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Editorial

Josephine Taylor*

This issue, GiST continues its bi-annual publication schedule. We are also pleased as well with our growing international recognition, and widening network of scholars, researchers, editors and contributors. In this semester's issue, GiST features articles from Asia, Africa and the Americas, from a wide range of countries. It is exciting to share this breadth of experiences and knowledge, to offer insights into the local and particular, and at the same time to take note of the commonalities of our inquiry.

Research shared in this issue ranges from topics featured in previous issues, from linguistic intraference in Nigerian English to the incorporation of media and technology into language learning, and the effects of this on learners' attitudes and performance. We also offer several studies probing teachers and students' constructed and perceived identities as learners, and towards the content studied. The issue also highlights important subjects in language policy and the growth and acceptance (or not) of the dominant role of English in contemporary society.

In this issue's only article from Colombia, **Letty Hazbleidy Contreras Ospitia, Sandra Milena Charry Garzón**, and **Angela Yicely Castro Garcés** describe how multimedia speaking tasks such as podcast and video recordings, as well as oral presentations contribute to building students' speaking skills, and positively affect learners' attitudes towards such tasks and English class in general. Findings strongly indicate that teachers interested in improving students' speaking skills should provide opportunities for challenging, meaningful performance tasks, and that the inclusion of technology and multimedia enhances student motivation.

In a related article from Turkey, **Turgay Han** and **Fırat Keskin** describe how the use of the mobile application WhatsApp for speaking tasks helps lower learners' foreign language speaking anxiety. Many teachers may opt out of using speaking tasks with their students, as so many learners are unwilling or unable to complete them due to their reluctance to take risks, and general anxiety when speaking in English.

Instead of assuming that learners will never speak, teachers should be heartened that such applications may provide students the protection and face-saving context necessary to be more willing to communicate.

In terms of vocabulary recall, **Alireza Karbalaei, Ali Sattari** and **Ziba Nezami** describe how audio-picture annotations improve second language vocabulary recall over simple text-picture annotations. This study from Iran argues the need for aural as well as written input as an aid to vocabulary learning.

This issue, GiST offers several narrative explorations into a range of issues related to teacher identity. In **Elsie L. Olan** and **Paula Belló's** article on the relationship between language, culture and society, they use positioning theory and narrative research to describe teachers' positions of agency, authority and empowerment. In a related article, **María Cristina Sarasa** carries out narrative inquiry to explore pre-service English teachers' imagined identities. This study from Argentina offers four accounts, demonstrating how participants co-author their imagined (future) identities as teachers.

GiST Number 12 also features the work of frequent contributor and recognized expert **Omowumi Bode Steve Ekundayo** on the phonemic realizations of the letter <Ii> and <Yy> in standard Nigerian English, and its implications for the teaching and learning of English as a second language in the country. This study is interesting in a global context as the existence of new varieties of English come to gain increased importance in many countries, and certainly penetrate and influence the teaching of whatever standard of English currently adopted in those countries.

Finally, from the US, **Rachel Kraut**, **Tara Chandler**, and **Kathleen Hertenstein** explore the very compelling construct of teacher self-efficacy, a complex set of elements and conditions that work together to describe and explain teachers' work where other theoretical frameworks fall short. In their study, the authors trace how important issues such as teacher training, access to resources, years of experience and professional development work together in the construction of ESL reading teachers' perceived effectiveness. Taken together, the results of this study underscore the need for ESL teacher training programs and IEP institutes to devote greater effort in preparing faculty to teach ESL reading skills effectively.

Finally, GiST is pleased to share an important critique from Costa Rica by **Cristhian Fallas Escobar**, **Johanna Ennser-Kananen**, and **Martha Bigelow** on the hegemony of monetary and career-based justifications for learning English as a foreign language. In Colombia,

many professionals struggle with this hegemony daily as we confront the restricting discourses limiting students' motivations for learning English to "getting a better job." GiST is keenly interested in seeking out and disseminating recent scholarship on deeper considerations of the benefits of language learning for learners, institutions and society.

Editor

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Speaking Skill Development through the Implementation of Multimedia Projects[1]

El Desarrollo de la Habilidad Oral a través de la Implementación de Proyectos Multimedia

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the way the implementation of podcasts, videos and PowerPoint projects fosters the speaking skill development in EFL sixth graders. In this action research, data were collected through an initial diagnosis and a final development test, a focus group interview, participant observation and students' artifacts derived from podcast, video and PowerPoint projects. The data were then analyzed in a mixed method approach and results suggested that the majority of students became highly engaged in communicative situations, which allowed them to improve their limited language proficiency.

Keywords: Speaking skill development, multimedia projects, project work, high school students

Resumen

El propósito de este estudio fue examinar la forma como la implementación de proyectos de podcast, videos y PowerPoint motiva el desarrollo de la habilidad oral en estudiantes de sexto grado. En este proyecto de investigación acción los datos se recolectaron a través de un examen diagnóstico inicial y un examen de desarrollo final, una entrevista de grupo focal, observación participante y artefactos de los estudiantes, derivados de proyectos de podcast, video y

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PowerPoint. Los datos fueron analizados con un enfoque de métodos mixto y los resultados sugieren que la mayoría de los estudiantes se involucró en gran manera con situaciones comunicativas, lo cual les permitió mejorar su limitado nivel de proficiencia.

Palabras clave: Desarrollo de la habilidad oral, proyectos multimedia, trabajo por proyectos, estudiantes de secundaria

Resumo

O propósito deste estudo foi examinar a forma como a implementação de projetos de podcast, vídeos e PowerPoint motiva o desenvolvimento da habilidade oral em estudantes de sexta série. Neste projeto de pesquisa ação os dados se recolheram através de uma prova diagnóstica inicial e uma prova de desenvolvimento final, uma entrevista de grupo focal, observação participante e artefatos dos estudantes, derivados de projetos de podcast, vídeo e PowerPoint. Os dados foram analisados com um enfoque de métodos misto e os resultados sugerem que a maioria dos estudantes se envolveu em grande maneira com situações comunicativas, o qual lhes permitiu melhorar seu limitado nível de competência.

Palavras clave: Desenvolvimento da habilidade oral, projetos multimídia, trabalho por projetos, estudantes de ensino médio

Introduction

The desire that teachers have to help students with the development of their speaking skills is often made difficult by the context, number of students per class, limited time and scarce material available. This concern led the researchers in this study to explore ways to improve classroom practices, taking advantage of what is at hand. The action research project was designed in order to facilitate reflection and promote progress following Burns' (2005) notion of exploring a common problem in a specific context in order to gain understanding, create meaning, and improve educational practices.

The aim was to help sixth grade students develop speaking skills through the implementation of multimedia projects, including podcasts, videos and PowerPoint presentations. More specifically, the project sought to help students improve pronunciation, vocabulary and fluency. Six projects were implemented along a six-month period in order to engage learners in the use of the language with communicative purposes.

The multimedia tools used motivated students to see language in a fun and engaging way. As stated by Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003), "The use of computer technology fosters interaction and presents students' language in a graphically and linguistically enhanced manner" (p. 86). As such, the use of multimedia projects could possibly motivate not only the improvement of their learning performance, but also the development of speaking skills.

The questions leading this research focused on the three components of speaking: *How do EFL sixth graders better their pronunciation through the use of podcast projects? To what extent do video projects promote the acquisition of vocabulary in EFL sixth graders? and How do ppt projects support the development of fluency in EFL sixth graders?* Therefore, the tools designed and the implementation of projects allowed us to identify students' challenges and gains throughout the process.

Literature Review

The main constructs that supported our research were the use of multimedia tools (podcasts, videos and presentation software), communicative language teaching, speaking skills (pronunciation, fluency and vocabulary), and project and group work.

The Use of Multimedia Tools

Technology has enjoyed a widespread acceptation in society, especially in teenagers. It has changed the nature of sharing, storage and handling of information. According to Rathore (2011), the application and association of ICT with social, economic and cultural matters has had an effect on education. Therefore, these contextual issues have had a significant impact on the use of technological devices or multimedia tools in language teaching to design, develop, manage and assess students' performance with the unique objective of enhancing EFL learning.

The integration of CALL (computer assisted language learning) in Colombian education has been widely discussed by researchers, who have explored the blending of technologies in second language teaching learning (Clavijo, Quintana, & Quintero, 2011). Teachers have also dedicated attention to the role of computers in the classroom, especially to find or create better ways to implement effective strategies that improve students' language skills. It is extensively believed that technology in the classroom helps teachers promote a constructive class environment, and technology is viewed as having an influential effect on the teaching and learning process (Muir-Herzig, 2004).

However, the integration of computers in the classroom has not been accepted by some educational communities because they think that those devices are disturbing elements in the learning process. In Colombia, educational policies follow the tendency of other countries in promoting the integration of ICTs in all school levels. The Colombian ICT Plan 2008-2019 proposes the use of educational environments with comfortable infrastructure and devices to facilitate autonomous and collaborative learning mediated by computers and tablets that help students in the enhancement of their learning process (Ministerio de Comunicaciones, 2008).

Clavijo, et al. (2011) argue that the increased use of technological devices by students at all levels of education outside the school environment is a challenge for teachers who have not understood the impact of technology. Therefore, teachers must be prepared to be up-to-date with the educational process of students today, who have grown up using different types of technologies as digital natives. Prensky (2001) stresses, "They have spent their entire lives surrounded by and using computers, videogames, digital music players, video cams, cell phones, and all the other toys and tools of the digital age" (p. 1). For that reason, students may be eager to find technological environments in educational activities within the school context.

Furthermore, according to Tomlinson (1998), students are an important element to consider when designing and carrying out learning processes, so it is necessary to take into account their interests and needs in order to develop materials and appropriate contents that can strengthen their prior knowledge, and foster the use of language. Consequently, the implementation of multimedia projects with the students in this project sought to create new activities to expand students' learning opportunities, using alternative tools that involve their learning styles.

Crystal (1986) states, "One of the most interesting developments in the field of language teaching in recent years has been the concern to provide students with 'authentic' spoken materials with which to work" (p. 411). Hence, this study gave us the opportunity to discover whether the use of multimedia projects as authentic learning materials was effective in terms of improving fluency, pronunciation and the acquisition of vocabulary.

