

Please, analyze the video of your oral presentation with this self-assessment checklist.

Read the questions about your presentation in this instrument. Answer them by choosing "yes" or "no".

Then, write comments on specific aspects to improve, according to your perception, by making notes that help you to identify them in order to improve your oral presentation.

Criteria	Questions	Yes	No	What should I improve?
1. Content and organization	Is the content of my presentation complete?			
	Has the content got a logical sequence?			
2. Vocabulary	Are expressions and words accurate to the content of my presentation?			
	Are there any mistakes in the use of expressions/words that prevents from understanding my presentation?			
3. Grammar	Did I correctly use the past simple to express past events?			
	Are there any mistakes in sentence formation preventing me from understanding?			
4. Fluency	When listening to my presentation, Did I express confidently and smoothly?			
	Are there any long pauses preventing me from understanding my presentation?			
5. Pronunciation	When listening to my presentation, are there any expressions or words that I cannot understand?			

Appendix 3. Semi-Structured Interview (English Version).

Dear participant,

The following questions are related to the perception of the use of self-assessment checklists to improve an oral presentation, after being part of the intervention of this research.

Please, answer the questions focusing on the required information. There are no wrong answers. It is important that your answers reflect your point of view on the use of self-assessment checklist as a tool to improve an oral presentation.

The answers to the questions are totally anonymous and confidential and they will be only used for research purposes.

Dimension	Questions
Perceptions about the self-assessment process	1. What self-assessment instances have you experienced before this intervention? 2. Did your opinion about self-assessment change after this intervention? 3. How did you feel during this process? Why?
Perceptions about the use of self-assessment checklists	4. What aspects did you consider of low difficulty in the process? 5. What aspects did you consider most difficult in the process? 6. How did the use of self-assessment checklists help to improve your oral presentation?
Perceptions about obtained results	7. How did your expectations about your oral presentation change after observing and comparing the results of your self-assessment with the teacher's assessment? 8. How did you feel when comparing the results of your self-assessment with the teacher's assessment results? Why?

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What Type of Oral Corrective Feedback do Chilean EFL Young Learners Prefer?

¿Qué Tipo de Retroalimentación Correctiva Oral Prefieren los Niños Estudiantes Chilenos de Inglés?

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Abstract

This article presents the perspectives of a Chilean group of young learners of English as a foreign language with respect to the types of corrective oral feedback when making a spoken mistake and the reasons for their preferences. By means of a qualitative exploratory study, the views of 20 students were collected through a specially adapted scale and a focus group. The data from the scales were analyzed with descriptive statistics while the focus groups were interpreted with the content analysis technique. The results suggest that students appreciate teacher's correction and feedback when done carefully and clearly and considering students' affective domains such as beliefs and motivation. They also show a tendency towards the strategies of recast and repetition. On the other hand, they prefer less the use of metalinguistic feedback and elicitation strategies. In addition, this experience suggests that children are capable of reflecting on their learning processes, so it is urged that children be given

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an active participatory role in the development of methodologies and strategies to capture the voices of the real potential beneficiaries of these.

Keywords: corrective feedback, English learning, primary education, young learners

Resumen

Este artículo presenta las perspectivas de un grupo chileno de niños y niñas estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera con respecto a los tipos de retroalimentación oral correctiva que ellos prefieren cuando se comete un error oral y sus razones. Mediante un estudio exploratorio cualitativo, se recogieron las opiniones de 20 estudiantes por medio de una escala especialmente adaptada y un grupo focal. Los datos de las escalas se analizaron con estadísticas descriptivas, mientras que los grupos focales se interpretaron con la técnica de análisis de contenido. Los resultados sugieren que los estudiantes aprecian la corrección y la retroalimentación del profesor cuando se hacen con cuidado y claridad y tomando en cuenta los ámbitos afectivos de los alumnos, como las creencias y la motivación. También muestran una tendencia hacia las estrategias de *recast* y *repetition*. Por otro lado, prefieren menos el uso del *metalinguistic feedback* y *elicitation*. Además, esta experiencia sugiere que los niños son capaces de reflexionar sobre sus procesos de aprendizaje, por lo que se insta a darles un papel participativo activo en el desarrollo de metodologías y estrategias para captar las voces de los verdaderos beneficiarios potenciales de éstas.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje de inglés, educación primaria, niños, retroalimentación correctiva

Introduction

The widespread application of early teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) may have become one of the most significant developments in educational policy (Jenkins, 2015; Nunan, 2003). Historically, interest in early foreign language (FL) learning dates back to the late 1960s; since then, the development of FL programs for young learners (Yls) has advanced globally, all of which were followed by a subsequent loss of enthusiasm toward an early start due to discouraging results. Currently, we are experiencing a new wave characterized by three trends in the exponential spread of early FL programs. These trends include (1) an emphasis on assessment for accountability and quality assurance, (2) assessment not only of YLs in the first years of schooling, but also of very young learners of pre-school age, and (3) an increase in content-based FL teaching, thus adding to the broad range of early FL programs (Johnstone, 2009).

Within educational policies, Chile surpasses its neighboring countries when comparing the national standard curriculum, learning objectives, students' level of achievement, and teachers' qualifications (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017). Chile leads in Latin America for pre-school students who are registered or who benefit from an English program in their school. Despite this, it seems that the quality of these initiatives is affected by the lack of considerations of the intrinsic characteristics of children as active learners. Initiatives

and projects like the implementation of the English language subject earlier in primary school should gather information first from a cooperative focus by working with children. Following this idea, it is relevant for new studies to begin by getting to know the notions and opinions held by the subjects studied in practical contexts such as a classroom. In addition, strategies and techniques used by teachers in English language classes such as assessment and correction may have different effects than expected if teachers do not fully understand how their assessments influence the performance and motivation of their students. Therefore, the relevance of the study lies in contributing from the perspectives and beliefs of young English language learners and how they perceive and assimilate corrections in an English language classroom context in Chile.

Considering this context, an exploratory study was designed in order to explore a group of Chilean EFL young learners' perspectives about Oral Corrective Feedback strategies during speaking activities in English. These approaches are designed to provide students with correction and encouragement to improve language production. In this study, the framework proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) is considered taking into account six specific strategies. The study also sought to know what children think and feel during the process from the time they make a mistake until they are corrected and how their perspectives should be considered when generating educational methodologies and policies that affect them.

Theoretical Framework

English Language Policy in the Chilean Educational System

The teaching of English as a foreign language in Chile has garnered considerable attention in recent years. This is due in part to the democratization and modernization of knowledge, but also employment, economic, and social opportunities offered by the mastery of this language. Despite the efforts made towards this goal, bilingualism is far from becoming a reality as it has been demonstrated in standardized tests results. The results are even more disastrous when controlling for socioeconomic levels where stratification, and inequality is evident (Glas, 2013; Rodriguez-Garcés, 2015). To mitigate these results, attention has been given in recent years to the incorporation of the subject earlier and an increase in the number of hours in primary school for the benefits of the acquisition of the English language at an early age (MINEDUC, 2012). Also, teachers have been trained on English language teaching (ELT) to young learners, and approaches have shifted from a focus on receptive skills to a communicative and holistic approach including aspects such as the relevance of vocabulary, natural and interactive approach, a vision of language as a tool for communication and access to information, and an integrated perspective of English skills (Barahona, 2016).

Young Learners

Learning a foreign language from an earlier age has proven to be very effective as the learning curve on this matter will proportionally decrease with growth, declining abruptly around the age of 17 (Hartshorne et al., 2018). Besides, it is important to characterize young learners and their characteristics when implementing initiatives to promote their language learning.

Young learners cover the range of 3 to 15 years old, but within this wide range of age, students differ from one another in terms of cognitive, affective, and social characteristics (Nunan, 2011; Shanker, 2008). At this stage, children continue to develop linguistic, cognitive, and social skills (Berk, 2005) and keep on learning about their world from their experiences.

From a language learning perspective, young learners are still developing literacy knowledge and skills in their first language (McKay, 2006). Children construct the meaning from the context. Teaching English to young learners encourages motivation, expands intercultural experiences, and enhances the use of the language in action (Inostroza, 2015). It is also noted that the acquisition of a second language will depend on the amount of exposure received by children as they benefit from the input (Arikan & Taraf, 2010; Moon, 2005; Pinter, 2006).

Cognitively, their attention span tends to be short. They are still developing their prefrontal cortex responsible for connecting pre-existing and new knowledge; therefore, their working memory is very limited, as a result, the amount of stimulus they can pay attention to is directly implicated (Sweller, 2011). Working memory is an important factor in educational attainment as it is used to manipulate information (Alloway et al., 2004). Later they will become capable of organizing, classifying, and focusing on new information for longer intervals (Pinter, 2014).

Affectively, children are influenced by socialization as they begin to internalize the external assessments of others, impacting their beliefs, learning, and mindsets (Dweck, 2017). They are more susceptible to external criticism, they become self-aware of what they might need some special attention. They learn within a sociocultural context and build knowledge by social interaction (Vygotsky, 1962). In addition, where such interaction occurs with a competent adult or peer, the learner will benefit more (Bruner, 1983).

Researching with Young Learners. L2 research in the contexts of young learners is carried out largely from the perspective of adults. Given that the results of education research can affect the lives of young learners by shaping educational policies and practices, we should also explore ways of enabling children's agency in research. Different approaches have been proposed to conceptualize children in research moving from considering children as objects of analysis to more child-centered approaches (Christensen & Prout, 2002).

Modern perspectives consider YLs as autonomous individuals who can develop their understandings and views and can part-take in social and cultural movements as social actors (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008). This vision is reinforced by the Sociology of Childhood construct which defines children as social actors, people, status, procedure, set of needs, rights, and differences who can contribute to the depiction of their daily lives and understanding (James et al., 1998). Children can provide useful and reliable insights that they can be resourceful and knowledgeable, especially concerning their own experiences. Few studies to date acknowledge children as active participants in the field of language teaching despite the fact that young students are able to think about their language learning process (Pinter, 2014).

Assessing Young Learners. Assessing young learners becomes critical to ensure the quality of the teaching/learning process. In addition to designing appropriate and valid assessment methods, consideration must be given to the personal and academic characteristics of students when dealing with an assessment (Alderson & Banerjee, 2002).

As stated by Hasselgreen (2005), when devising an assessment instrument, this should comply with the following criteria: the task needs to be appealing for the learner, there should be a diversity of assessments embodying the perspective of all the agents involved, support should be given to the student, and the activities used in said instrument could also be fit for use as learning activities. Analogously, Butler (2016) emphasizes the pertinence of considering the former-mentioned criteria, paying special attention to developmental factors such as socio-cognitive and communication abilities which may affect the evaluating process, especially when involving peer interaction. Another factor which overlaps with the assessment process is the students' literacy level on their first language and how this may interact with the acquisition of a second or foreign language.

When assessing young learners, this action should be performed with extreme care since most things that involve children are "special" and language assessment is no exception (Hasselgreen, 2005). This is why, Malloy (2015) notes seven essential aspects for assessing young learners such as stress reaction, time and sequence, approval, reason, first language, receptive skills, and attention span.

Assessment for Learning and Feedback

Assessment for learning (AFL) is any assessment for which the first priority in its design and practice is to serve the purpose of collecting evidence to promote students' learning and provide information for all the parties involved to improve practices (Black et al., 2004). The evidence collected is intended to help a student to close the gap between the actual level of performance and the learning goal (Sadler, 2010). The evidence has to serve as material to arise judgments on the quality of students' pieces of work to shape and improve their

competence by short-circuiting the randomness and inefficiency of trial-and-error learning. Teachers should know the students and their learning needs.