Stanley (2006) and Pun (2006) have pointed out the strong benefits that podcasting may offer to language education, especially in reference to developing students' listening and speaking skills. Furthermore, videos have always been an excellent EFL language learning activity that requires learner participation in a variety of ways. Now, with the relatively recent advances in digital video technology and the free use of editing software, video projects have become an even more powerful teaching and learning tool in the EFL classroom; examples and testaments to the usefulness of drama for speaking skills and pronunciation are provided by different authors (Carkin, 2004; Hardison & Sonchaeng, 2005). They report many projects focused on the creation of video dramas that may improve EFL learners' fluency and pronunciation.

In terms of tools to aid the development of speaking skills, Microsoft PowerPoint is a powerful visual tool that can support students' oral expression through images, diagrams and bullet points that allow them to develop speaking skills with more fluency and confidence to express themselves. "Students with low English proficiency can be assisted by ppt in making persuasive presentations through the use of multimedia tools such as audio recordings and graphic representations" (Apple & KiKuchi, 2007, p. 107). The idea of an interactive EFL presentation is to make the development of students' speech more interesting and attractive to reach the goal of improving their fluency and self-confidence.

Project and Group Work

Blake (2013) points out that the proper integration of technology into the curriculum can accelerate the focus on the student-centered classroom and adapt him/her to a digital culture. Therefore, it may change our students' way of learning, thinking and communicating, making them active participants of their learning process and engaging them in collaborative projects using project work to achieve the learning objectives.

Furthermore, Dörnyei (1997) explains that cooperative group work tasks not only increase the amount of mediated input but also encourage motivation, self-confidence, critical thinking, and autonomy. Thus, students' interaction may help them overcome psychological limitations such as, shyness, fear and anxiety to use the language.

In addition, Freire and Macedo (1987) assert that collaborative participation in the teaching and learning process can change learners' expectations to be students with more autonomy, agency and creativity, achieving important changes in the social and cultural perspective of language. Students benefit from the implementation of multimedia projects in EFL as they follow the structural elements of a project: plan, research, develop, review and present a final product.

Thomas (2000) affirms, "Project-based learning (PBL) is a model that organizes learning around projects. According to the definitions found in PBL handbooks for teachers, projects are complex tasks, based on challenging questions or problems, that involve students in design, problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities" (p. 1). Therefore, students can develop their skills in critical thinking and the expression of their own ideas through the design and performance of such projects. Project work naturally leads to argument about either the interpretation or presentation of the information collected. Moreover, Jones, Rasmussen and Moffitt (1997) summarize projects as complex tasks, based on challenging objectives or problems that involve students in design, problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities. Therefore, projects give students the opportunity to work autonomously and collaboratively to obtain realistic products to be presented in academic settings.

Communicative Language Teaching and Speaking Skills

Multimedia projects can be developed in a creative and interactive way. With this in mind, learning may become an enjoyable experience for students as they develop language skills and sub-skills.

Pronunciation in foreign language teaching, for example, has often been marginalized because teachers do not have enough time in class to perform pronunciation activities or the instructional training to teach it. Pennington and Richards (1986) assert that "pronunciation is often viewed as having limited importance in communicative curricula" (p. 207). Nonetheless, authors such as Carkin (2004) and Hardison and Sonchaeng (2005) note the benefits and usefulness of speaking activities, fluency and pronunciation. They argue that with the use of drama, students may acquire habits of repetition and correction helping them to identify their own mistakes to improve their speaking performance.

On the other hand, the role of vocabulary is remarkable as Rupley, Logan and Nichols (1998) argue, "Vocabulary is the glue that holds stories, ideas and content together… making comprehension accessible for children" (p. 339). Chall (1983) describes recognition and meaning as key factors in vocabulary learning that may lead students to enhance not only their reading ability but also their speaking skills. There are many software applications that allow to work vocabulary through voice recognition, virtual world applications and the use of podcasts.

There is a notorious need for more vocabulary instruction at all levels to gain English proficiency. Frequently, the process of communication in students is measured based on the number of words that they can use to express their ideas. Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) indicate that the number of new words on average that students should add to their vocabulary in a year is 3,000. There are, in fact, different technological tools to develop sufficient vocabulary for learners to reach that goal.

Fluency, understood as the ability to speak a foreign language easily and effectively, is an evident problem in language learners and the result of lack of vocabulary and poor pronunciation. Vocabulary and memory are key aspects in the development of fluency. In broad terms, speaking is a complex process of choosing, remembering and organizing words into grammatical sentences to be able to express their communicative intention. Tarone (2006) says that learners must simultaneously attend to content, pronunciation, lexis, discourse and information structuring leaving at side the communicative purpose for better speaking skill.

Methodology

Research Design

This action research was done with a mixed methods approach to examine the way in which the implementation of podcast, PowerPoint, and video projects fosters the development of speaking skills sixth grade EFL students. This study was undertaken as action research to explore a common problem in a specific context in order to gain understanding, create meaning, and improve educational practices (Burns, 2005). Reason and Bradbury (2001) explain that the primary purpose of action research is to produce practical knowledge that is useful to people in every conduct of their lives. Also, a mixed methods approach was necessary to carry out a deep quantitative and qualitative analysis of the process students underwent. Thus, as Greene and Caracelli (1997) establish, mixing different types of methods can strengthen the understanding of a research study because inquiry can become a complex social phenomena in which the researcher may need different kinds of methods to interpret data. Therefore, the researcher can go beyond the representation of quantitative information and make a deeper qualitative analysis of the relevant issues found to enrich the development ofthe research process.

Context and Participants

This research study was carried out at a private religious school in Ibagué, Colombia, with sixth grade EFL students. There were ten girls and five boys between 11 and 13 years old. Sixty-five percent of students belong to the religious denomination of the school, the rest to other churches. Students were all required to follow the school principles, which sometimes limited the amount of time that students could spend using technology in class. Students received five hours of English instruction per week and all demonstrated a low language proficiency level. All of them had some computer skills and were able to use multimedia tools with minimal help from the teacher.

Data Collection Instruments

The data collection instruments included an initial diagnosis and a final development test, a focus group interview, participant observation and students' artifacts derived from podcast, video and PowerPoint projects.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The initial diagnostic test intended to identify students' skills in vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency. The test design helped to explore and determine the strengths and weaknesses of each one of the participants in terms of their speaking skills. It was done through a reading comprehension activity in which students did the process in two cycles. The first cycle included the identification of vocabulary to understand and comprehend the reading, and following instructions for completing the written test that contained five questions related to the topic of the reading. The second cycle was reading aloud to determine students' level of pronunciation and fluency.

Based on the results of the initial diagnostic test, students participated in a focus group interview in order to examine their knowledge about some of the technological skills they possessed and important concepts that were going to be applied in the implementation of multimedia projects. Patton (1990) affirms that "focus group interviews involve conducting open-ended interviews with groups of few people on specially targeted or focused issues" (p. 173). Hence, the purpose was to help analyze students' knowledge, skills, perceptions and expectations to participate in this project. For the focus group, a semi-structured interview was done at the beginning of the implementation of the projects, and the second interview was an informal discussion at the end of the implementation. This second interview was developed after the teacher gave students feedback about their speaking skill development during the implementation of the projects.

Participant observation was undertaken as a method to analyze different phenomena that occurred during the implementation of the projects. Researchers took field notes and video-recorded to better capture specific details. Delamont (2004) argues that it is important to write and think about what you are observing and to test insights systematically. Participation in this sense means interacting with people while they are carrying out activities such as teaching or studying to identify some educational issue.

Students' artifacts collected during the implementation of projects were used to analyze their speaking skills development. These artifacts included a video of a play, podcasts of reading aloud and dialogues, and videos of the presentations. Patton (1990) suggests that audio and video recordings provide more opportunities to identify hidden issues that may not be perceived along the process.

Results

Uncovering students' attitudes and aptitudes towards the language and the multimedia tools used in the projects was essential in order to have a better understanding of students' background knowledge and therefore a better intervention process. In that regard, the initial diagnostic test and the focus group interview were administered at the beginning.

Initial Diagnostic Test (IDT)

During the exploratory stage of this study we could realize that students were afraid of learning English, even more when it came to speaking in the language; for this reason, the IDT design surprised students as they were used to doing only activities related to the contents of a book, such as completing crossword puzzles, filling in the gaps or simply working on isolated vocabulary. However, this test had them see the language in a more communicative way. The results of the IDT, which will then be compared to the results of the final development test, revealed their limited skills in vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency, as well as their lack of confidence and low motivation when they were encouraged to use the language. Figure 1 outlines those results.

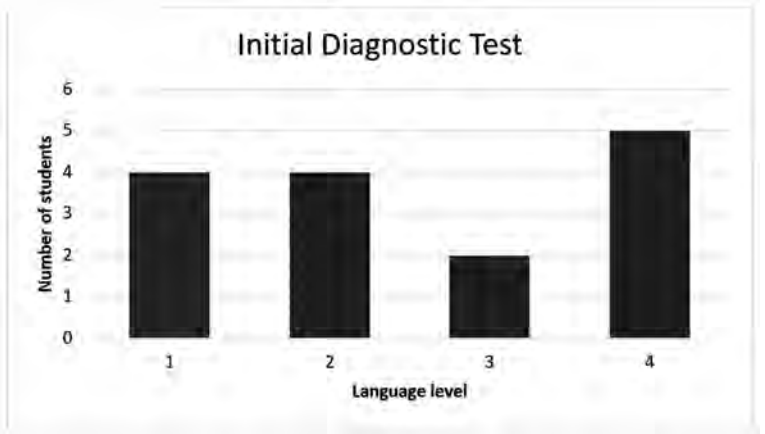

Figure 1. Initial language level

The data above indicate that in a scale from one to five, which goes from no demonstrated proficiency to displaying certain level of language development, students' oral skills were limited to what is

described in item number four of Table 1, which means that no student had the ability to answer personal questions and self-correct their mistakes. Eight students were in the two most basic levels of language understanding and production, as presented in Figure 1. Although the other seven students had better language skills, their language proficiency was still limited and none of them could reach level five. The test results disclosed students' low language level in the sub skills evaluated. Students had little vocabulary, pronunciation difficulties and therefore low fluency.

Table 1. Rubric to evaluate students

1= No demonstrated proficiency
2= Limited command of verbal formulae
3= Some vocabulary to express specific ideas and some accuracy in pronunciation
4= Some vocabulary to express common ideas and to understand basic readings. Some pronunciation skills and fluency
5= Can answer personal information based on vocabulary learned in class and in the reading and can work systematically on grammar errors

Focus Group

After the diagnostic test, the focus group was administered in order to deepen the understanding of what students brought with them in terms of language and multimedia tools. To open the discussion in this interview, we did a brief explanation of the importance of technology in EFL learning. Students also wanted to know what role they would have in the implementation of multimedia projects and what type of technology could be used in EFL learning. They had different understandings of what a project is and were concerned about how this work would contribute to their language skills. Afterwards, we talked about the way some multimedia tools could be blended into language learning and the benefits and limitations of using them in our English classes. They felt identified with the word "multimedia," and they mentioned that this could be an easier way to learn, to be creative and to have a pleasant environment. Nevertheless, some students were not familiar with some of the terms used during the conversation, which made us wonder to what extent the implementation of those projects would be a success.

The last question referred to the identification of students' computer skills. We asked them about the type of technology they frequently used and they listed the tools they had used in their experience as students, among their answers they mentioned search engines (Internet), and basic Microsoft Office applications (word processing tools), such as Microsoft Word to make written documents, Microsoft PowerPoint to make standard presentations, and Microsoft Excel to make tables or lists. Few participants used these tools to develop other types of activities. Finally, only a few students had the skills to use more advanced applications, such as editing software for videos and audio recordings, and no one knew the meaning of podcasts and its use for educational aims.

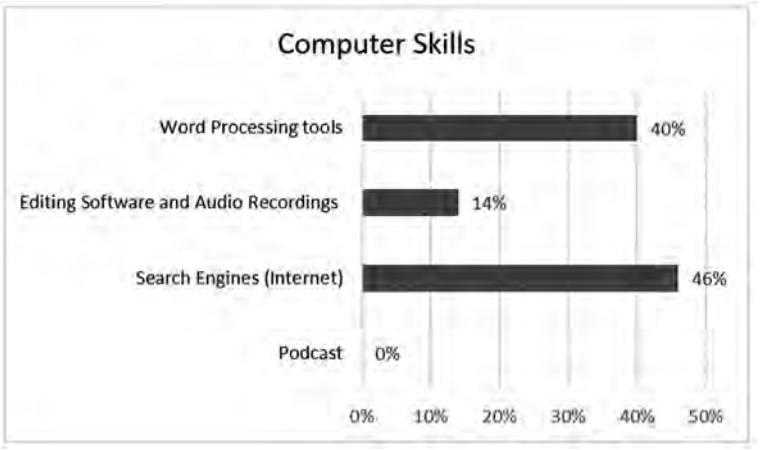

Figure 2. Students' computer skills

None of the students had heard the word podcast, so we explained how this multimedia tool would be implemented in the projects through the use of feedback from the teacher, and by hearing their own audio recordings in a pre and post activity. Having a better understanding of the process made them curious and interested in having it as a learning tool. They concluded that this tool would help them to be aware of their own mistakes, so they could improve them.

Even though the school has a virtual platform, only 46% of the participants had developed enough abilities using internet (e-mail, e-learning environments and search engines). Forty percent had not gone beyond the use of basic word processing tools to complete some occasional assignments, many of them because of their religious beliefs.

These beliefs called for limited time for students to use computers, internet, or particular online programs. In many cases, they were allowed to use computers only to work on Microsoft Office, but never to access the web. The remaining 14% had more advanced computer skills in the edition of videos and other types of files, which was very beneficial for the development of the projects.

Participant Observation

During the implementation of the projects, students said they were now learning English, which seemed to change their perceptions of the subject and increase their motivation. English had not been seen as a relevant subject before, as something they would learn for life, but as a course they only had to take and pass. Students' learning styles had not been catered to; therefore, they had not been exposed to the possibilities of studying the language with tools tailored to them, or with strategies that would help each individual learner. It could be evidenced how each new project raised their motivation and language level at the same time.

Podcast Projects

Podcast projects were implemented through two applications. The first was a smart voice recorder for mobile phone and the second one was the Audacity program for PC. One of the podcast projects contained a conversation between two participants; each situation was accompanied by the script composed by students with the support of the teacher-researcher. Learners used these scripts to rehearse and practice. While they were recording and listening to their conversations, they could identify their own mistakes using a podcast sample of the conversation.

The second podcast project was a reading aloud exercise of the story "Philip the Grasshopper," in which participants worked collaboratively; in pairs with a defined role, one as a narrator and the other one as an imitator. This allowed them to gain powerful linguistic resources to enhance their pronunciation with the teacher monitoring and students' self-correction. Students reached the goal of podcasting in spite of their initial anxiety, lack of confidence, and reluctant attitude toward performing these activities. For the assessment of pronunciation, participants carried out a pre- and post-recording in which they noticed that podcasts were highly suited for the improvement of phonetics and pronunciation problems. Figures 3a and b exemplify students' progress from podcast one to two.

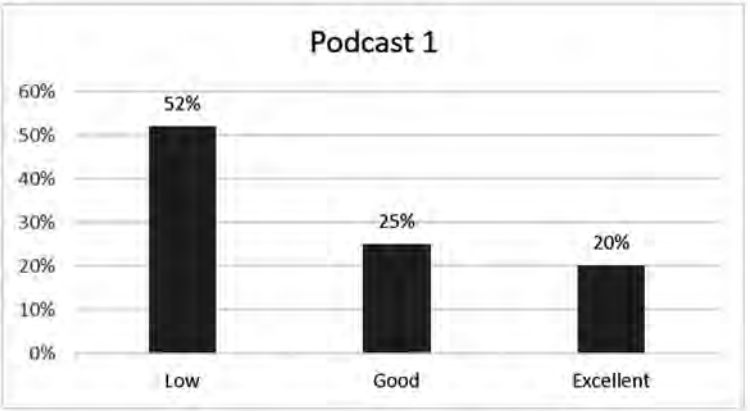

Figure 3a. Initial pronunciation assessment

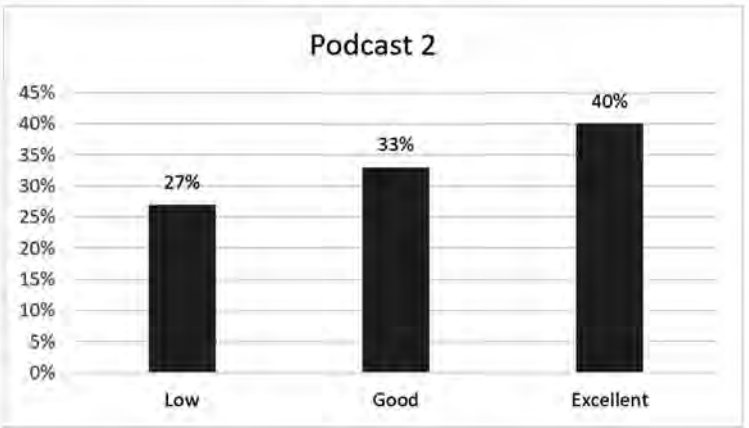

Figure 3b. Pronunciation follow-up

The assessment was done by the teacher in charge of the group during class time and podcast projects were focused on specific topics and vocabulary worked in class. Moreover, students had the chance to rehearse the script and the readings right after the first feedback session. In the second phase, students recorded the final podcasts. Results showed that students became more responsible for their own learning, and the majority of them overcame many of their pronunciation mistakes. The result of this final podcast was a surprise for students' classmates who noticed that the participants were interpreting a tale of 383 words in a

way that was almost identical to the sample podcast of the book. It was remarkable because 40% of the participants had an excellent language performance, making fewer than 10 pronunciation mistakes.

Video Projects

This was a project planned collaboratively that helped learners internalize their acquired knowledge and increase collaborative learning and motivation. The initial video project was a play that was taken from the previous podcast project of the reading "Philip the Grasshopper" and was adapted to a script. The other video project was a representation of a conversation at a supermarket, and the vocabulary was taught in a pre-teaching activity. Students reviewed their part of the script in advance so they could assimilate the content.

Although students showed a positive disposition and attitude towards the recording of videos, different feelings arose each time the video camera was on. One of the most common feelings was the fear to look at the camera lens; they commonly forgot part of their script while anxiety increased. Nevertheless, little by little they became more familiar with the camera so that video recording was seen as a natural part of the class. The video projects were a source of motivation for students because they dressed up and acted out the the vocabulary with authentic language situations. They could explore their creativity and imagination and some of them demonstrated their abilities to use multimedia tools, as they were in charge of editing the videos using Camtasia application.

PowerPoint Projects

The use of PowerPoint and other multimedia tools like Prezi and Powtoon to make presentations is more popular for students at university level, but school aged students can also benefit from it. The environment at this school was not so welcoming for these kinds of projects at the beginning because most teachers are very traditional and were reluctant to use technology.

The implementation of PowerPoint projects brought an added value to the class; students participated in the planning and organization of topics and presentations. They also had to prepare their speech based on some questions designed by themselves and the teacher through collaborative work. Their presentations were completely visual and contained bullet points as guides. Students were able to express the information and answer the questions with self-confidence supported

by interactive presentations that showed them whether the answers were correct or incorrect.

Results showed that there were significant differences in students' oral production during the pre- and post-presentations. Additionally, this tool motivated students to explore their creativity and find different ways to present their work, which increased their confidence to speak in English. Chapelle (2001) explains that PowerPoint is seen as an innovative and easy tool that has meaningful real world experiences for educational purposes with important relevance outside the classroom, giving the projects a sense of authenticity for students to engage with the use of language. Rather than viewing this tool solely as a means of practicing English or presenting simple standard slides, these projects open a window to the handling of future multimedia tools and motivate students to develop computer literacy skills, as well as linguistic and communicative skills.