Feedback. It is defined in terms of information about how successfully something has been or is being done and is key in formative assessment (Sadler, 2010). It is one of the most powerful influences on learning and achievement. However, the type of feedback and the way it is given can be differentially effective. The teacher plays a key role on modeling and describing a high quality performance and also has to be capable of guiding students through the process of improving. Feedback has a positive impact on affective factors such as motivation, beliefs, self-concept, and self-confidence (Gnepp et al., 2020). Besides, for feedback to be effective, it should be conceived as a tool for future work. It equips students to face future learning activities and assessment. Thus, feedback works as *feedforward* or prospective feedback (Sadler, 2010).

Oral Corrective Feedback. Corrective feedback is a key pillar correcting, supporting, and encouraging students in how they face making mistakes when using a new language to improve their future use of the language. As defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997), oral corrective feedback (OCF) means eliciting positive or negative evidence upon learners' wrong utterances, and that by providing feedback students would feel encouraged to correct their language production. These authors elaborated six corrective strategies which are presented in Table 1 below. According to several studies, the most popular type of error corrective feedback used among teachers is "recast" (Sheen, 2006). Recast is also considered by a major number of researchers as an effective corrective strategy for speaking tasks (Han, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Nassaji, 2009; Zabihi, 2013). For this particular study, the participating students were shown this and also an example of the lack of correction in a language learning situation.

Previous studies that have considered exploring the perceptions of both teachers (Hernandez & Reyes, 2012) and communicative English language learners (Gutierrez et al., 2021) have concluded positively on these strategies and their influence on the improvement of oral skills.

Method

Type of Study

The study here presented is qualitative in nature as it seeks an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon (Mason, 2002). It is designed as an exploratory research (Given, 2008) as it seeks to examine the perspective of 20 Chilean EFL young learners on oral corrective feedback in the English language class.

Table 1. *OCF strategies*

OCF Strategy	Definition	Example
1. Recast	Teachers reformulate all or part of students' responses.	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: I am 12 years old. S: I am 12 years old.
2. Explicit correction	Teachers provide the correct form.	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: Oh! You should say I am. I am 12 years old. S: Ok. I am 12 years old.
3. Elicitation	Teacher elicits answers through the completion, question or request for formulation technique.	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: Have? T: Do we use have to express our age in English? T: Can you correct that? S: We don't use have. It's: I am 12 years old.
4. Metalinguistic feedback	Teacher offers grammar information without providing the correct form.	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: Do we say have? T: What verb do we use when we want to express our age in English? S: We use the verb to be. It's: I am 12 years old.
5. Clarification request	Teacher indicates he/she could not understand so then asks for clarification.	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: pardon me? S: I'm sorry. It's: I am 12 years old.
6. Repetition	Teacher repeats utterances with a change of intonation.	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: I have? S: No. Am. I am 12 years old.

Source: Adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997)

Research Problem. Education, being both dialogic and human, is very complex. Part of this complexity is that teachers must use strategies to maximize the learning opportunities of their students. However, a large part of these strategies derives from the ideology of adult teachers to be applied to young students. We, as language teachers, seldom have the opportunity to ask our students what strategies they would rather address with their cognitive and affective dimensions. So then the concern arises to know the perceptions that a group of Chilean young learners of English has towards oral correction at the time of making a mistake and analyzing their opinions.

Research Objectives. The objectives are (1) to explore the preferences of a small group of young Chilean EFL learners about different strategies of giving oral corrective feedback and (2) to explore the perceptions of this group about being corrected and OCF strategies.

Participants

The sample is purposive and classified as discretionary sampling (Palys, 2008). Participants were selected for meeting certain criteria appropriate for the study:

- *Age*: They were in 6th grade in primary school so their age was around 11-12 years old. According to the theory they fall into the category of young learners.
- *Experience with the English language*: Participants have had English since second grade with at least two hours per week so they have had at least four years of formal English language classes.
- *Access to parents*: Parents and guardians of students in this group were readily accessible as they were part of the educational community of one of the researchers. Everyone submitted their written consent.
- *Group willingness*: The students in this group were very enthusiastic about participating in this experience. All gave verbal consent.

Research Procedure

To implement the study, two sessions of 60 minutes each were planned. Sessions are described below:

Session 1. The teacher gathers the 20 students in a room. Once they are seated and with a pencil, they are each given a copy of the scale to assess their preference for OCF (Appendix 1). The instructions are explained to them. They are told that they will watch seven short videos in total where there is a teacher and a student in an individual class. In each video a student will make a mistake and the teacher in each video will use a different strategy to deal with the mistake. After each video, the students will have to evaluate how much they prefer

each strategy by marking one of the four options provided by the scale. It is emphasized that they should mark only one face per video.

The OCF strategies selected were proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). The content of each video is detailed below.

Table 2. *Video contents.*

Video	OCF Strategy	Description
1	No strategy	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old T: Ok
2	Recast	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: I am 12 years old. S: I am 12 years old.
3	Explicit correction	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: Oh! You should say *I am.* I am 12 years old. S: Ok. I am 12 years old.
4	Elicitation	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: Have? T: Do we use have to express our age in English? T: Can you correct that? S: We don't use have. It's: I am 12 years old.
5	Metalinguistic feedback	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: Do we say *have*? T: What verb do we use when we want to express our age in English? S: We use the verb to be. It's: I am 12 years old.
6	Clarification request	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: pardon me? S: I'm sorry. It's: I am 12 years old.
7	Repetition	T: How old are you? S: I have 12 years old. T: I have? S: No. Am. I am 12 years old.

Session 2. The teacher brings together 10 students who participated in the video session to carry out the focus group. The idea was to ask them questions about their preferences about being evaluated, corrected, and the strategies they prefer and their reasons. They were constantly informed of their right to stop participating in the study at any time, ensuring that their identities would remain confidential and anonymous. The questions were conducted in Spanish, their first language.

Data Collection Instrument

Scale of Students' Perceptions towards OCF (Appendix A). To collect data from the viewing of the videos, a scale was created following a simplification of the Likert scale of Flórez et al. (2012). Recommendations for adapting a scale for children (Mellor & Moore, 2014) were also followed, such as the use of faces to represent the categories that best represent their perception of OCF strategies. The categories are: Strongly Agree, Agree, Strongly Disagree, and Disagree.

Focus Group (Appendix B). This instrument is used to create a safe environment to collect data in participatory research, especially when involving young people (Bagnoli & Clark, 2010) and to avoid some of the power imbalances between researchers and participants, e.g., between adults and children (Shaw et al., 2011). It is a planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a non-threatening environment (Krueger & Casey, 2009). This instrument allows participants to tell their own stories, express their opinions without having to adhere to a strict sequence of questions (Adler et al., 2019). Additionally, they are frequently used in researching with children (Pinter & Zandian, 2014). The focus group for this research was conducted in Spanish considering the students' language competence.

Data Analysis Technique. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to summarize findings from the scale (Dörnyei, 2007). Figures are used to describe and interpret the data. Thematic analysis was used to analyze the data collected from the focus group (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Findings

Specific Objective 1

Scale of Students' Perceptions towards OCF Results. The results obtained from the scale are illustrated in Figure 1.

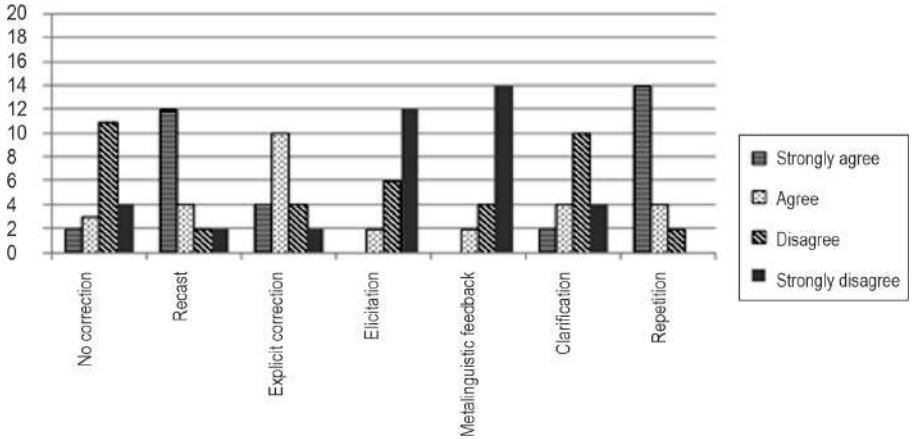

Figure 1. Total results from the scale

The data obtained from the scale clearly show that young learners prefer recast and repetition as OCF strategies for the teacher to correct their mistakes. On the other hand, they strongly disagree with strategies such metalinguistic feedback and elicitation.

Scale Results in the Category Strongly Agree. The results from the scale in the category Strongly Agree are presented in Figure 2.

The figure shows that in the Strongly Agree category, the students clearly prefer repetition with 41% of the preferences and recast with 35%.

Scale Results in the Category Strongly Disagree. The results from the scale in the category Strongly Disagree are presented in Figure 3.

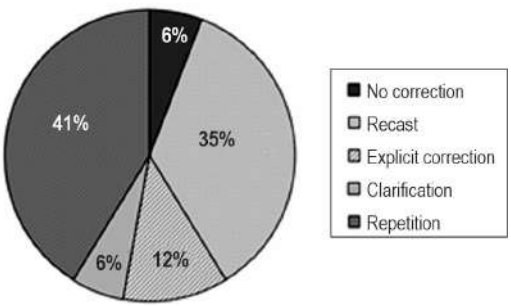

Figure 2. Results in the Strongly Agree category

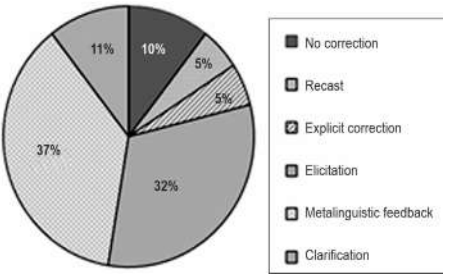

Figure 3. Results in the Strongly Disagree category

The figure shows that in the Strongly Disagree category the students clearly disagree with the strategies with metalinguistic feedback with 37% and elicitation with 32%.

Specific Objective 2[3]

The data from the focus group suggest five clear dimensions: (1) affective consequences of mistakes, (2) value of teacher's corrective feedback, (3) correction considerations, (4) preferred OCF strategies, and (5) Not preferred OCF strategies. The excerpts presented in this article were translated by the researchers for the purposes of the report with the consideration to keep the information as faithful as possible to the original data.

Affective Consequences of Mistakes. When asked how they feel when they make a mistake, the students state that they are emotionally affected when they make a mistake.

R: How do you feel when you make a mistake when speaking in English? S1: I feel nervous. R: Why do you feel nervous? S1: Because I don't know how to correct it
S2: I feel confused. R: Why do you feel confused? S2: Because I think I'm saying things right but they are not.
S6: I feel embarrassed. R: Why do you feel embarrassed? S6: Because I think it's not good to make mistakes because people think you are dumb
S8: I feel demotivated R: Why do you feel like that? S8: Because if you try hard and make a mistake then you think you are going to make a mistake again in the future

Value of Teacher's Corrective Feedback. When asked if they like to be corrected by the teacher, the students agree. The children think it is an effective way to improve and not make mistakes in the future.

[3] Focus group answers were translated from Spanish for publication purposes.

R: Do you like the teacher to correct you when you make a mistake? Why?
S10: Yes
S1: Sure!
S7: Yes, it's fine

R: Why do you like it?
S10: Because I want to know more.
S1: Because I want to improve and the teacher knows a lot
S7: Because I want to avoid making mistakes in the future
S3: Because that's the teacher's role

Correction Considerations. When asked how they prefer to be corrected, the students expressed several ideas. In general, they seek not to be humiliated in front of their peers or to be reprimanded. In addition, they prefer the correction to be clear and to get them out of their confusion quickly.

R: When you make a mistake speaking in English, how do you prefer to be corrected?
S4: I don't like to be laughed at.
S10: I don't like to be reprimanded.
S3: I don't like it when the teacher laughs at me.
S9: I don't like to feel ashamed because I made a mistake, I would like to be supported.
S1: I don't like to feel ignorant in front of my peers.
S10: I would like help to improve.
S3: Yes. That help should be clear to get out of the confusion.