Final Development Test

This test was applied in order to assess the evolution of students' speaking skills and to identify how the multimedia projects implemented during this research helped students in the improvement of their language performance. This test was slightly different from the initial diagnostic test so that students did not feel that it was the same evaluation after the implementation of the projects. It was more visually attractive and graphically divided into four parts for students to identify what was being evaluated. There was a reading comprehension part in which pronunciation and fluency were assessed; after that, students had to answer some questions orally. Students were more at ease than in the first test. It was rewarding to see them reading aloud with good pronunciation and a better attitude towards communicative tasks. Shyness and anxiety, which were highly evident at the beginning, were now left behind as learners improved their pronunciation and expanded their vocabulary. Although different variables interact in language learning, students' attitudes toward the language should be considered. Therefore, it was important to use different strategies to increase students' motivation as a way to have a more effective learning process.

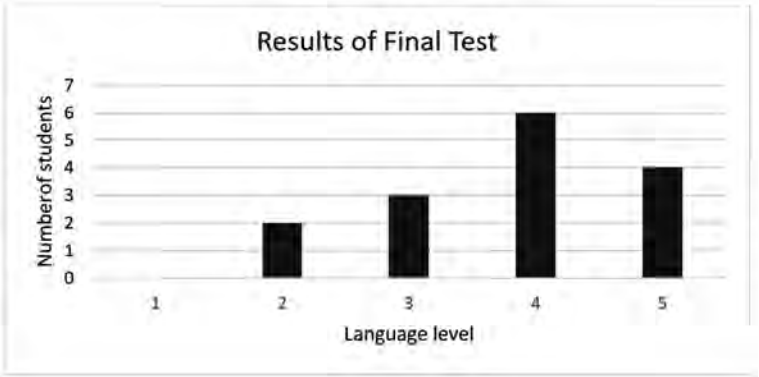

Figure 4. Final test

The final development test gave some evidence of students' improvement in their speaking skill. All of them advanced up to the point that Level 5 was reached, which did not happen in the IDT. The rubric to evaluate students presented as Table 1 served for the analysis of this final test as well. Students accomplished the goals set during projects development and went beyond their language and personality limitations.

Focus Group Follow up

Once all the projects had been administered, it was considered necessary to carry out a follow up of the focus group interview. This was done with the purpose of knowing from the students' voices their perceptions and changes experienced. Some of their comments are presented below[3].

> I am doing well in this subject. I have the best attitude in class and I have improved my English language because I know more words.
>
> We had the opportunity to listen to each other in this class because the teacher recorded us and then let us listen to ourselves to get feedback on our weaknesses and strengths.
>
> I loved this class!
>
> I liked this class because we could make conversations with our classmates. This allowed us to train our ear and enrich our vocabulary.

[3] Original text in Spanish, translation made for publication

> This was a good class because the teacher brought us podcasts with her pronunciation. This helped us mirror her pronunciation to pronounce in front of the class. She recorded a podcast of us then.
>
> I think this was a good class because the teacher always had something new for us to learn with technological devices.
>
> Learning was pleasant because we could talk with our classmates and receive instructions to make a Project with ppt slides to present to the class. We practiced our English a lot.
>
> Recording a video and then watching us speaking in English was nice. My classmates looked good on their costumes.

This final encounter with students to know their perceptions and gains confirmed that it was worth the time invested in this project to help students and the school community understand that incorporating multimedia tools in classes with a structured design can bring up benefits for students' learning.

Conclusions

This action research brought benefits to the students who could be seen more engaged and enthusiastic during the lessons. Their perceptions and attitudes towards the class changed for the good, which gave the teacher more motivation to continue innovating and improving. It seems that the use of multimedia projects in EFL learning in the context of a private school was perceived as an effective strategy to develop speaking skills in sixth graders because it helped students engage with real communicative situations. Even though the transition from traditional classes to implementing multimedia tools during the lessons was rather complicated and time consuming at the beginning, the accomplishment was evident.

It was also observed that through the implementation of such projects, students had better academic performance. Not only were their class grades higher, as they did better in class, but also their confidence and oral communication improved. These multimedia tools fostered the acquisition of vocabulary and the improvement of pronunciation and fluency. Moreover, students perceived this experience as a learning opportunity in which their needs and interests were taken into account. To conclude, it is essential to create class activities that involve students' own realities so as to have meaningful learning that lasts a life-time.

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Using a Mobile Application (WhatsApp) to Reduce EFL Speaking Anxiety[1]

Uso de la Aplicación Móvil (WhatsApp) para Reducir la Ansiedad al Hablar en Inglés como Lengua Extranjera

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Abstract

Several experimental studies have examined the effect of the use of mobile applications on improving language skills, but little research has explored the impact of using these applications in EFL speaking classes on alleviating foreign language speaking anxiety (FLSA). This study examines the effect of using WhatsApp activities in undergraduate level EFL speaking classes on students' speaking anxiety, and their feelings about the activities conducted. Thirty-nine undergraduate level participants carried out the tasks on WhatsApp in EFL speaking courses for four weeks. The FLCAS was administered at the beginning and end of the study. Participants' views about the mobile application activities were also examined through face-to-face interviews. Results showed that WhatsApp experiences significantly impacted the students' language acquisition by lowering EFL speaking anxiety.

Key words: EFL speaking anxiety, mobile applications, mobile assisted language learning

Resumen

Diferentes estudios experimentales han analizado el efecto del uso de aplicaciones móviles para mejorar las habilidades lingüísticas, pero son pocas las investigaciones acerca del impacto del uso de estas aplicaciones en las clases de conversación en inglés como lengua extranjera para reducir la ansiedad al hablar un idioma extranjero. Este estudio examina el efecto de usar WhatsApp

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en actividades con estudiantes de pregrado que en sus clases de conversación de inglés experimentan ansiedad cuando hablan en una lengua extranjera y sus sentimientos acerca de las actividades realizadas. 39 participantes de pregrado desarrollaron tareas de los cursos de conversación de inglés como lengua extranjera en WhatsApp durante cuatro semanas. Las FLCAS fueron aplicadas al inicio y al final del estudio. Las opiniones sobre las actividades desarrolladas en la aplicación móvil fueron analizadas a través de entrevistas personales. Los resultados mostraron que la experiencia del uso de WhatsApp afecta significativamente la adquisición de un idioma reduciendo la ansiedad al hablar inglés como lengua extranjera.

Palabras clave: Ansiedad al hablar inglés como lengua extranjera, aplicaciones móviles, aprendizaje de idiomas asistido por móvil

Resumo

Diferentes estudos experimentais analisaram o efeito do uso de aplicações móbeis para melhorar as habilidades linguísticas, mas são poucas as pesquisas acerca do impacto do uso destas aplicações nas aulas de conversação em inglês como língua estrangeira para reduzir a ansiedade ao falar um idioma estrangeiro. Este estudo examina o efeito de usar whatsapp em atividades com estudantes de graduação que em suas aulas de conversação de inglês experimentam ansiedade quando falam em uma língua estrangeira e seus sentimentos acerca das atividades realizadas. 39 participantes de graduação desenvolveram tarefas dos cursos de conversação de inglês como língua estrangeira em whatsapp durante quatro semanas. As FLCAS foram aplicadas no começo e no final do estudo. As opiniões sobre as atividades desenvolvidas na aplicação móbil foram analisadas através de entrevistas pessoais. Os resultados mostraram que a experiência do uso de whatsapp afeta significativamente a aquisição de um idioma reduzindo a ansiedade ao falar inglês como língua estrangeira.

Palavras chave: Ansiedade ao falar inglês como língua estrangeira, aplicações móbeis, aprendizagem de idiomas assistido por móbil

Introduction

Using technology is an inevitable part of almost every aspect of life and educational environments are no exception. Computers, used as assisting tools for both teachers and students, have had beneficial uses in EFL classrooms. The use of computers to assist learning, or Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), has gained popularity in language studies, even though, as Warschauer and Healey (1998) mention, this is not something new. However, due to the development of technology and the information era, it is a promising trend for language studies. The rise in popularity has not been in vain. It has been suggested that CALL may have many advantages. For example, CALL-based glossing is more efficient compared to paper-based glossing; moreover, writing is much easier and more success-inclined in terms of accuracy when it is applied on computers (Taylor, 2013; Ulusoy, 2006; Usun, 2003).

Nevertheless, recent developments in technology have shown that technology assistance is not limited to computers any more. Almost all the capabilities of computers have been fit into mobile devices, such as phones and tablets, which have increased access to technology in many classrooms. Martin and Ertzberger (2013) studied the difference between the use of computers and mobile phones in a classroom setting and found that students show more enthusiasm towards mobile devices. The application of mobile devices in classrooms has been welcomed by both the teachers (Albirini, 2006; Şad & Göktaş, 2014), and the students (Al-Fahad, 2009; Hsu, 2013; Ilter, 2009). In sum, their perceptions towards Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) have been generally positive. This brief review suggests that using technologies in EFL classrooms has been successful and promising; moreover, using these technologies has been welcomed positively by both teachers and learners (Arnold, 2007; Albirini, 2006; Cui & Wang, 2008; Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson & Freynik, 2014; Hashemi, Azizinezhad, Najafi & Nesari, 2011; Şad & Göktaş, 2014; Tayebinik & Puteh, 2012; Taylor, 2013; Ulusoy, 2006; Usun, 2003).

In the world of mobility, millions of users communicate in seconds with each other, and for this purpose, they use a variety of applications. WhatsApp Messenger is one of the most popular applications, with 30.496.683 downloads on PlayStore, the application supplier for Android users. Other application suppliers do not compare in the number of downloads: iOS has 169978 ratings, and Blackberry has 504772 reviews. WhatsApp "is a cross-platform mobile messaging app which allows you to exchange messages without having to pay for SMS" (WhatsApp official webpage, 2015). Further, WhatsApp allows

users to communicate by sending text messages, voice messages, videos, and pictures.

Using a familiar application in the classroom environment may help students to overcome some anxiety problems. Anxiety in a number of manifestations is a problem for EFL classrooms (Burgucu, Han, & Engin, 2011; Han, Tanriöver, & Sahan, 2016). Speaking anxiety itself is a recognized and undisputed phenomenon. As effective speaking requires face-to-face interaction, it is reasonable to question whether or not CALL, which could often remove the "face-to-face" aspect of communication, would be helpful for reducing speaking anxiety or not. In response to this question, Arnold (2007) cites multiple studies that show that CALL helps learners reduce or control their anxiety.

Mobile devices have been researched in several aspects in terms of assisting language learning/teaching. Some studies handle the subject from a general effect/impact view (e.g. Jones, Edwards, & Reid, 2009; Miangah & Nezarat, 2012; Ono & Ishihara, 2011; Wang, Shen, Novak, & Pan, 2009), while others focus on skills such as vocabulary (e.g. Alemi, Sarab, & Lari, 2012; Başoğlu & Akdemir, 2010; Çavuş & İbrahim, 2009; Hayati, Jalilifar, & Mashhadi, 2013; Lu, 2008; Stockwell, 2010; Zhang, Song, & Burston, 2011), pronunciation (Saran, Seferoglu, & Çağıltay, 2009), speaking and listening (Tsou, Wang, & Tzeng, 2006), reading (Hsu, Hwang, & Chang, 2013; Tsou, Wang, and Tzeng, 2006), and grammar (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010). In addition, others examine perception (Al-Fahad, 2009; Hsu, 2013), motivation (Ilter, 2009) and factors (Liu, Han, & Li, 2010) about MALL. However, there are few to no studies exploring the link between speaking anxiety and MALL. Therefore, this study aims to bridge this gap by examining the effect of using a mobile application (WhatsApp) in reducing EFL speaking anxiety.

Briefly, using WhatsApp activities in EFL/ESL speaking classes has become popular in recent years, as it allows for unique and versatile learning opportunities. While using WhatsApp, students have the chance to individualize their learning, especially the language they have been working on. For example, they can monitor and check their language output for mistakes. Further, students are able to practice their pronunciation (accent, intonation, speed of speech) while rehearsing for the recording, all while exposing themselves more to the language and building positive feelings towards speaking. It is well known that anxiety is "a mental block against learning a foreign language" (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p.125) However, even if it is well known that mobile phones ease increased access to information, it is less known how mobiles promote new learning (Valk, Rashid, & Elder, 2010). In this sense, this study also aimed to bridge this research gap

through examining the link between using mobile application activities and reducing EFL students' FLA levels.

WhatsApp speaking activities are aimed at reducing the language anxiety of learners. The activities were applied in a classroom context for four weeks. The impact of these activities on the students' anxiety levels was examined. Further, the students' feelings regarding the link between these activities and their anxieties were qualitatively analyzed. The main research question that guided this study was if applying WhatsApp activities in EFL speaking classes would reduce the students' anxiety levels and positively impact their perceptions. More specifically, the research questions of this study are the following:

1. To what extent do the WhatsApp activities impact the students' FLA?
2. Are there any significant differences between male and female students in terms of FLA before and after the application of WhatsApp activities?
3. How do the students feel about the WhatsApp experience?

Results indicate that the application has a significant impact on lowering students' level of speaking anxiety.

Literature Review

While the use of mobile devices in the language classroom is not a new topic for researchers, the rapid changes and advancements in technology continuously extend the list of unanswered questions. Opinions towards MALL seem generally positive in the existing literature. Many studies point out how advantageous MALL is and how it positively affects learners (Jones et al., 2009; Miangah & Nezarat, 2012; Ono & Ishihara, 2011; Wang et al., 2009). Further, several studies have investigated the use of the MALL in classroom atmosphere to teach language skills, and have pointed to its advantages (e.g. Başoğlu & Akdemir, 2010; Lu, 2008; Zhang et al., 2008). For example, Başoğlu and Akdemir (2010) investigated mobile assisted vocabulary learning and the use of flashcards using mobile phones in a Turkish EFL context. Lu (2008) compared the efficacy of mobile-assisted vocabulary learning with paper-based methods of vocabulary learning. Alemi et al. (2012) and Çavuş and İbrahim, (2009) examined mobile-assisted vocabulary learning methods in EFL classrooms.

Regarding pronunciation, Saran et al. (2009) found that there were positive effects of the use of mobile devices on pronunciation. Tsou et

al. (2006) found that online story telling contributed to the improvement in multiple skills. Regarding reading skills, it seems that teaching this skill via mobile devices is quite new. In a study, Hsu et al. (2013) the groups that used mobile devices were successful and they had very high positive perception of mobile learning. There have also been studies analyzing the effect of MALL on grammar learning. Baleghizadeh and Oladrostam (2010) examined the possible development of their grammatical abilities when using MALL in Iranian EFL context. It was found that the use of mobile devices also helps learners improve their grammar, in addition to other language skills.

Although existing research demonstrates advantages to mobile-assisted vocabulary learning, there may be some disadvantages to this method. For example, Zhang et al., (2011) demonstrated that the disadvantages include mobile phones possibly causing distractions and forgetting. Similarly, Hayati et al. (2013) indicated using mobile devices may lead teachers to take a passive role in the classroom, and teacher-based interaction is better and more effective than mobile devices. Stockwell (2010) identifies similar results in his research favoring previous studies.

As previously indicated, utilizing mobile technology, especially mobile phones, in classrooms is widespread. However, bringing technology into the classroom is not an automatic key to success. According to Liu et al. (2010), important factors to consider when implementing MALL include: (1) being a technology user versus being an m-learner, (2) m-learners' consumer role, and (3) perceptions of m-learners. Liu et al. (2010) indicated that students' success does not depend only on having the necessary tools, but also on understanding the concerns and willingness of the learners.

To interpret learners' concerns and willingness, two concepts are particularly important to understand: perception and motivation. Hsu (2013) emphasized that the concept of perception depends on the student profile and the affordability of the devices. This may be a problem as students' family economic profiles may be too low to afford technological devices in the aforementioned study. Hsu's (2013) study demonstrated that such devices could not replace teachers. Al-Fahad (2009) culminated positive perception results in the study including 186 students replying questionnaires. However, the latter of the two studies took place in a single country, whilst the former contained an international sampling. Therefore, as this issue is culture-based, perceptions may depend on the country and living conditions.

As a second learner-based variable, motivation plays a significant role for learners to adapt or to use m-learning. Ilter (2009) conducted a study of 350 university students to analyze the effects of MALL on their motivation. The results indicated that using technology enhances learners' motivations. Interestingly, another result of the study was that female students showed more enthusiasm for using technology in language classrooms than male students. However, to the best of our knowledge, no experimental research has investigated how to reduce foreign language anxiety, using MALL. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the impact of WhatsApp speaking activities on reducing the language anxiety of students in speaking classes. Given the fact that language anxiety is a challenging issue in teaching and learning in both EFL and ESL contexts, this study aimed to examine anxiety-alleviating WhatsApp activities and their capacity to create a less-anxiety producing learning atmosphere in speaking classes. The reason that WhatsApp was the chosen mobile application is that it is a tool that students use on a daily basis. They know how to use it. Second, voice recording on WhatsApp is less embarrassing than using a video recording, where a student's image is associated with their audio.

Methodology

Research Design

This mixed-research study followed the one group pretest-posttest design as a pre-experimental research model in which the FLA of the learners before and after the application of WhatsApp activities was compared. In this research design, the quantitative data included responses in the FLCAS scale while the qualitative data included face-to-face interviews with a randomly selected sub-sample of volunteer students from the participants.

Data for this study was collected in four phases. First, 39 volunteer students responded to the 33 items in the scale prior to the study (e.g. pre-course scale). The data obtained from the participants at the beginning of the study was used to examine their FLCA levels.

Second, volunteer students were invited to participate in the experiment. They were informed on how to use the WhatsApp dialogue activities in the new classroom context instead of the traditional classroom teaching context (e.g. classrooms without IWBs and teacher-based interactions) because using WhatsApp can turn a classroom into a non-traditional teaching context. How to use the activities was modeled for the students. The students attended WhatsApp activity

classes for four weeks. First, student pairs had to write mini-dialogues using something they had learned that day. As they finished writing the dialogue, they were instructed to call their teacher to have a quick look for simple corrections for grammatical mistakes (5 mins). Then, they practiced and recorded it within their WhatsApp group. They listened to their dialogues to see if they were clear and also listened to dialogues by student pairs in the rest of the classroom. The speaking/recording activity was conducted every other class or even at the end of every class. Mini-dialogues (about 5 lines) were proposed; these took about 10 minutes. Five minutes were spent creating dialogues, and another five spent practicing and recording. The study took three weeks.

During the mini-dialogue task, students were put in pairs or small groups of three to write down the dialogue. As soon as they finished, they could call their course teachers to have a look at the most serious mistakes that should be corrected. All the students were required to be added in a WhatsApp group. They met with their WhatsApp groups in class and recorded the dialogues using the application. The dialogues were shared, so that apart from learning from their own dialogues they could learn from each other.

Then, the students completed the same scale at the end of the experiment (e.g. post-course scale). The aim of collecting this data was to compare students FLCA before and after the experience.

Finally, face-to-face interviews were conducted with a random sub-sample of five students from among the participants. Semi-structured interview questions were predetermined and directed to them after they took the same scale. They were interviewed about the feelings they experienced during the activities. The interview was conducted in Turkish, the students' native language, to ensure the results were accurate and complete. These interviews were recorded and then transcribed.

Participants

The target population of the study is all students receiving undergraduate level EFL students in a state university in Turkey. The study participants were 39 volunteer students who were receiving intermediate level foundation courses at the time of the study. Although more students participated in the pre-course and post-course scale, some of them failed to attend some classes; therefore, they were excluded from the analyses. These students were attending several language skill-based courses in English at the time of the study. The

medium of instruction and exams was English. Their ages ranged from 18 to 24. They were taking intensive English foundation courses in the preparatory program before starting courses related to their major. The students were assigned to the preparation-class based on a test in a criterion-referenced framework designed by the School of Foreign Languages of the university. The test included two sections: one testing their speaking and writing skills, and the other testing their listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary skills. All the participants could not pass this exam based on criterion-referenced assessment. If they had passed this test, they could have been accepted as first year students and started their degree programs.