Preferred OCF Strategies. When asked which of the strategies they saw in the videos they prefer to be corrected, there is a clear tendency towards recast and repetition.

R: Which of the correction strategies do you like the most? Why?
S4: That video when the teacher gives the correct answer for the student to repeat it in a good way.
S6: Yes, that one.
R: Why do you prefer that?
S5: Because you know what you have to do to correct yourself.
S10: Yes. I pay attention because if the teacher says something different from how I said it, it may be because I made a mistake and I have to say it again imitating him.
S9: Yes. I like that one too because sometimes the teacher asks more questions and I get more confused and at the end I forget where I went wrong because I get overwhelmed.
R: What other strategy do you prefer?
S5: That one when the teacher repeats a part and gives a hint and you understand that you must correct it.
S10: Yes. I notice that one because the teacher uses a questioning tone as if to say "are you sure?"
S3: Yes, I prefer that one too.
S4: I like that one because I have to think about how to fix my mistake.

Unwanted or Undesirable OCF Strategies. When asked which of the strategies they do not prefer, there is a clear tendency towards metalinguistic feedback and elicitation because these strategies tend to confuse them more.

R: Which of the correction strategies don't you like?
S9: That one when the teacher asks questions like about the verb, the adjective and stuff like that. I start to get more confused because I have to remember a lot more things and I get nervous.
S8: I don't like that one either because I have a hard time with English and sometimes those questions make it even harder.
S3: I also don't like that one when there are more questions after making a mistake because sometimes the questions are also difficult to answer.
S4: Yes, I prefer the ones we said before when the mistake is clearly explained and it is easier to correct it. I am also confused by many questions.

Conclusion

Despite the existence of a previous study in Chile by Aranguiz and Quintanilla (2016), it focused on the use of OCF strategies by teachers. Their findings show a clear contrast between Chilean teachers and learners' preferences on the use of strategies. Our study sought to determine the preference Chilean young learners had when receiving feedback and, specifically, OCF strategies when making an oral mistake in English language lessons.

The results of the present study revealed that young learners like to be corrected when the correction is made with clarity and care. They acknowledge that teachers are there to guide them, and also have a strong orientation towards the recast and repetition strategies, which contradicts Aranguiz and Quintanilla (2016) findings by opposing the learners with the teachers' point of view. These strategies are preferred because they make children aware of their mistakes and the consecutive actions to correct them. Young learners have more developed receptive skills so they are able to understand the correction provided by the teacher and solve the problems themselves which is one of the goals of feedback (Malloy, 2015; Rushton, 2005; Sadler, 2010).

On the other hand, students showed a clear rejection towards metalinguistic feedback and elicitation as they make them feel overwhelmed by the excessive amount of follow-up questions after the mistake is made, resulting in raised anxiety levels. These findings agree with the aspects to consider when creating an assessment, presented by Malloy (2015). From a cognitive perspective, children are still developing their prefrontal cortex and have a limited working memory, thus explaining the reason why metalinguistic feedback and elicitation are rejected by students for containing too much information, which increases the extraneous load making it more difficult for young learners to connect current with prior information (Sweller, 2011).

Children state explicitly that their affective dimensions are affected somehow by the correction and feedback process; therefore, this study should serve for orientation purposes

when implementing corrective feedback on oral assessments, as students are critical and thinking beings who have much to contribute to this task in the classroom and on the research field. It is highly relevant that factors such as self-confidence, beliefs, and anxiety are considered before implementing corrective strategies as they impact young learners' beliefs about the subject, the teacher, and the learning itself. The beliefs we have about something predispose us to generate strategies to cope with or avoid certain activities (Dweck, 2006). English language learners in general have limiting beliefs about learning a foreign language and especially about speaking in a foreign language. It is relevant to work on these beliefs that students bring to classrooms as they can limit the motivation, attention, curiosity, memory, and strategies that students use to learn (Gopnik, 2012; Gruber & Gelman, 2014).

Additionally, to fully characterize and distinguish young learners from adult learners, we, language teachers, must consider several relevant aspects. First, at the same time that the learning process is taking place, students are undergoing a process of social, emotional, cognitive, and physical growth, all of which can affect their motivation and concentration span. Second, as they are in this process of learning, students are still developing literacy knowledge and skills. Lastly, young learners are more susceptible to external criticism; at this age, they become self-aware and are deeply affected by others' beliefs about them (McKay, 2006).

Besides, this study demonstrates that young learners can provide research with important insights into their learning processes. These insights can substantially inform teaching and public policies oriented toward them. Children are capable of thinking about the language processes, so it is relevant that innovations and public reforms should consider their views (Pinter, 2014). Young learners are social actors who can contribute and develop new understandings and views on different discussions (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008).

It is safe to say that much is yet to be done to fill the gap of information regarding the perception of students on the type of feedback they receive; therefore, further studies should continue focusing on children's perspectives rather than on adults or teachers. Furthermore, it is suggested doing research regarding the negative consequences that the misuse of corrective feedback strategies could bring to students and if these sustain over time without considering their affective, cognitive, and social development.

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Appendix A: Scale on the students' perceptions towards OCF

Situations	 **strongly agree**	 **agree**	 **disagree**	 **strongly disagree**
Vídeo 1: El profesor no dice nada sobre el error del estudiante.				
Video 2: El profesor reformula el error del estudiante de manera correcta				
Video 3: El profesor señala que hay un error y cómo debe decirse				
Video 4: El profesor pregunta al estudiante para ayudarlo a pensar sobre su error.				
Video 5: El profesor comenta, informa o pregunta sobre las reglas gramaticales, sin dar la forma correcta.				
Video 6: El profesor indica que no ha podido entender el enunciado y utiliza "*pardon me?*"				
Video 7: El profesor repite el enunciado incorrecto del alumno, con una entonación para resaltar el error.				

Appendix B: Focus group script

Dimension 1: About correction and feedback

1. How do you feel when you make a mistake when speaking in English?
2. Do you like the teacher to correct you when you make a mistake? Why?
3. When you make a mistake speaking in English, how do you prefer to be corrected?

Dimension 2: About OCF strategies

1. Which of the correction strategies from the teacher in the video do you like the most? Why?
2. Which of the teacher's correction strategies don't you like? Why?

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Pre-Service Teachers' Narratives: Why Did I Decide to Become an English Language Teacher?

Narrativas de Maestros de Inglés en Formación: ¿Por qué Decidí Convertirme en Maestro de Inglés?

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Abstract

Choosing a major is one of the most important decisions in one's life. Understanding the aspects that intervene in this decision contribute to a better understanding of main motivational forces of English as a Foreign Language pre-service teachers. This qualitative descriptive study examined the personal, professional, and social motivations and experiences of 40 English as a Foreign Language pre-service teachers in the Mexican context that affected their decision to become English language teachers. Using an open written narrative (Language Learning History) instrument, participants wrote stories that showed the main reasons for choosing English teaching as a major. The results showed that personal and professional aspects including biographical experiences, a perceived ability to learn and teach English as well as teacher preparation program experiences are the most influential in this decision along with altruistic and intrinsic motives.

Keywords: EFL pre-service teachers, English teaching, qualitative research, motivations, narratives

Resumen

Escoger una carrera universitaria es una de las decisiones más importante en la vida de una persona. El comprender los aspectos que intervienen en esta decisión contribuye a un mejor entendimiento de las motivaciones de los maestros de inglés en formación. Este estudio cualitativo-descriptivo exa-

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minó las motivaciones y experiencias personales, profesionales y sociales de maestros en formación de inglés como lengua extranjera en México que afectaron su decisión de ser maestros de inglés. Los participantes escribieron sus historias utilizando como instrumento una narrativa escrita abierta (Historia de Aprendizaje de Lengua) en donde describieron las principales razones por las cuáles decidieron estudiar la carrera de Enseñanza del Inglés. Los resultados mostraron que los aspectos personales y profesionales incluyendo las experiencias biográficas, la percepción de tener una habilidad para aprender y enseñar inglés, así como las experiencias en su programa de preparación docente fueron las más significativas en conjunto con motivos altruistas e intrínsecos.

Palabras clave: maestros de inglés en formación, enseñanza del inglés, investigación cualitativa, motivación, narrativas

Introduction

When looking at the construction of teachers' professional identity, it should be understood as a process that integrates "personal knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, norms, and values on the one hand, and professional demands from teacher education institutes and schools on the other hand" (Pillen et al., 2013, p. 660). In this sense, teacher identity construction must be studied by integrating personal, contextual, and professional factors. Teacher identity is a complex and multifaceted construct that involves a constant change in teacher professional practice and makes sense by relating their profession to the outside world (Yuan & Lee, 2014). In sum, teachers' professional identity cannot be understood as a single construct, but as a concept that interrelates with multiple dimensions such as the personal, social, emotional, cognitive, and professional. Therefore, teachers' professional identity is understood as a developmental process of interpretation between the personal and professional selves that integrates personal, professional, and social factors that determine who they are as teachers, who they want to be, and how they understand the profession itself.

The process of learning to teach is in constant progress and does not begin in the teacher preparation program, but rather with the person's desire to enter the teaching profession (Zaree-ee & Ghasedi, 2014). One of the main focuses on pre-service teachers' professional identity development has been the motivation to choose teaching as a profession. Motivation is defined as the "combination of effort and desire a person has to learn a second language" (Gardner, 1985, as cited in Delgado-González & Herrera- Rivas, 2021, p. 98). In other words, motivation is the force that makes a person obtain something they desire to achieve; in this case; the desire to become English teachers. Though motivational aspects of choosing a major are intrinsically related to pre-service teachers' development of their professional identity, the main purpose of this study is to investigate, through a qualitative descriptive approach, the personal, professional, and social aspects and experiences that motivated

40 Mexican English as a Foreign Language (EFL) pre-service teachers to choose English teaching as a major.

The main research questions that guided this qualitative study are:

1. Why did Mexican EFL pre-service teachers decide to study English teaching as a major?
2. What personal, social, and professional aspects motivated Mexican EFL pre-service teachers' decision?
3. What experiences contributed to the decision of Mexican EFL pre-service teachers to study English teaching as a major?

Literature Review

Teacher Motivation

Denise Misfud (2018) explored the attractiveness of the teaching profession within the Scottish education system. The "attractiveness" of the teaching profession is "a set of characteristics of this profession that make it relatively attractive to *skilled* candidates to other professions requiring the same level of qualification and that encourage *competent* teachers to stay in the profession" (European Commission, as cited in Misfud, 2018, p. 43). In most recent literature, choosing teaching as a career fits into three main categories: intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic motives (Başöz, 2021; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2017; Lestari & Arfiandhani, 2019; Misfud, 2018). Intrinsic motives are related to inherent aspects of teaching (love, passion, and desire/interest to teach). Extrinsic motives are concerned with external factors not related to the profession itself (social recognition, income, and free days/holidays). Finally, altruistic motives encompass the general aim of the teaching as providing a greater benefit to the community and society helping people improve and grow.

These types of motives align with the research conducted by Kavanoz and Yüksel (2017) which aimed to explore, through a narrative study, the motivations and concerns of English pre-service teachers in the second, third, and fourth years of their English Language Teaching (ELT) program. A change in pre-service teachers' motivations and concerns was observed. While second and third-year students were driven more by extrinsic and altruistic reasons and had more tasks and non-teaching concerns, fourth-year students showed intrinsic and altruistic reasons and their non-teaching concerns increased. This pattern suggest that as pre-service teachers advance in the program, their initial motivations and beliefs about the profession evolve as they learn new skills, knowledge, and competencies.