Data Collection Instruments

First, a Turkish version of the Horwitz's Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) was implemented before and after the experiment to compare the students' level of speaking anxiety. It is a tool extensively used in classroom research. The FLCAS includes five levels of FLA in the classroom: (a) degree of anxiety, (b) extent of understanding others when speaking the foreign language, (c) fear of making mistakes in the foreign language, (d) feelings of one's own competence, and (e) divergence from general communication apprehension. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) for the Turkish version of the FLCAS by Dalkılıç (2001) was .90 (n = 126). Permission to use the scale was obtained for this study. Further, face-to-face interviews were conducted with a sub-sample of the volunteer participants to examine their feelings about the link between the use of the mobile application in EFL speaking classes and their FLA. Next, WhatsApp was used to carry out the dialogue activities. Finally, semi-structured interview questions were applied to examine the students' feelings about the use of WhatsApp speaking activities and their level of anxiety.

Data Analyses and Interpretation

A series of descriptive statistical analyses (e.g. the mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistical analyses were performed on the quantitative data. The purpose of conducting these statistical analyses was to examine the participants' FLCA before and after the experience.

A coding and classifying approach was used for the qualitative data analysis. First, the students' responses pertinent to the research

questions were arranged together, categorized, and finally, analyzed according to the recurring themes (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009)

Results

The quantitative results are presented first, followed by the qualitative results. The quantitative analyses included descriptive statistics (e.g. mean and standard deviations of scores by female and male students in pre-course and post-course scale) and inferential statistics (e.g. paired and independent sample t-test results for the comparison between the scores by female and male students in pre-course and post-course scale). Table 4.1 provides the descriptive statistics while Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4 present inferential statistical results for the data obtained from responses used in the analysis. Following quantitative analyses, the qualitative analysis, including the focus group interviews, is presented.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Descriptive results. The descriptive data analysis was used to answer the following first research question: To what extent do the WhatsApp activities impact the students' FLA?

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the students' pretest and posts tests

	Gender	n	m	Mean score difference	sd
Pre-course scale	female	12	89.5833	-2.1204	24.05092
	male	27	91.7037		15.74756
Post-course scale	female	12	84.0000	-3.963	22.93469
	male	27	87.9630		15.39351

Table 1 provides the detailed descriptive statistics regarding the participants' anxiety level before and after the WhatsApp experience. First, the mean score difference between females and males increased in the post-course scale (e.g. after the WhatsApp experience) compared to pre-course scale (e.g. before WhatsApp experience). However, the mean score difference of the females between pre-course and post-

course scale was higher than the males' score, indicating that males were experiencing higher levels of anxiety than females, yet the females lowered their anxiety after the four-week WhatsApp course. The standard deviations in both pre-course and post-course are very similar, but the deviations between males and females are quite different, indicating that males and females had different levels of foreign language anxiety.

Inferential statistical results. The inferential statistics including independent and paired sample t-test were used to answer the second research question: Are there any significant differences between male and female students in terms of FLA before and after the application of WhatsApp activities?

Table 2. Independent sample t-test results for the comparison between female and male students FLCA levels in the pre-course scale

Gender	n	m	Sd.	t	df	P
female	12	89.5833	24.05092	-.328	37	.744*
male	27	91.7037	15.74756			

* p > 0.05

Table 2 shows the independent sample t-test results for the comparison of male and female students before the WhatsApp experience. The results proved that there was no significant difference between males and females in terms of FLA ($p > 0.05$), indicating that female and male students had similar levels of FLA before the experiment.

Table 3. T-test results for the comparison between female and male students' FLCA levels in the post-course scale

Gender	n	m	Sd.	t	df	P
Female	12	84.0000	22.93469	-.636	37	.529*
male	27	87.9630	15.39351			

Table 3 shows the independent sample t-test results for the comparison between male and female students after the WhatsApp experience. The results demonstrate that there was no significant

difference between males and females in terms of FLA ($p > 0.05$), indicating that female and male students had a similar level of FLA after the experiment.

Table 4. Paired sample t-test results for the comparison between female and male students' FLCA levels in the posttest

	n	m	Sd.	t	df	P
Pre-course scale	39	91.0513	18.38757	2.342	38	.025*
Post-course scale	39	86.7436	17.82771			

* $p > 0.05$

Table 4 shows the paired sample t-test results for the comparison of the students' FLA before and after the experience. The results indicate that there was a significant difference between the FLA levels of the students before and after the experience ($p > 0.05$) and the mean score decreased after the experience. This result indicates that the WhatsApp experience impacted the students' FLA levels and they were able to alleviate their anxiety to some extent.

Overall, both the descriptive and inferential statistics showed that although female and male students had different levels of anxiety before and after the WhatsApp experience, females were able to alleviate their anxieties more than males. Furthermore, using WhatsApp in speaking classes significantly impacted their FLA levels, indicating that they experienced less anxiety after the experience.

Qualitative Data Analysis Results

This section includes analysis of the focus group interviews conducted with the sub-sample of five interviewees in Turkish. First, the voice-recorded interviews were transcribed by one of the researchers. Then, the researcher translated the students' responses from Turkish to English. The other researcher of this study double-checked both the transcriptions and translations. The aim of conducting the interview in the learners' native language (e.g. Turkish) was to encourage more detailed responses. Finally, the analysis was made based on recurring themes following Gay, Mills and Airasian's (2009) coding and classifying approach. These analyses were used to answer the following research question: How do the students feel about the WhatsApp experience?

The analysis of the students' feelings about the WhatsApp activity experience indicated that they mostly liked the idea of using WhatsApp in the classroom and they felt that it contributed to their language performance. However, Student A did not have positive feelings about the experience. Some excerpts from the interviews are below:

> Actually I do not think it made me gain some experience. I was just a part of it because you want me to do it. I do not think it contributed anything to me. I try to pronounce words accurately and clearly. [Student A]

> I think it was very helpful. Listening my own voice afterwards over and over again helped me improve myself. [Student B]

> I think it improved our writing, speaking, and pronunciation. It made us see and understand ourselves in a better way. [Student C]

> I think this study was really good. I improved my pronunciation, and I speeded up making sentences. Now I think I can make conversations with my friends in English. I think it is a good activity. I recommend this. I liked it. [Student D]

> I have very positive opinion about it. Using such social application in education is really good. You had mentioned us that it may help us improve our speaking and make us gain more self-confidence. I already do not have such problems but I can see, and I hear some of my friends talking how they overcame such problems thanks to this activity. [Student E]

Next, students were asked to indicate the thing that affected them most during the experience. The students gave different answers to this question. Three students reported that it created an opportunity for listening to their voice-recordings themselves and this enabled them to find their mistakes. Furthermore, they felt they had more freedom in creating sentences while writing and speaking. Another student reported that feeling being able to speak and being listened to by other students affected him/her most.

> I was just wondering how my voice was on the recording. It was the only thing I cared. [Student A]

> Listening to my own voice afterwards over and over again, and the fact that other people listen the way I speak affected me most. [Student B]

> It helped me write well, and it made me understand my mistakes as I listen to myself. [Student C]

> Firstly, my pronunciation gets faster and improved. Instead of thinking, I speeded up making sentences not only in writing but also and speaking sentences. I liked it. [Student D]

> I had pronunciation problems. Before we recorded our speaking, we had help of our teacher to correct us. Then, we recorded ourselves after we practiced those pronunciations. Therefore, it helped me correct my pronunciation [Student E]

Finally, students indicated if they are eager to continue using WhatsApp for improving their language skills as a part of classroom activity for the future. Two students responded negatively; one student felt that the experience was boring and the other student was reluctant. However, other students reported that they could continue using WhatsApp either in classroom atmosphere or by making groups.

> If you want me to I will otherwise I won't because I think it is boring. [Student A]
>
> I don't think I will because 3 weeks was enough for me to improve myself. [Student B]
>
> It is hard to go on outside but if it went on in the classroom yes I want to continue. If the necessary conditions were present, I would continue. [Student C]
>
> Yes, I think maintaining this in the school. Especially with my foreign friends. [Student D]
>
> Yes, because when we do such group work, we improve ourselves as we both speak and listen others speaking. [Student E]

Conclusions

The quantitative data analysis suggests that even though males were experiencing higher level of anxiety than females, the females could lower their speaking anxiety more than males after the WhatsApp experience. Furthermore, the WhatsApp experience significantly impacted the students' FLA levels and they were able to lessen their anxieties somewhat and therefore they experienced less anxiety after the experience. The qualitative data analyses explained how this effect occurred. First, interview data analyses showed that the students mostly liked the WhatsApp activity experience and they felt that it could improve their language performance.

Second, the students reported that the experience gave them a chance to listen to their voice-recordings themselves and have their recordings evaluated by an audience, thus enabling them to self-evaluate by questioning their mistakes. In addition, the experience fostered their creativity in constructing new sentences in speech and writing.

Lastly, students were not sure about continuing to use WhatsApp for improving their language skills in a classroom atmosphere, but there is still a possibility to use it during in-class activities.

There are two major limitations that need to be addressed regarding this study. First, the interview data examined the situation from only students' perspectives; this might have limited the qualitative results of the study. Additionally, observations for student-student and student-teacher-interaction may be a viable alternative to interviews. Second, this study collected data only from English major students. Participants from different fields and from different proficiency levels in English may lead to different results.

In light of the limitations mentioned above, the following suggestions are proposed. First, the students were mostly enthusiastic toward the idea of using WhatsApp in classroom based on the interviews; this enthusiasm can foster language development. This result was supported by some previous literature (e.g. Al-Fahad, 2009; Hsu, 2013; Ilter, 2009). Even though this study did not examine the experience from the teachers' perspectives, several previous studies again confirmed that both teachers and students like using mobile devices in EFL classrooms (e.g. Arnold, 2007; Albirini, 2006; Cui & Wang, 2008; Golonka et al., 2014; Hashemi et al., 2011; Şad & Göktaş, 2014; Tayebinik & Puteh, 2012; Taylor, 2013; Ulusoy, 2006; Usun, 2003). Therefore, this study aligns with prior work (Ilter, 2009) that demonstrates that students can be motivated toward foreign language learning using such mobile technologies. Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis states that if learners have low motivation and high anxiety, such affective variables will act as obstacles for the delivery of input to the language acquisition device (McLaughlin, 1987).