Furthermore, Arfiandhani and Lestari (2019) state that teacher motivation "focuses on three areas: (1) issues regarding career choice that teacher chose, (2) complexities during the teacher process, and (3) factors influencing the relations of teachers and students" (p. 307). During their study with Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers, they found out that both altruistic and intrinsic motives had higher impact on their decision to become English teacher compared to extrinsic motives and male and female participants shared similar motives. Similarly, in Başöz's (2021) research in Turkey, reasons for choosing teaching as future careers were studied and correlated to academic achievement. Using the FIT-Choice Scale survey, the author found that most participants were highly motivated to choose English teaching as a profession, and that intrinsic and altruistic motives influence their decisions.

In Mexico, there have been few studies that focus on Mexican English-language teachers' professional identity, which explore in general terms, some motivational factors that may influence pre-service teachers such as contextual, personal, and professional factors. These include the interest in the language, perceived ability to teach, family and teachers' influence as well as professional development activities during the program (Delgado-González & Herrera- Rivas, 2021; Kimberley, 2010; Moore, et al., 2020; Mora et al., 2014, 2016; Navarrete-Cazales, 2016; Trejo Guzmán & Mora Vázquez, 2014). However, very little is still known about the main motives that make Mexican pre-service teachers pursue an English teaching career.

Motivational Aspects to Become an English Language Teacher

Fajardo Castañeda (2014) explored, through a qualitative approach based on multi-information data collection techniques (interviews, stimulated recall, and on-line blogs), how Colombian pre-service teachers in the final stage of their program constructed their professional identity. The study considered pre-service teachers' active participation in a teacher community and its relationship with their systems of knowledge and beliefs. Findings revealed that choosing the teaching profession was socially driven and this decision was affected by family, past and present teachers, and economic factors. Additionally, their participation in a teacher community made pre-service teachers reflect on the incongruent relationships between their own beliefs and real classroom practice.

In addition to personal, professional, and social factors, authors such as Hennessy and Lynch (2016) and Misfud (2018) have recognized the importance of motivator factors. "Career choice motivation of pre-service teachers is one of the most salient factors that gain them entry to the profession" (Misfud, 2018, p. 45), and motivations are "inexorably linked to professional satisfaction and a sense of fulfillment" (Hennessy & Lynch, 2016, p. 2). Posing the question "why did you choose to pursue the teaching profession?" Misfud (2018) identified the motivation factors that intervened in the selection of the teaching career, while

Hennessy and Lynch (2016) applied the FIT-Choice scale. These studies highlighted the significant influence of factors such as prior teaching and learning experiences and pre-service teachers' perceived abilities and personalities for the profession, among other social, personal, and intrinsic values.

Finally, according to Mofrad (2016), other important factors that intervene in professional identity development and decisions to become English language teachers include schooling, training, working experience, environment, as well as students' biographical backgrounds and stories, teacher role models, and family members, among others (Lamote & Engels, 2010).

In sum, these previous studies state that pre-service teachers' motives to become teachers are affected by personal, social, and professional factors (See Table 1).

Table 1. Motivation Aspects

Personal (Intrinsic / Altruistic)	Social (Extrinsic)	Professional (Intrinsic/ Altruistic
Life history Biographical backgrounds Career choice (Motivation) Personality Perceived self-efficacy	Family Teachers (Role models) Friends Environment Social and Political Contexts Economy	Teacher training Schooling experiences Teaching practice Participation in communities of practice Relationship student-mentor Professional competencies

Information taken from Fajardo Castañeda (2014), Hennessy & Lynch (2016), Lamote & Engles (2010), Misfud (2018), and Mofrad (2016).

Overall, these studies (Fajardo, 2014; Hennessey & Lynch, 2016; Misfud, 2018) contribute to understanding the complex nature of career decision making, a multifactorial construct that needs to be studied from different angles and perspectives. These factors need to be considered during pre-service teacher education so that teacher preparation programs focus on the *attractiveness* of the profession by addressing some of the deficiencies pre-service teachers may experience throughout the program. By recognizing the factors that affect their professional identity, teacher educators might support pre-service teachers and identify the deepest reasons or motivators that influenced their decisions to become English teachers.

Methodology

This study used a qualitative descriptive research design (Kim et al., 2016; Lambert & Lambert, 2012; Nassaji, 2015), which aims "to describe a phenomenon and its

characteristics" (Nassaji, 2015, p. 129) and focuses more on what happened rather than on the ways and reasons that provoked the phenomenon. Qualitative descriptive research was an appropriate research design for this study because (a) data were gathered in naturalistic ways, (b) participants were selected purposefully, (c) content analysis was performed by using documents (stories), and (d) codes were generated from data to describe significant events (Lambert & Lambert, 2012).

Participants

The context of this study was two EFL teacher preparation programs (public and private) in Nuevo León, Mexico. For this study, two higher education institutions, one public (site 1) and other private (site 2), were purposefully selected as the researcher had access to both research sites. A total of 40 EFL pre-service teachers from both research sites enrolled during the semester January-June 2020 completed the instrument. Overall, the sample consisted of female (75%), male (22.5%), and one non-binary (2.5%) EFL pre-service teachers whose ages ranged from 18 to 33. In addition, all stages of the teacher preparation program, initial (27.5%), middle (55%), and final (17.5%), were represented by at least one participant from each institution.

Data Collection Instrument

This study utilized a Language Learning History (LLHs) open narrative (Barkhuizen et al., 2014) entitled *Why did I decide to become an English teacher?* to collect data (Appendix A). LLHs provided an overview of the participants' stories regarding the motives, reasons, influences, and expectations that made them pursue English teaching as a profession. Therefore, these narratives set the background for an initial insight into pre-service teachers' professional identity construction, which was further developed in a different phase of the complete study. In sum, the first instrument consisted of an open narrative (LLHs) that included the main question (*Why did I decide to become an English teacher)* with six prompt statements to guide EFL pre-service teachers' stories. To facilitate the task, the EFL pre-service teachers received a link with the electronic version of the instrument designed on Microsoft Forms. The participants took approximately 20-30 minutes to complete the instrument.

Data Analysis

In descriptive qualitative research, data analysis often involves "inductive exploration of the data to identify recurring themes, patterns, or concepts and then describing and interpreting those categories" (Nassaji, 2015, p. 130). This type of analysis was useful for organizing data into relevant themes that were pertinent to answer the study's research

question. Moreover, through thematic analysis, the researcher was able to group different codes into a single theme that characterized the main units of analysis.

The name of the themes (see Table 2) emerged from the review of the literature and of the research questions presented in this study. The processes of thematic analysis, coding, and categorizing were performed holistically; therefore, a separate analysis by research sites was not performed. Additionally, a qualitative software for text analysis (MAXQDA10) was to code and categorize the data found in the participants' narratives. The participants' retrieved segments are shown as originally written. No corrections of grammar, spelling, or language structure were made to respect the participants' background as foreign language learners.

Table 2. Category and Themes

Category: Aspects Influencing Professional Identity		
Themes	**Segments Retrieved**	**%**
Theme 1: Personal	92	57
Theme 2: Social	48	30
Theme 3: Professional	22	13
Total	162	100

Findings

Personal Aspects

The open narrative explored the participants' reasons for and motivations to become EFL teachers and how these personal accounts contributed to this decision. A total of 92 segments (57%) were recovered from the participants' answers in this category.

There are different moments and experiences in someone's life that make that someone decides what major they want to study, and these vary from person to person. The participants' answers in this category were broadly categorized into two main moments: Elementary and Jr. high school (6-14 years old) and high school (15-17 years old). The data indicated that while some EFL pre-service teachers had dreamed of becoming English language teachers early in life (*n=16),* others made this decision later on before starting their university program or changing from one program to another (*n=21).*

In high school, students are encouraged to think about their future career and what they want to become; therefore, the participants reported to have paid more attention to their surroundings to identify what career to choose according to their likes, abilities, and vocation. For instance, Royal (FFYL, May 2020) recalled that he met amazing language teachers in high school that inspired him to become one of them. *"The first time I consider to be an English teacher was in high school, in that time I met some of the most incredible languages teachers."* Anne (FFYL, May 2020) also expressed her vocation*: "I can't recall the exact moment but, by the end of second semester I was already in the EFL teacher mindset; the reason might be egotistical or non-special, but I wanted to be a guide for learning as the previous teachers were for me."*

Data from the study suggested that the main motivators of EFL pre-service teachers for choosing English teaching as a major included more altruistic reasons (individuals' interest to contribute to the society) and intrinsic (individuals' interest in and a desire to teach) rather than extrinsic (individuals' interest in external benefits such as salary or holidays). These findings are consistent with previous studies (Başöz, 2021; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2017; Lestari & Arfiandhani, 2019; Misfud, 2018). An important number of participants' motivations (*n=14)* were oriented toward altruistic motives. For instance, Gsoos (IMNRC, May 2020) said*, "The reason why I decided to become an English teacher was because I really like helping people and seeing their achievements and improvement."*

In addition, other important motivators mentioned in the narrative of the participants included prior biographical and life experiences and the self-perceptions that individuals had about their teaching and learning abilities (Başöz, 2021; Hennesey & Lynch, 2016). Prior biographical and life experiences represented 22% of the segments recovered; a perceived ability to teach and learn English represented 40% of the data in this category. In most cases, the decision was not taken by one individual reason but by a combination of motives. An example of this situation was expressed by Paulina (IMNRC, July 2020):

> *I have always loved English. Since I first started learning it in kindergarten, I was not very good at math, so I have always said that I didn't want my career to have math in it. So I applied to study medicine, but I was missing 100 points to enter, so I decided to wait a semester. Meanwhile I entered to the career to become a dentist. I didn't like the career, so I decided to drop out and look for another career.*

Lastly, it was found that 40% of the segments revealed that the participants were motivated to become English language teachers because they believed to have the right personality, or they perceived themselves as capable of performing the profession. One of the most important characteristics was that they believed they were good at English or at languages as well as having the ability to teach and explain the language to others. For instance, Hannah (FFYL, May 2020) mentioned, "*I felt motivated to study this career because I have always liked this language, so I learned most of it by myself and because I liked to explain it to my friends*

and classmates when they did not understand something." Other participants recognized themselves as having personal qualities that would help them to become better teachers.

Social Aspects

Social aspects are defined in this study as the external factors that affect EFL pre-service teachers' professional identity and their decisions to become English language teachers. The main aspects found in the data collected include schooling experiences, family, teachers, and economic influences. A total of 48 segments (30%) were recovered from the participants' answers in this category.

Few participants (*n=3)* mentioned that their experiences at school influenced their decision because they had positive experiences at school (school-life), they enjoyed going to school, doing homework or assignments, or they were enrolled in bilingual programs that allowed them to learn the language. Having positive experiences as students and having the opportunity to be in contact with the English language seemed to be a motivator for choosing English teaching as a profession but these situations were not determinant.

Regarding the influence of family, 10 participants mentioned that family members influenced their decision. An example of this was found in Paulina's (IMNRC, July 2020) interview. *"My mother also made me realized that I was good with languages ahh, also with English, and with kids so these are like the main influences I had to make my decision."* Another reason was that there was a family member who was also a teacher, or a group of family members belonged to a family of teachers. In other studies, family or parents influence appears to be an extrinsic factor; however, it is not determinant as others for taking this decision (Lestari & Arfiandhani, 2019).

However, the major social motivator in EFL pre-service teachers' decision to become an English language teacher was teachers' influence. From the data recovered in this category, 29 out of the 40 participants contributed to 70% of the segments that corresponded to how previous teachers, both English and non-English language teachers, positively impacted the participants' lives and eventually inspired them to become English language teachers (Arfiandhani & Lestari, 2019; Hennesey & Lynch, 2016). For instance, Marissa (IMNRC, May 2020) said: *"There were actually just two teachers that really inspired me during my school career and not necessary on the subject of English, they were really good teachers that I wanted to be like them and make an impact on the life on my students."*

Teachers' personalities, attitudes, and passion for doing their job also became important intrinsic motivators in pre-service teachers' decisions (Başöz, 2021; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2017). It was observed how meaningful experiences and positive interactions with previous teachers were the most influential social factor in making someone choose an English teaching career.