Second, the students in this study reported that the WhatsApp experience offered them a chance to listen to their voice-recordings themselves and be evaluated by an audience. This made them feel good; therefore, they could become positively self-aware in self-evaluation by questioning their mistakes. Learner characteristics such as "inability to comprehend, self-perceived low level of anxiety, competitiveness, perfectionism, self-awareness, speaking activities, test anxiety, fluent speakers' presence, students' beliefs about language learning, lack of group membership with peers, fear of negative evaluation, negative classroom experiences, etc." (Nimat, 2013, p.23) cause anxiety. It can be suggested that the motivation and positive self-awareness levels of students can be increased by such a tool, and then they could develop a lower level affective filtering toward input.

Third, the students reported that they could see improvement in their pronunciation and other language skills. This result aligns with previous research (Alemi, et al., 2012; Çavuş & İbrahim, 2009¸ Lu, 2008). Therefore, EFL students should be trained to use this mobile application by forming groups with their classmates to improve language skills. Students could even be trained on how to use WhatsApp as a vocabulary learning strategy tool. For example, sharing new vocabulary they learnt after each class. Training students to use strategies plays an important role in fostering learner autonomy; learners become more autonomous as they take responsibility of their own learning (Ellis, 2008).

In addition, some students reported that it is not a good idea to use WhatsApp as an out-class activity. This may be because they are accustomed to teacher-based interaction in a conventional classroom setting. Some studies supported this finding (Hayati et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2010; Stockwell, 2010) as they suggested that such tools cannot replace teacher roles. Therefore, it can be suggested that teachers can develop new WhatsApp activities for pronunciation and vocabulary learning as in-class or out-of-class activities because some studies have found positive effects on improvement of pronunciation and vocabulary (Alemi, et al., 2012; Başoğlu & Akdemir, 2010; Lu, 2008; Saran, et al., 2009)

Lastly, the quantitative results of this study showed that there were greater decreases in anxiety among females after the WhatsApp experience. As reported by previous research (Ilter, 2009), females have more enthusiasm for using technology in language classrooms. This may explain why their anxiety levels decreased more than the levels of anxiety in the males.

In conclusion, from the perspective of educational practice, this paper provides new experimental data on the topic of MALL. It also gives evidence the use of mobile phones contribute to improvement of educational outcomes specifically promoting new learning (Valk, Rashid & Elder, 2014). As such, it helped students to individualize their learning. These research results might be included in the materials for teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) programs, language learning and teaching materials (Hayati et al., 2013) and might be taken into account within foreign language course planning procedure, particularly in course syllabi. Finally, this study did not examine the link between anxiety and students with different EFL proficiency levels and furthermore, teacher perspectives are not within the scope of this study. Further research should include participants with varying EFL proficiency levels and language teaching professionals.

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A Comparison of the Effect of Text-Picture and Audio-Picture Annotations in Second Language Vocabulary Recall among Iranian EFL Learners[1]

Una Comparación del Efecto del Uso de Anotaciones de Texto-Imagen y Audio-Imagen para Facilitar la Recordación de Vocabulario en Segunda Lengua en Estudiantes Iraníes de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera

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Abstract

The present study compared the effect of text-picture and audio-picture multi-media annotations in second language vocabulary recall among Iranian EFL learners. The participants were selected from two classes of 80 students who were studying advanced-level English at in a language institute in Iran. Their level of English proficiency was determined on the basis of their scores on the PET proficiency test. Sixty-two students were selected for the main procedure, and were then randomly divided into two experimental groups: the text-annotation and audio-annotation group; and a control group. After answering a vocabulary pretest, participants clicked on the highlighted unknown words to access available annotations while reading. The text-picture group was able to see textual explanation and pictorial description, and the audio-picture group was able to see pictorial description explanation and hear a spoken explanation. After reading, students completed the post-tests. The results of the study demonstrate that audio-picture annotation is more effective than text-picture

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annotation in facilitating immediate L2 vocabulary recall. The results suggest that providing audio or text annotation of new words can help recall of new vocabulary when reading.

Key words: Text annotation, audio annotation, multi-media annotation, vocabulary

Resumen

El presente estudio comparó el efecto del uso de anotaciones multimedia de texto-imagen y anotaciones de audio-imagen para facilitar la recordación de vocabulario en segunda lengua en estudiantes iraníes de inglés como lengua extranjera. Los participantes fueron seleccionados de dos aulas de clases de 80 estudiantes de nivel avanzado de inglés de un instituto de idiomas en Irán. El nivel de inglés de los participantes se determinó a partir de sus calificaciones en la prueba de proficiencia PET. Fueron seleccionados 62 estudiantes para el estudio general y posteriormente fueron divididos aleatoriamente en dos grupos experimentales: grupo de anotaciones de texto, grupo de anotaciones de audio y un grupo de control. Después de responder la prueba de vocabulario, los participantes hicieron clic en las palabras desconocidas para tener acceso a las anotaciones disponibles mientras realizaban la lectura. El grupo de estudiantes que utilizaron anotaciones de texto- imagen pudo visualizar la explicación textual y la descripción pictórica y el grupo que utilizó anotaciones de audio-imagen pudo ver la descripción pictórica y escuchar una explicación oral. Al terminar la lectura, los estudiantes finalizaron el examen final. Los resultados del estudio demostraron que el uso de anotaciones de audio-imagen es más eficaz que el uso de anotaciones texto-imagen para la recordación inmediata de vocabulario en segunda lengua. Los resultados sugieren que el proporcionar anotaciones de texto o audio de nuevas palabras puede ayudar a recordar vocabulario nuevo al leer.

Palabras claves: Anotación de texto, anotación de audio, anotación multimedia, vocabulario

Resumo

O presente estudo comparou o efeito do uso de anotações multimídia de texto-imagem e anotações de áudio-imagem para facilitar a recordação de vocabulário em segunda língua em estudantes iranianos de inglês como língua estrangeira. Os participantes foram selecionados de duas salas de aula de 80 estudantes de nível avançado de inglês de um instituto de idiomas no Irã. O nível de inglês dos participantes se determinou a partir de suas qualificações na prova de competência PET. Foram selecionados 62 estudantes para o estudo geral e posteriormente foram divididos aleatoriamente em dois grupos experimentais: grupo de anotações de texto, grupo de anotações de áudio e um grupo de controle. Depois de responder a prova de vocabulário, os participantes fizeram clique nas palavras desconhecidas para ter acesso às anotações disponíveis enquanto realizavam a leitura. O grupo de estudantes que utilizaram anotações de texto-imagem pôde visualizar a explicação textual e a descrição pictórica, e

o grupo que utilizou anotações de áudio-imagem pôde ver a descrição pictórica e escutar uma explicação oral. Ao terminar a leitura, os estudantes finalizaram a prova final. Os resultados do estudo demonstraram que o uso de anotações de áudio-imagem é mais eficaz que o uso de anotações texto-imagem para a recordação imediata de vocabulário em segunda língua. Os resultados sugerem que o proporcionar anotações de texto o áudio de novas palavras pode ajudar a lembrar do vocabulário novo ao ler.

Palavras claves: Anotação de texto, anotação de áudio, anotação multimídia, vocabulário

Introduction

Second language (L2) learners at all levels of ability encounter the problem of learning vocabulary. According to Nation (2001), a native speaker of English is aware of 20,000 word families. This poses a challenging task for English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. Vocabulary learning has generally been long overlooked within the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Nation, 2001, Zimmerman, 1997).

Recent years have observed augmented interest in L2 vocabulary research. According to Gass (1999), one relevant discussion is between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning. The difference between the two learning conditions involves the learning task, learner attention and the instructional context of the learning (Read, 2004). Both approaches have been found to aid the gradual learning of L2 vocabulary (Hulstijn, 2001). Second language research has also treated incidental vocabulary learning through reading (Nation, 2001). As Jacobs et al. (1994) states, this conforms to L2 learners' reports that vocabulary learning happens, in most cases, accidentally during reading or listening. However, L2 incidental vocabulary learning tends to be incremental and slow.

Jacobs, Dufon & Fong (1994), Joyce (1997) describe how annotation has been a standard characteristic in L2 reading, which aids in simplifying comprehension, and in which L2 vocabulary learning happens as a by-product. As an instructional intermediation, a note draws learner attention away from reading, and concentrates it on the form and meaning of the word, thus raising vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. This reflects the interactionist view of SLA (Long, 1996) and the depth of processing hypothesis. Rott, Williams, and Cameron (2002) and Watanabe (1997) describe how studies on the influences of text notation on L2 vocabulary learning and reading comprehension have produced mixed findings. Al-Seghayer (2001) stated that different from the traditional marginal notation, multimedia notations can draw vocabulary information in multiple modalities, including audio (sound) and visual (text, picture and video).

Studies have also taken into consideration the effects of various kinds of multimedia notations on incidental L2 vocabulary learning, specifically, the utilization of picture notation and video notation accompanied with text notation (Al-Seghayer, 2001). According to Paivio (1990), these studies scaffold double-coding theory and accept the cognitive theory of multimedia learning (Mayer, 2001), which describes how meaningful learning involves learners in both verbal and visual cognitive processing systems. Yoshii (2000, as cited in Al-

Seghayer, 2001) represented double notation of text and picture or text and video are unanimously discussed to be better than single notations in simplifying incidental L2 vocabulary learning .

In addition, Svenconis and Kerst (1995) and Yeh & Wang (2003) stated that research suggests that that the increase of an audio element to dual annotations does not seem to have a deterministic effect on L2 vocabulary learning. One possible illustration is that the information sent at the same time through different modalities (audio, verbal and visual) might excess the cognitive processing.

An overview of the studies on L2 vocabulary annotation, particularly multimedia annotation, offers that there is little information about how different dual annotations, specifically text-picture and audio-picture annotations, influence L2 vocabulary learning and reading comprehension in Iranian EFL context. This information is required to recognize the extent to which multimedia learning can be utilized in L2 reading teaching and the role of multimedia in L2 vocabulary learning in Iranian EFL context. The slight information on audio annotation in multimedia L2 learning in comparison to other multimedia annotations verdicts more examination. Furthermore, incidental and intentional vocabulary learning in a multimedia environment has never been studied. The influences of multimedia double notation using different modalities on L2 vocabulary learning and reading comprehension in incidental and intentional learning conditions remain unclear.