On the contrary, economic factors did not seem to appear to be relevant to this decision (Başöz, 2021; Arfiandhani & Lestari, 2019; Hennesey & Lynch, 2016) as only one segment was recovered from the data.

Professional Aspects

The theme of professional aspects included the motivations of EFL pre-service teachers to choose an English teaching career once they were in the university, most of the time studying a different major or being at the initial stages of their teacher preparation program. The main professional aspects refer to the motivations of EFL to change their previous major to English teaching and to continue in the major after having some second thoughts during the first year of teaching preparation. A total of 22 segments (13%) were found in this theme description.

Biographical experiences helped EFL pre-service teachers to create an image of who teachers are and what they do. This becomes an important factor that motivates them to choose a profession. These experiences affected the professional decisions of pre-service teachers and made them wonder if they were in the right major or really wanted to be English language teachers. Results indicated that about one-third of the segments retrieved showed that the participants experienced second thoughts in their decision to become English language teachers before and during different moments of teacher preparation.

A number of participants (*n=9)* acknowledged that they had selected or studied a different major before entering the English teaching program. Then, English teaching is considered as a fallback career. Though this is not among the most influential factors, it is something present in other studies (Başöz, 2021; Hennesey & Lynch, 2016). Some of the majors mentioned in the study were Psychology, Medicine, Visual Arts, Paramedic, Odontology, Translation, and Arts & Literature. In these cases, the participants mentioned that while studying theses majors, they realized that the major did not fulfill their likes, interests, expectations, and abilities so they found in English teaching a major that could fill their needs. Paulina (IMNRC, July 2020) remarked:

> *I wanted first to become a pediatrician and I applied to the major of Medicine but I was missing a hundred points, so I decided to enter to be a dentist, and I didn't like it. So... I was wondering, if I didn't like blood or being with other people like saliva, I wouldn't love to be a doctor. So, I started thinking what I was good at, and I have always liked English.*

Findings from the data analysis suggested that EFL pre-service teachers experienced crises at different moments during teacher preparation (Aslup, 2006; Hong et al., 2017; Warner, 2016). One of the most common moments when EFL pre-service teachers experience these crises is during the first two years of their teacher preparation program because during this period their initial expectations are confronted with the realities of the

profession. Moreover, during the first two years, pre-service teachers must reconcile their doubts and fears to select English teaching as a major. For instance, Anne (FFYL, May 2020) describes how while being enrolled in her career, she experienced something that made her change her mind about her first choice.

> *Being honest, I can't recall the exact moment in which I decided to become an English teacher; but I do recall the reason and it felt like a destined match. I was already enrolled in the university. At the time, I wanted to be a translator, and I decided to take the English course to catch up to the level required in English-only classes -which I considered to be high at the time. The first level of the course gave me a faint idea of the things that someone as an EFL teacher could do and, I think, it rooted in me the interest for the area.*

As shown in the previous extracts, the participants who experienced second thoughts about their profession could manage to solve their crisis period and continue in the program. In sum, the professional aspects that intertwined in a change of thought included both biographical and teacher preparation program experiences.

Discussions and Implications for Further Research

According to the data presented from the EFL pre-service teachers' narratives, the main motivators of Mexican EFL pre-service teachers to choose English teaching as a profession were personal, social, and professional, which continued evolving during the teacher preparation program. Each of these aspects is related to each of the different types of motivations (intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic) shown in previous studies (as in Arfiandhani & Lestari, 2019; Başöz, 2021; Lestari & Arfiandhani, 2019; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2017; Hennessy & Lynch, 2016; Misfud, 2018). These demonstrated that deciding to pursue English teaching as a major is more related to altruistic and intrinsic motivations rather than extrinsic.

The results of this study are consistent with other investigations (Hong et al., 2017; Kavanoz, Yüksel, & Varol, 2017; Warner, 2016; Werbińska, 2015; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2015) that pointed out that pre-service teachers enter the program with false beliefs about themselves and the profession which may lead to encounter tensions during their teacher preparation program. However, unlike previous studies, the most relevant personal aspect in this research included the EFL pre-service teachers' perceived ability to learn and teach English. Additionally, the influence of previous English language teachers who served as role models to EFL pre-service teachers proved to be the most important social aspect in their decisions to become English language teachers; this aspect is followed by the family influence. For the professional aspects, data indicated that a number of participants (*n=9)* experienced second thoughts about entering or continuing in the profession due to a feeling of insecurity about their skills, a lack of personality, or the negative sides of the professions. However, in most cases, these tensions or crises (Aslup, 2006; Hong et al., 2017; Warner, 2016) were reconciled.

Finally, the EFL pre-service teachers described a combination of biographical and teacher preparation experiences that influenced their professional decision to become English language teachers at different points in their lives and university career. As Fajardo Castañeda (2014) and Leserth (2013) mentioned, these experiences were important influences in the development of individuals' professional identity, affecting their decisions and helping them create initial ideas about the profession.

Through a qualitative descriptive approach, this research aimed to investigate the personal, social, and professional motivational aspects that influence the decisions of 40 Mexican EFL pre-service teachers to choose English as a major. Understanding EFL pre-service teachers' motivators to choose their profession is one of the most fundamental elements to comprehend the beginning of their professional identity construction. Motivation to purse an English teaching career is influenced by personal, social, and professional aspects which are aligned to intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic reasons. As a teacher educator myself, I am fully convinced that identifying the motivators and the biographical and learning experiences that make EFL pre-service teachers choose English teaching as a major brings important implications to teacher education. In my professional practice as a teacher educator, I have recently witnessed that there are fewer students interested in pursuing the English teaching major, and some of them quit during the teacher preparation or the first years of teaching.

Consequently, it becomes imperative to work on reflective practices during teacher preparation so that EFL pre-service teachers posit themselves as English language teachers by discussing and sharing their accounts and experiences during their teacher education programs. Spaces for reflection can help pre-service teachers reflect on the affective domains that encompass the profession. Pre-service teachers can clearly identify their motivations for teaching, their feelings, moods, and emotions during learning to teach, and teaching experiences with the school community members. Perhaps these reflective practices during teacher preparation may increase EFL teacher retention in the educational field and teacher professional development practices. Other implications of recognizing EFL pre-service teachers' motivations to study English teaching include:

- Teacher educators can do improvements in the curricula so that motivations are reinforced during the program.
- School administrators will be able to develop strategies to prevent pre-service teachers from dropping out the program.
- Program designers can update curricula to focus on affective factors and their relationship with the English teaching profession
- Pre-service teachers will be able to reflect on their own decisions and make wiser decisions regarding their professional development and practice.

For future research, it is suggested to do a profound analysis on EFL pre-service teachers' motivations. Additionally, doing this type of research in other settings and contexts would contribute to the state of knowledge around this field in Mexico, as few studies revolve on this research topic. Finally, studying the relationship between motivations and the development of pre-service teachers' professional identity development will provide insight into new areas in the field.

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Appendix A: Instrument

LLH: Why Did I Decide to Become an English Teacher

Instrument I. LLHs open narrative

Section I. Demographic Information

Circle gender: **M F** Age: _____ Semester: _____ Circle shift: **Morning Night**

E-mail: _____ Circle type of institution: **Public Private**

Please, write a fictional name that can be used to refer to your narratives: _____

_____

Instrument 1. LLHs open narrative: Why did I decide to become an English teacher?

Fictional

Name: _____ **Date:**_____

Section II. Instructions: In the following space, write your personal story about why you decided to become an English teacher. Please, describe your story as detailed as possible.

You may include information about:

- The first time you thought about becoming an English teacher
- People that inspired you to become an English teacher and explain how they inspired you
- The main motivations you had to study this profession
- The reasons for choosing this profession
- Your expectations for this career and your future goals as a professional.
- Your own definition of what it means to be an English teacher

Why did I decide to become an English teacher?

_____

_____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

If necessary, use additional sheets.

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Profiling Academic Research on Language Teacher Identities

Perfil de la Investigación Académica sobre las Identidades de los Profesores de Idiomas

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Abstract

Within the field of TESOL, language teacher identity (LTI) has been the focus of a myriad of studies in the previous two decades. Researchers need to trace back in order to move forward, it is an essential step towards a comprehensive understanding of what has been done in LTI research. This review article provides an overall literature review on conceptual approaches of how identity is defined and perceived in the context of recent history. It is then followed by an analysis of dominant trends on recent studies of Language Teacher Identity to profile what, why, when, and who constitute seminal works in LTI research by tracing scholarly literature from 1975 to the present. A dataset retrieved and analyzed from Scopus was further correlated using Vantage Point software. The findings not only revealed the conceptual approaches, dominant trends, and methodological development in LTI research, but also identified the underexplored areas in transnational teacher identities, teacher educator identities, and online teacher identities, which provided implications for future LTI research directions.

Keywords: Language teacher identity, research profiling, literature review, TESOL, professional identity development

Resumen

Dentro del campo de la enseñanza del inglés como segunda lengua (TESOL, por sus siglas en inglés), la identidad de maestros y maestras de lenguas (LTI, por su abreviatura en inglés) ha sido un

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objeto de investigación en las últimas dos décadas. Los investigadores necesitamos retroceder para poder avanzar, es un paso esencial hacia una comprensión integral de lo que se ha hecho en la investigación sobre LTI. Este artículo de revisión teórica proporciona un estudio general de la literatura sobre los enfoques conceptuales de cómo se define y percibe la identidad en el contexto de la historia reciente. Luego, sigue un análisis de las tendencias dominantes en los estudios recientes sobre la identidad de los profesores de idiomas para perfilar qué, por qué, cuándo y quién constituyen los trabajos fundamentales en la investigación de LTI mediante la revisión de la literatura académica desde 1975 hasta el presente. Un conjunto de datos recuperado y analizado de Scopus se correlacionó aún más utilizando el software Vantage Point. Los hallazgos no solo revelaron los enfoques conceptuales, las tendencias dominantes y el desarrollo metodológico en la investigación de LTI, sino que también identificaron las áreas poco exploradas en las identidades de docentes transnacionales, las identidades de formadores de docentes y las identidades de docentes en línea, lo que proporcionó implicaciones para futuras direcciones de investigación de identidad de maestros y maestras de lenguas.

Palabras clave: Identidad del docente de idiomas, perfil de la investigación, revisión de la literatura, TESOL, desarrollo de la identidad profesional

Introduction

Professional identity is essentially about how individuals enact roles in different settings (Richards, 2008; Farrell, 2017). By this definition, the concept of language teacher professional identity can vary from culture to culture as teaching is context-specific and sensitive. Hence, there has never existed benchmark standards to clearly define or measure teacher professional identity (Varghese et al., 2005). Hsiao (2018) argues that "there are no comprehensive pictures of language teacher professional identity since there is no identity description in bilingual or second language education" (p. 64). Perhaps because of its enigmatic, puzzling, and mystifying quality, language teacher identity (LTI) has become a central topic in interdisciplinary research areas such as psychology, sociology, and education in the last five years (Toompalu, Leijen & Kullasepp, 2017). Furthermore, it has gained prominence in TESOL in recent two decades (Tseng, 2017). This review aims to provide an overview on LTI research development as well as trace out the tendencies and prominent features to identify gaps in LTI research by answering the following set of questions:

- What has been researched regarding LTI?
- Who has conducted studies on such topic?
- When and where have those studies been conducted and published?
- What are the underexplored areas of LTI research?

Researching Language Teacher Identity Historically

Researchers need to trace back in order to move forward, it is an essential step towards a comprehensive understanding of perspectives in identity studies. The following section provides an overview on the conceptual development of how identity is defined and perceived in the context of recent history in the field of TESOL, evolving from essentialism, structuralism, post-structuralism to discourse analysis as a field for finding identities in recent decades.

The Essentialist View on Identity

Block's (2007) work on identity highlights important shifts of identity research dating back to the last three decades involving several disciplines such as linguistics, anthropology, among others. In his view, biological approaches to understanding identity first emerged aiming at understanding individuals from their biological determinant factors such as genetics and physical characteristics. In this view of things, biological characteristics would be accountable for human behavior. Based on this approach, claims that individuals were highly determined by their genetic predisposition and physical capabilities were commonplace. Nevertheless, social aspects would often emerge in this approach, consequently, creating a hybrid concept in the study of identity referred to as 'essentialism'. It operates under questionable assumptions such as practical delimitation of human groups and that those groups have identical standards universally (Bucholtz, 2003, as cited in Block, 2007). Common degrees or analysis at this level are related with "race, ethnicity, nationality, migration, gender, social class and language" (Block, 2007, p. 14).

Structuralist & Poststructuralist Perspectives on LTI

Consequently, a shift from researching identity was observed moving from essentialism into structuralism and post-structuralism. Common degrees or analysis at this level are related with "race, ethnicity, nationality, migration, gender, social class and language" (*Bucholtz* 2003, as *cited in Block, 2007*). Structuralist perspective on identity emphasizes on the boundaries and constraints set by the determining social structure. In other words, structures limit and influence the individual agency of those participating in interactions because human actions and practices are constrained by structures of society and culture (Ortner, 2006). In this regard, teaching can be seen as structured practices and teaching performance is regulated by principles and bound by materials and class conditions. Teacher identity is impinged by social systems, educational customs, and cultural tradition. Block (2009) explained that "social constraints are at work at every juncture in their activity" (p. 223), individuals are all guided by socialized structures and representations deeply rooted within individuals, beyond comprehension. Even until today, English language teacher identity is still being

judged and evaluated by macro features of society such as race and ethnicity, which draws upon structural influences on identity. This phenomenon of dominant racial ideology and racialization of English language teaching was reflected and unveiled in recent studies in the TESOL field (Gomez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018; Khan, 2018: Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013; Trent, 2015).

Poststructuralists explore identity regarding dynamic change, hybridity, fragmentation, and multiplicity (Dolby, 2000; Hall & Du Gay, 1996; Woodward, 1997). In this view, identity involves 'becoming' rather than 'being'. Identities are formed and transformed; it is an ongoing process. Poststructuralism received criticism for lacking a proper definition by its same tenets promised to explain the multilevel complexities of human life itself.

Discourse Approach and Complexities of LTI

In view of the complexities of the world, discourses are introduced in identity research as those areas of encounter between values, beliefs, lifestyles which complement one another and dictate certain expected modes in which language use and behavior are shaped among other complexities. In the light of this approach, discourse interactions are seen as a source of identity constructions. Scholars ascribed to identity as a discourse-based concepts date back to the late 1980s and it remains as the steady stream of discoursal output on LTI until present (see Danielewicz, 2001; Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Varghese et al., 2005).

As a matter of fact, tendencies over the last three decades have evolved into more complex aspects of identity. As seen in Table 1 below, the latest studies in this construct have originated into analyzing individuals within their social networks and the positions they hold. Norton's (1995) work first attempted to encourage scholars to include all symbolic representations into the study of identity. That attempt has replicated in various studies now resorting to more complex units of analysis within social networks. Hadi Tabussen (2006) observed that even though several studies have adopted multileveled varieties on analysis, there are still studies resorting back to poststructuralist approaches.

Table 1 exemplifies several of the shifts adopted by the study of this construct historically as per Block's (2007, 2009, 2015) work on identity research.

By scrutinizing the historical development of identity research, it can be seen that as of the beginning of the year 2000, identity research has proliferated and taken many different directions. In fact, the nutshell of identity research in the mid-1990s began to analyze discourse as a field for finding identities. Despite some opposition, especially as posited by biological determinism, discourse analysis inclusion from the 1990s led to the inclusion of social variables in the next decade to the extent that those variables were considered in terms of time, and even positioning, leading to the notion that identity tends to be pluralized

Table 1. *Trends in identity research as explained by Block (2007; 2009; 2015)*

Timeframe in History	Authors & Seminal work	Tendencies
(1960s -1970s)	Emile Durkheim (1964). The division of labor in society. Claude Levi-Strauss (1972). Structural Anthropology.	Biological determinism structuralism
(1990s)	Anthony Giddens (1991). Modernity and self-identity: Self and society in the late modern age. Bonny Norton (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. Paul Du Gay (1996). Consumption and identity at work. Luk Van Langenhove and Rom Harré (1999). Positioning theory.	Structuralism and the need for including context and discourse.
(2000s)	Simon Baron-Cohen (2003). The essential difference: The truth about the male and female brain. Samina HadiTabussen (2006). Language, space and power: A critical look at bilingual education. Bonny Norton (2000). Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change. Celeste Kinginger (2004). Alice doesn't live here anymore: Foreign language learning and identity reconstruction. Tim Murphey, Jin Chen, and Li-Chi Chen (2005). Learners' constructions of identities and imagined communities. Ingrid Piller and Kimie Takahashi (2006). A passion for English: Desire and the language market. Tope Omoniyi and Goodith White (2008). The sociolinguistics of identity.	Discourse using poststructuralism. Identity conceived as a dynamic, changing and socially dependable construct.

Note. Table created by the author based on Block's review on identity research.

depending on the social positioning of each individual. Within this positioning, complex constructs such as power, context, and even time were part of evolution brought about by research itself.

Profiling Language Teacher Identity Research

This section briefly summaries the foci of dominant trends on recent studies surrounding LTI by synthesizing and analyzing multiple recent studies via Scopus. It in turn identifies the gaps for future research in the field.

The profiling dataset was configured from registers taken from Scopus, 290 retrieved documents were found using the key words "Language teacher" and "identity", 285 of them were in English and five in Spanish language, classified under the categories of Social Sciences and Arts & Humanities areas. Those research documents consist of 275 articles, 28 book chapters, and 13 books published between the time span of 1975 - 2019. Figure 1 below correlates the number of registers in the area with their corresponding publication years. It also shows that there has been a surge of literature on teacher identity since the beginning of the 21st century; it peaked at 40 publications in 2018, the most prolific year so far.

Figure 2 below demonstrates the top 10 countries by numbers of publications on language teacher identity. The United States topped the chart as the country where most of

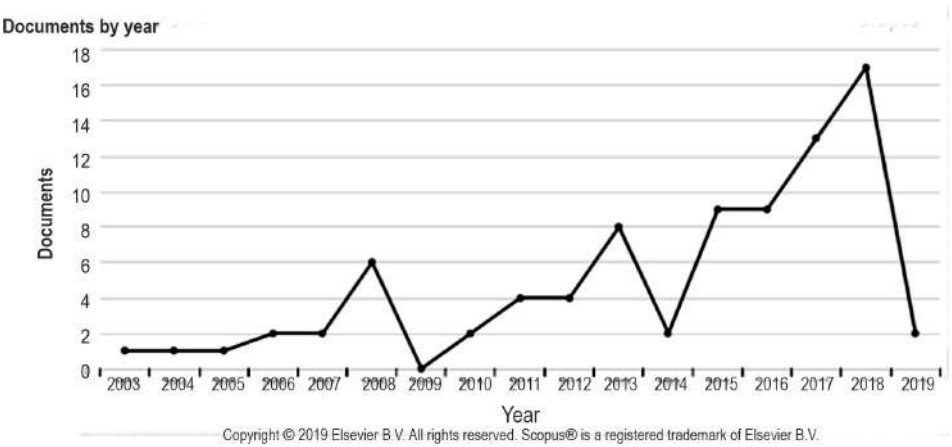

Figure 1. Publication years

Note. Retrieved from Scopus. Copyright 2019 by Elsevier

the LTI studies were published. It is noteworthy to mention that Hong Kong ranked third place. While two more Asian countries (China and Indonesia) are also in the top 10; which indicates there is a strong interest and development in these countries on teacher identity research. Further research can look into the correlation among scholarly work produced in these regions in Asia. In addition, it is worth noting that there is a marked surge of scholarly work on language teacher identity in Latin America. However, these scholars prefer using the word 'subjectivity' instead of 'identity' to explain perspectives related to consciousness, agency, reality, and power (Méndez et al., 2019), address how EFL teachers are constituted as subjects and how they experience themselves in the local TESOL contexts. Therefore, their research work might not appear under the keyword 'language teacher identity' on the database.

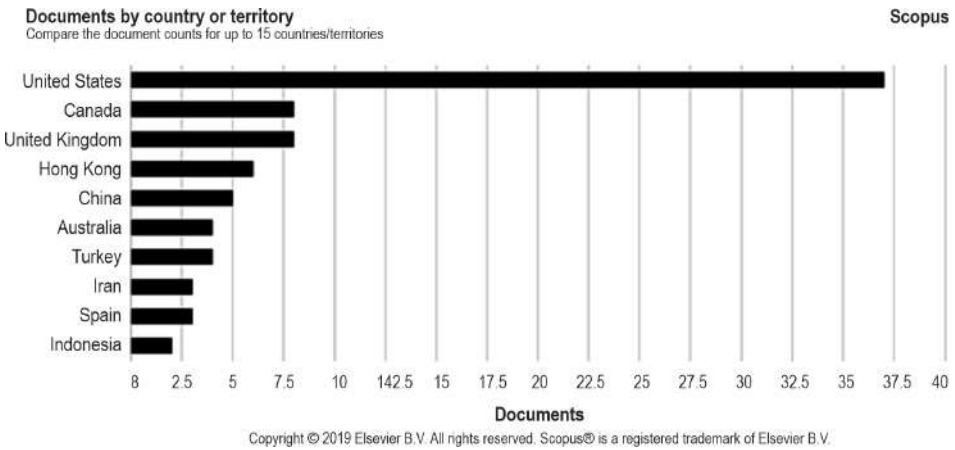

Figure 2. Countries of publication

Note. Retrieved from Scopus. Copyright 2019 by Elsevier

Furthermore, Figures 3 and 4 reveal the ten most published authors in the LTI area in the study period and their institutional affiliation. The data show John Trent as the most prolific author with 19 documents published in this field, he and other two main authors Xuesong Gao and Rui Yuan are all affiliated with universities in Hong Kong. It can be drawn from Figures 3 and 4 that LTI is a common research interest shared by educators and scholars in TESOL Hong Kong.

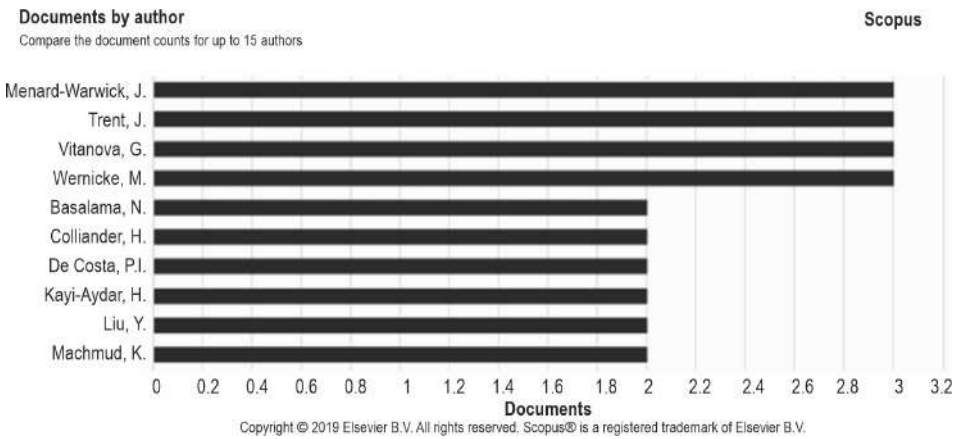

Figure 3. Main authors of publication

Note. Retrieved from Scopus. Copyright 2019 by Elsevier

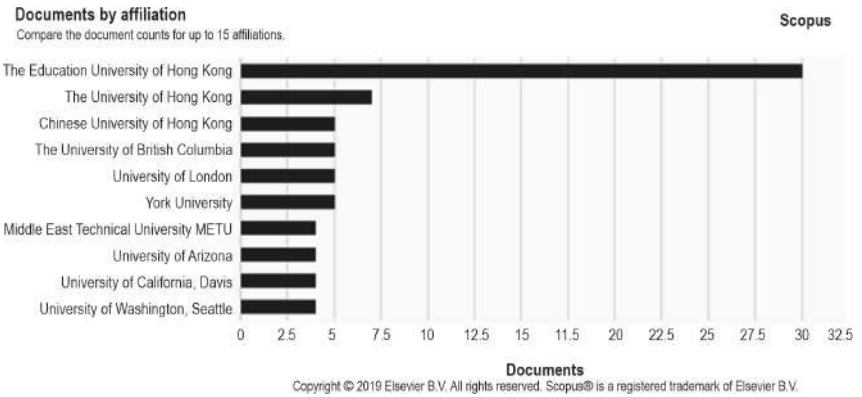

Figure 4. Affiliation of authors

Note. Retrieved from Scopus. Copyright 2019 by Elsevier

Tendencies and Dominant Trends in LTI Research

The previous section of Researching Teacher Identity Historically provided a brief overview on the development of LTI research approaches evolving from essentialism, structuralism, and poststructuralism to discourse analysis as a field for finding identities in recent decades. In the following sections of this article, I will characterize the tendencies

and commonalities by highlighting significant scholarly work in second and foreign language teacher identity research generated from the dataset analysis in the following subcategories as shown in the following Table 2.

Table 2. *Main profiling findings on LTI research trends*

Profiling Academic Research on LTI in TESOL	What is being sought when researching LTI?	NEST & NNEST dichotomy
		Emerging professional identity of pre-service teachers
		Professional identity of teacher educators.
		Transnational teacher identities in the era of globalization
		Teacher Identities and online-mediated communication.
	When and where has LTI research been conducted?	Between 2016 - 2018 more prolific years in the USA, Canada, the UK and Hong Kong
	Who has researched EFL/ESL teacher identity? (Figure 3 -Scopus Document Counts 1975-2019)	Trent, J. Mienard- Warwick, T. Morgan, B. Yuan, R.
	What are the underexplored areas of LTI research?	Teacher Educator Identity Transnational Teacher Identity Online teacher identity

NEST & NNEST Dichotomy

Non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) Language teacher identity has been a subject of research interest in LTI for the last quarter of the century. After Phillipson's (1992) pioneering work, extensive studies and articles have been written and published by NNEST scholars (Canagarajah,1999; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Mahboob, 2010; Medgyes, 1992; Moussu & Llurda, 2008), who are fighting back on their subaltern position and inferior image (Kumaravadivelu, 2016) imposed by linguistic imperialism and colonial hegemonic power structure (Phillipson, 1992). Braine's (1999) work on nonnative educators in TESOL has encouraged a number of scholars to pursue further research on this issue. During the first two decades of the 21st century, five anthologies (Braine, 1999; Kamhi -Stein, 2004; Llurda,

2006; Mahboob, 2010; Huang, Huang, & Zhang, 2017) highlighting NNESTs' biographical narratives on their professional identity perceptions, challenges, and contributions to English learning and teaching were published. The latest one by Huang et al. (2017) compared and contrasted the perceptions and practices of native and non-native English-speaking teachers in China, the biggest TESOL market in present day.

Furthermore, the turn of the 20th century has seen the outpouring identity discourse focusing primarily on NESTs and NNESTs dichotomy (Menard-Warwick, 2008). Kumaravadivelu (2016) contends that the critical discourse on the native - nonnative EFL teacher dichotomy still remains mainstream in the field of TESOL and claims that decolonial 'result driven' approach is the only option to move forward the subaltern position of the NNESTs' community. It is worth mentioning that the recent surge in local research on LTI in Latin America focuses on postcolonial theories and seek to raise awareness about issues of struggle and power inequality in relation to local teachers' strong resistance to "whiteness" and "nativespeakerness" in the Global South (Castañeda-Peña, 2018; Gómez-Vásquez & Guerrero Nieto, 2018; González, 2009; Mendez et al., 2019; López-Gopar 2016; Rivera, 2018). Their work claims for the recognition of locally produced knowledge and practice; oppose the superiority of native speakerism and the imposition of language teaching ideologies and assessment policies.

Last but not the least, World Englishes (Jenkins, 2003) and English as a Lingua Franca (Seidlhofer, 2004) approaches of English language learning and teaching celebrate the plurality of the world varieties of English that focus on intelligibility rather than accent, were gaining recognition and empowering the diverse communities of English users in the TESOL arena in the last two decades.

Emerging Professional Identity of Pre-Service Teachers

Studies examining pre-service teacher's identity have moved in many directions in exploring the cognitive, social, and emotional processes of their identity construction. The bulk of these studies have been conducted over the last two decades in various educational contexts and different subject matter. Results from several of these studies (Kumaravadivelu 2012; Phan, 2007; Trent, 2010) suggest that important factors related to national /cultural identity have been found to play an important role in the construction of teacher identity. They reveal that pre-service teachers' identities may not be as dynamic and constantly changing as perceived, since fixed ethnic, gender, and geographical categories are consistently present and confirmed

Moreover, recent studies (Mugford, Sughrua, & Lopez Gopar, 2015; Trent, 2011; Tseng, 2017) have shown that pre-service teachers experienced conflicts between their desired identities and identities available to them at practicum stage, where they struggled to reconcile

the trajectories of their past, present, and future teacher identities in transition from student teachers to formal teachers in the process of moving from legitimate peripheral participation to the center (Hsiao, 2018). Common findings revealed the needs for pre-service teachers to expand their rigid view constructed under their native educational system, develop multiple identities to empower their teacher identity formation through relevant social and educational practices as well as from their service teaching experiences both in their native countries and abroad. Finally, Sutherland and Markauskaite (2012) claims that reflection processes play an important role in pre-service teachers' transition from students to teachers as they create their own professional identity through interpreting and reinterpreting their experiences.

Teacher Educator Identity

Lunenburg (2015) states that systematic research on the development of a professional identity of teacher educators is still scarce due to the diverse background, working circumstances, and the broad scope of tasks and responsibilities of teacher educators. In Swennen, Jones, and Volman's study (2010), it is revealed that the four sub-identities available for teacher educators emergent from research literature are: schoolteacher, teacher in High Education, teacher of teachers, and researcher. They further point out the common belief and understanding on the identity transformation process from teachers to become teachers in Higher Education, and then researchers of teaching and teacher education.

The results of a recent extensive review study (Lunenberg, Dengerink, & Korthagen, 2014) affirms that teacher of teachers, researcher, coach, curriculum developer, assessor, and broker are the fundamental six roles that teacher educators must fulfil. And how teacher educators handle the complexity and deal with tensions and dilemmas among the multiple roles has been a central topic for recent studies. Through systematic research, Berry (2007) identifies the dilemmatic tensions that teacher educators experience in six areas: 'telling and growth', 'confidence and uncertainty', 'action and intent', 'safety and challenge', 'valuing and reconstructing', and 'planning and being responsive for future research on teacher educator identity. Whitehead (1993) encourages teacher educators to develop their own living educational theory to better support each other in a constructive way when grappling with tension and issues, and setting a role model for student teachers.

The identity of teacher educators is a construction of multifaced aspects such as the interplay of external influences and internal sense-making in various national and institutional contexts. Hence, the feeling of belonging and affinity as a professional is not evident. Dinkelman (2011) emphasized on the importance for teacher educators to claim a sense of professional self by recognizing their agency, and working with colleagues and students to foster inquiry spaces in teacher education practice to explore what it means to be a teacher educator.

Transnational Teacher Identity

English has achieved the status of an International Language and that of a Lingua Franca, which has resulted in an increasing demand for TESOL professionals worldwide. In the past two decades, internationalization, the global mobility, contact with diverse populations and digital flows not only have increased more dimensions and complexity in the emergence of transnational migration of teachers, but also aroused a strong interest among the extended terrain of LTI theory framework as well as offered a new fertile ground for the research on transnational communities and identities in social culturally oriented linguistic reflection (De Fina, 2013; Manik *et al.* 2006; Phan, 2008).

Yeoh et al. (2003) note that transnationality challenges the fixed national and regional view on identity, and the bifocal categorization of identity as the local and global by breaking the boundaries and linking spaces, which in turn has given new meanings and expanded the existing narratives on place-based identity. As a result, sociocultural linguists have been involved in reshaping their theories and sharpen their tools of analysis to account for identity negotiation shaped and reshaped by the changing educational contexts and ideologies driven by forces and localization, globalization, and internationalization. (De Fina, 2013, Phan, 2008). These authors further point out that the interrelationship and interdependence of mobility, transnationality, diversity, and hybridity play a significant role as essential conceptual tools in understanding different processes of identity reconstruction and development of language teachers within the current social realities in this mobile world.

Teacher Identities and Online-Mediated Communication

As e-learning transcends geographical and communication boundaries and make the world a global village, it also creases the social and cultural complexity to the roles required for language teachers (Kitade, 2014). The recent COVID pandemic crisis has highlighted the importance and opportunity of online teaching and learning; it also brought forward challenges on our current education system, pedagogical approach, and the teaching profession. Apropos of LTI, Aboud (2000) argues that e-learning has provided opportunities for language teachers' professional identity development. However, on the other hand, it has made a considerable impact by shifting teachers' traditional role from a lecturer to a facilitator in students' learning process.

In a qualitative study, Richardson and Alsup (2015) examined how seven first time online college instructors created their online teacher identity. Their findings concluded that to shift from traditional face-to-face to online teaching setting, teachers need to re-think their behaviors and teaching roles by deconstructing their conventional beliefs and assumptions about effective learning and teaching in order to rebuild their identity as online instructors. They also provided implications on the necessity of cultivating online teacher identities not

only to provide effective and innovative teaching experiences, but also to strengthen the retention. Baxter's (2012) study analyzed the resistance discourse of teachers who teach online, which identified several challenging factors such as interacting with the students, providing feedback, planning the lessons, and managing time that have had negative impact on the formation of the participants' online teaching identities. Her findings also revealed the ways the teacher participants presented and manipulated their professional identities online. She suggests investigations on expression of resistance discourse of online teachers in order to provide interventions to better understand and support their identity formation as well as development. Thanaraj's (2016) study revealed that a new teachers' identity is built by developing new expertise, knowledge, and skills through constant involvement and examination of their new roles such as facilitator of learning, instructor of discussions, and manager of interaction etc. in online teaching environments. By the same token, Comas-quinn (2011) also argued that online teachers need special skills and personalized trainings. The findings of his study provided implication for training programs to focus less on the use of technologies and emphasize more on supporting teachers to re-conceptualize their new roles in cyber space and help them reconsider their professional identities in an online environment.

Methodological Development on Teacher Identity Research

Georgakopoulou (2007) traced identity research back from recent decades and summarized three big waves of sociolinguistic narrative research. The first wave centered around the stories elicited by sociolinguistic interviewers. These stories normally followed the prevailing model of Labov's classic structural criteria (abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, result, and coda). The second wave began with the shift from stories told during research interviews to those that were told in our day-to day life, with growing awareness of the fact that the narratives that we construct or jointly construct with our family, colleagues, and friends in everyday contexts are very different from narratives emerged from a formal research interview context. In the third wave, narrative inquiry in identity focused on not only the construction but also the co-construction of identities as social practices and performances, which came to the foreground in the beginning of the 21st century. A significant number of TESOL research on language teacher identities from recent decades have employed written accounts of professional experiences with autobiographies, memoirs, life histories as well researcher elicited narratives with in-depth interviews (Casanave & Schecter, 1997; Johnson & Golombeck, 2002; Tsui, 2007). Those studies fall into the big story category and have brought new perspectives on language teaching and learning as well as contributed to collective understandings of the complex processes of language teacher professional identity formation.

However, Vasquez (2011) urges to shift the paradigm of identity research from the big story to the small story approach with a narrative analytic perspective, which will cast some light on how situated social identities of language teachers and learners are negotiated, projected, claimed, or resisted through social interaction. Watsons (2007) affirms that as educators/teachers spend most of time telling quotidian realities rather than interviewed life, the small story approach can reflect more truthful sides of who they are in comparison to coherent and polished accounts of their teaching career emerged from the big story approach.

Richards' (1999) study exemplified the small story approach that analyzed data from teachers' casual chats during work breaks to investigate ESL teachers' narratives as joint storytelling. That study highlighted common shared experiences that strengthened "personal and professional relationships and contributed to the construction of a collaborative culture" (p. 170). Barkhuizen (2011) took the lead with *narrative knowledging* which brings storytelling and research together; and in the meaning-making and experience-shaping process, both the researcher and participants are listening, living, and constructing stories and participating as characters and narrators in narrative research activities.

Discussion and Final Remarks

The first goal of this review profiling article is to provide insights into the approaches, tendencies, and common features on identity research, especially language teacher identity (LTI) from the 70s until present in the field of TESOL. Figure 5 below illustrates the correlation between the 30 most productive authors and 65 relevant keywords used in the 290 registers in language teacher identity retrieved from Scopus database and analyzed with Vantage Point. The findings suggest that there is a number of close relations between the topics such as pre-service teacher, teacher educator, native speaker ideologies & NNEST identities; identity construction and teacher reflection are common interests of LTI teacher identity research among those researchers according to the analysis made so far.

As shown in Figure 6 below, there appears to be limited networking practices between experts in the field of language teacher identity despite the existence of several published anthologies on NNEST identity (as noted in the aforementioned section), which compiled chapters contributed by various educators and authors in the field.

Under Explored Territories in LTI Research

The second goal of this profiling academic research is to identify the literature crack in LTI research, the under-researched and overlooked areas in the field. The profiling results have shown that there is a plethora of studies on pre-service teachers' identity formation

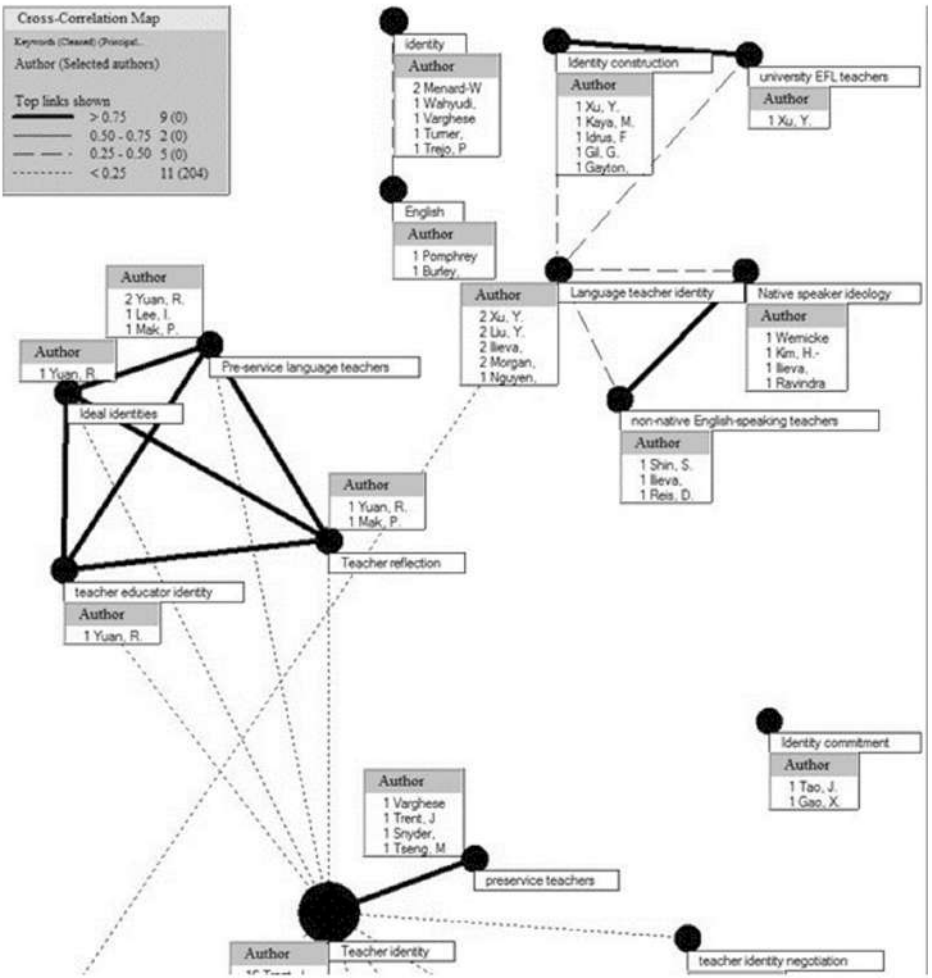

Figure 5. Correlation between authors and keywords in language teacher identity publication

Note. Created by the author utilizing Vantage Point software analysis.

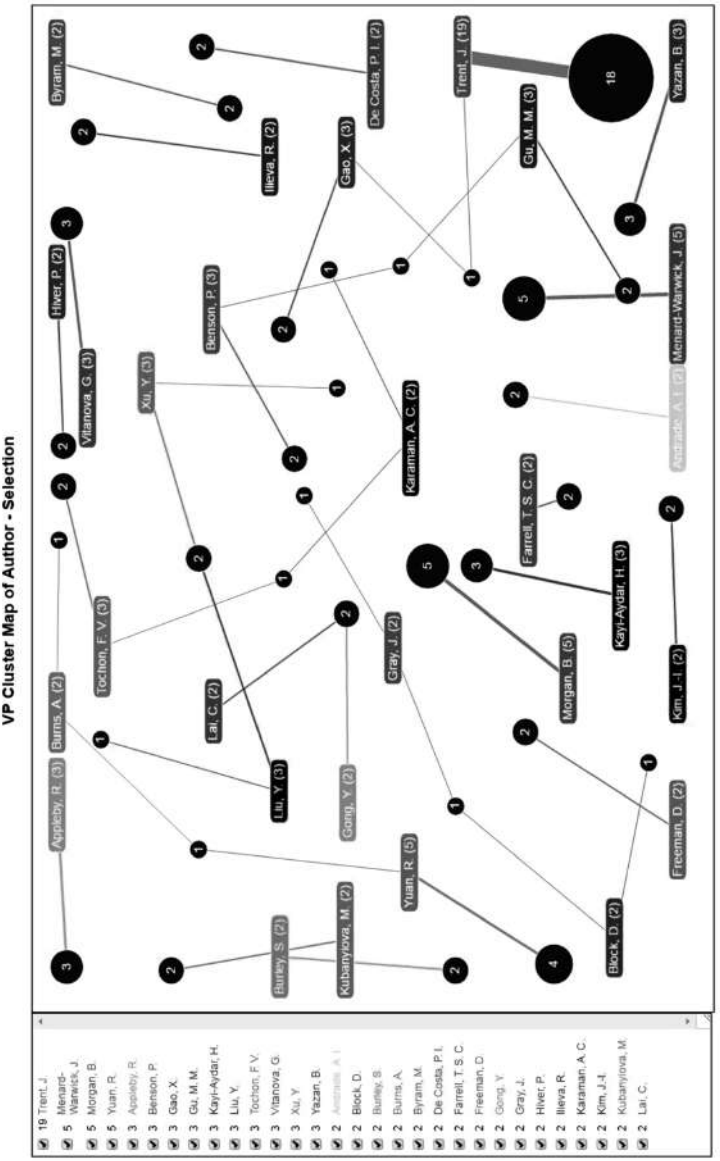

Figure 6. Networking among experts in LTI research

Note. Created by the author utilizing Vantage Point software analysis.

or novice teachers' identity construction. However, studies on in-service teachers' further identity development in TESOL have primarily focused on the dichotomy of NESTs and NNESTs (Menard-Warwick, 2008). I cannot help but wonder if experienced teacher's identity becomes static and standardized after years in the teaching profession. In my view, the development of teacher professional identity is always ongoing and extending with the accumulation of teaching experiences and when different interactants and agents come into play.

Recent LTI research has seen propositions to move beyond the binary categorization of theorizing NES/ NNES teacher identities for more inclusive teacher identity. It can be achieved by exploring translingual dispositions and making sense the sociocultural in-betweenness of translingual and intercultural teachers with the emergent translingual theoretical framework through narratives as future research directions (Ishihara & Menard-Warwick, 2018). Further narrative research needs to be conducted to better understand how translingual practices and intercultural experiences are reflected in language classroom pedagogies and how they help to shape teachers' identities (Lee & Canagarajah, 2019).

Within the field of TESOL, LTI has been the focus of a myriad of studies in the recent two decades. However, transnational language teachers' identity has never been part of it until recently when transnationalism is regarded as a social field under the impulse of neoliberal forces and shaped by the process of globalization (Soong, 2018). De Costa and Norton (2016) also suggest exploring the evolvement of teacher identities driven by globalization and neoliberal impulses for identity research work in the future. In fact, Smith (2009) points out that transnational teaching experience, which leads to transformative professional development and provides prospective improvements on teaching practice in both the transnational zone and back home, is an under-explored territory. Eusafzai's (2015) argument support Smith's statement that there has been a scarcity of studies on the phenomenon of how transnational teachers, who across geographical and socio-cultural borders, localize their pedagogy in a foreign society to teach effectively in the wake of the post method pedagogy that emphasizes localization of pedagogy and celebrates local cultures.

Last but not the least, the current pandemic crisis has challenged the traditional concepts of education and brought online learning onto the spotlight. This in turn has had a huge impact on teachers' roles, methodologies, and identity. Richardson and Alsup (2015) state that since distant learning is becoming increasingly common and the demand of online learning in higher education continues to increase exponentially, a need emerges for more research investigating how teachers develop their online instructor identity through preparation and mentorship at college level as empirical studies in this area are still scarce up to date.

After nearly half of a century of research on identity, LTI is still an enigma, no scholar can set benchmarks or criteria to define or evaluate teacher identity. Barkhuizen (2016)

pioneered an innovative anthology engaging 41 language teaching professionals' self-guided critical reflection from multiple dimensions to interrogate the complexities and conundrums of teacher identity; it also looks into future LTI research directions. All in all, this review profiling article systematizes existing knowledge on LTI by presenting the conceptual and methodological tendencies, I hope it also provides insights on pathways for future LTI studies.

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The purpose of this declaration is to clarify the expected duties and ethical behavior for all the parties involved in the process of submission, evaluation, and selection of manuscripts sent to the *HOW* journal.

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- The Editor is responsible for maintaining the quality of the contents of the journal and, as such, has the final say on whether to accept or reject a manuscript.
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- The Editor guarantees that all authors are treated fairly and their manuscripts evaluated without regard to the authors' race, gender, religious beliefs, sexual orientation, political philosophy, ethnic origin, institutional affiliation, or citizenship.
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Duties Expected of the Author

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field by presenting data that are easily replicated and relevant to interested readers. Falsification and manipulation of data are unethical and unacceptable behaviors.

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- As part of the evaluation process, reviewers treat the information used or produced with confidentiality.
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HOW Journal is a biannual publication by and for teachers of English who wish to share outcomes of educational and research experiences intended to add understanding to English language teaching practices (ELT). Therefore, the journal falls within the field of education and, specifically, the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language (ESL, EFL).

HOW Journal is an academic publication led by ASOCOPI, the Colombian Association of Teachers of English. The journal is indexed in the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Latindex, Redalyc, SciELO Colombia, and Publindex-Minciencias, classified in **category B**.

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Our journal's main objective is to maintain communication among English teachers both in Colombia and abroad by offering opportunities for the dissemination of knowledge resulting from educational and research practices that concern English language teaching issues.

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