Motivated by prior studies on multimedia annotation and available slots in this literature, the overarching question considered in this study was how different dual annotations influence L2 vocabulary recall and reading comprehension in both incidental and intentional environments. This study was designed to expand our indelibility of the use of multimedia leaning in a second language acquisition setting through the framework of cognitive theory of multimedia learning to second language vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. It investigated the ways in which two different types of dual annotation, namely, text-picture and audio-picture, influenced L2 vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. Furthermore, it noticed the influential of multimedia annotation on L2 students' vocabulary learning in both incidental and intentional learning conditions.

This study was guided by the following research questions: 1) Does text-picture annotation play any significant role in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners? 2) Does audio-picture annotation play any significant role in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners? and 3) Is there any significant difference between the effect of text-picture and

audio-picture annotations in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners?

Literature Review

Text Annotation and L2 Vocabulary Learning

In printed reading materials, text annotations are often placed in the margin, at the bottom, or at the end of the reading text. In multimedia texts, when students click on an annotated word, they can observe the meaning of the word in a certain place of the computer screen. In this part, debate will be first concentrated on text annotation in printed reading texts, followed by a review of text annotation in multimedia texts.

Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996) examined incidental vocabulary learning for second language learners. Their study showed the utilization of marginal text annotation as an influential method. Other studies accepted that text annotation in printed reading text could reinforce second language learners' retention of vocabulary (Hulstijn, 1992).

Dufon and Hong's (1994) study on L2 Spanish reading used three formats: (1) no gloss, (2) L1 gloss and (3) L2 gloss. Their results demonstrated that students who had access to glosses did better than students without glosses on the immediate vocabulary translation post-test. Therefore, the effectiveness of gloss was not discovered in the delayed post-test four weeks later. Due to this, Jacobs et al. noticed that although gloss is preferred over no gloss, gloss only has a potentially positive effect on vocabulary acquisition with sufficient L2 competence. Furthermore, certain proficiency level was requisite to make effective use of L2 gloss. In conclusion, the positive relation between gloss and vocabulary learning was held, at least for immediate retention if not for long-term retention.

In order to examine the possible distinction between L1 and L2 glosses, Ko (1995) utilized a similar design as Jacobs, Dufon and Hong (as cited in Al-Seghayer, 2001) with 189 Korean college students learning English as a foreign language (EFL). Students took a vocabulary pre-test and were asked to read an 854-word English text. Contrary to Dufon and Hong (1994), the multiple-choice vocabulary post-test immediately after reading displayed important difference between L1 and L2 gloss. In other words, students with access to L1 gloss significantly outperformed those with access to L2 gloss. The effect was found significant in the delayed post-test one week later.

The effectiveness of L2 over L1 gloss in vocabulary retention was also challenged by Laufer and Shmueli's (1997) study. Hebrew-speaking high school EFL students (N=128) were asked to read an English text in which 10 target words were glossed in Hebrew and another 10 in English. Multiple-choice assessment was used in both the immediate and delayed post-test five weeks later. Both tests showed that L1 gloss resulted in more vocabulary retention than L2 gloss. This conflicts with the finding by Jacobs et al. (1994), but students' level of the second language in Laufer and Shmueli (1997) might be used as an explanation. Certain proficiency of the second language was necessary to fully utilize glosses in L2.

Picture Annotation

Visual assists have long been hypothesized to profit second language learning. Tuttle (as cited in Omaggio, 1979) discussed that "foreign language students can profit from many kinds of visual material to be a rich resource in the foreign language classroom" (p. 9). The use of imagery display of foreign words by real objects or imagery was also displayed by Kellogg and Howe (1971) to facilitate children's vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language.

A number of researchers have also investigated the effect of visual stimuli on L2 vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. Kellogg and Howe's (1971) study contrasted written words and pictures as key words for oral acquisition of Spanish vocabulary by children. The pictures produced faster learning of new words than the written stimuli. The effect was also kept in the long term as displayed by greater recall of words represented in pictures. Terrel (as cited in Kost et al, 1999) suggested that combining the form and visual representation of unknown L2 vocabulary assisted learners to acquire concrete ideas and references. In reviewing the techniques used in learning L2 vocabulary, Oxford and Crookall (1990) expressed the effectiveness of visual imagery and maintained that "most learners link new information to notions in memory by means of meaningful visual images, and that visual images make learning more influential" (p. 17) and "the pictorial-verbal combination contains many sections of the brain, thus providing greater cognitive power" (p. 17).

Omaggio's (1979) study focused on pictorial contexts to French as a second language students such as advanced organizers. It was assumed that the preparation of the other visual context would simplify reading comprehension. The outcomes represented that students with a pictorial context did significantly better on the recognition test and

recall than those with access only to text. This supported evidence of the positive effect of pictures on reading comprehension.

In annotation studies, picture annotation has been used to clarify the meaning of those unknown words second language learners encounter in reading. According to dual coding theory, the way learners comprehend pictures differs greatly from that of comprehending textual information (Paivio, 1990). In other words, text is processed by the verbal cognitive subsystem, while a picture is processed by the non-verbal cognitive subsystem. Research has compared L2 vocabulary learning from text annotation, picture annotation, and a combination of text and picture annotation.

Audio Annotation

It is worth noting that little research has been done on audio annotation. Audio annotation gives pronunciation, a sample sentence, and definition or meaning of a target word in spoken form. It has never been studied separately from other annotation modes, but mostly as an additive component. The only format in which audio annotation has been studied is the pronunciation of target words. Findings on audio annotation are rather mixed and uncertain.

Svenconis and Kerst (1995) investigated the effectiveness of semantic mapping techniques in L2 vocabulary learning in a hypertext environment. The participants (N=48) were English-speaking high school students in grades 9 through 12 learning Spanish as a second language. The 72 target words were presented in word listing and semantic mapping. In the multiple-choice vocabulary post-test, no significant effect was found for the word presentation method, which suggested that semantic mapping does not necessarily lead to better vocabulary retention than the traditional word listing method. But the group of semantic mapping with sound produced the highest overall mean score, higher than the other three groups.

Chun and Plass (1996) challenged the positive effect of audio annotation. In their studies, an audio component was added to three different annotations types (text, text-picture, and text-video); that is, a German native speaker pronounced each target word. Of the three successive studies, participants from the first and second studies were asked to report their use of retrieval cues for vocabulary learning. The authors suggest that the audio component was not useful in learning vocabulary since it showed very limited importance as a retrieval cue.

Methodology

Research Design

Training program. The interactive multimedia program used in this study was designed by the researcher to help intermediate EFL students with vocabulary learning. The program provided students with annotations for unknown words via hypermedia links in two different modes: text-picture and audio-picture. The annotations were used to assist the learning of unknown words. The program was written in HTML. HTML was chosen as the programming language due to its user-friendly integration of hypermedia and its compatibility for both PC platforms. The picture annotations were processed with Adobe Photoshop 6.0 (Adobe, 2000), and the audio clips were processed with Vegas 4.0 (Sonic Foundry, 2003). The screen was divided into two frames. The left screen was used for the reading text with the title at the top, and the right screen was reserved for the annotation. In the text-picture version, when participants click on a highlighted word, the right screen offers a textual definition of the words together with a picture that describes the word. In the audio-picture annotation, when participants click on a highlighted word, they could see on the right screen a picture that depicts the meaning of the word and hear an audio clip that explains the meaning of the word.

Procedure. The study was conducted during the participants' regular class time, and required two consecutive 50-minute sessions. The participants were randomly assigned to a control and two experimental groups: text-annotation and audio-annotation groups. In the first 50-minute session, the researcher first gave a brief introduction of the study and answered any questions that the participants might have. Then, two neighboring students had access to different annotations, one text-picture and the other audio-picture. In the computer lab, the researcher gave a brief introduction of the online reading activity. Headsets were used for those who were in the audio-picture annotation group. During reading, the participants clicked the highlighted unknown words to access available annotations. The text-picture group was able to see textual explanation and pictorial description, and the audio-picture group was able to see pictorial description explanation and hear a spoken explanation. When they finished reading, they raised their hands to receive the post-tests.

Participants

The participants in the study were selected from two intact classes consisting of 80 students studying English in at advance level in Bandar

Abbas, Iran. They had a mean age of 24 and had been studying English Translation as their field of study. Their level of English proficiency was determined on the basis of their scores on the PET proficiency test. Based on the results of PET proficiency test, those participants placed between one standard deviation above and below the mean were regarded as the main participants. Finally, 62 students were selected for main procedure and data analysis based on the research question. Then they were randomly selected to two experimental groups including text-annotation group and audio-annotation group, and a control group. Because some of the students were absent during the implementation of one of the tests, they were excluded from the main subjects resulted in 38 participants in the respective experimental groups and 20 in the control group.

Data Collection Instruments

General English Proficiency Test. The PET proficiency test was utilized to assess the subjects' level of proficiency in English. This test included 30 multiple-choice vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items. The researcher piloted the test with 27 students with the same level and similar characteristics to those of subjects of this study. It should be mentioned that the reliability of PET proficiency test estimated by KR-21 (Kudar Richardson) formula appeared to be .69.

Reading material. The reading text, "European Settlers of Australia," was written by the researcher based on three criteria: text length, syntactic complexity, and content. In terms of length, the text has 449 words (including the title). It consists of short, uncomplicated sentences and simple past tense is used throughout the text. There is an average of 6.8 sentences in each paragraph, and an average sentence contains 10.8 words. The percentage of simple sentences in the text is over 80%. With regard to the content, it seems reasonable to assume that ESL students knew more or less the same amount of general information about the European colonization of Australia and have comparable background knowledge of the reading text (i.e., since none has been to Australia and its history is foreign to all participants). The content of the text does not require any specific culturally related knowledge. The readability of the text is considered to be between grade level 5 and 6 based on the Flesch-Kincaid measure. It tells of the story of the European colonists in Australia in the 1800s. The text was given to experienced EFL instructors who teach reading/writing classes and was confirmed to be appropriate for advance students. The student's cloze score of 67% indicate that the reading text was appropriate for advanced students in terms of difficulty level.

Target words. The 20 target words were all nouns. They were selected for frequency. Based on the word frequency corpora of Francis and Kucera (1982), the 20 target words have a mean of 12.7 per million words. The reading text was modified into two different forms: a text with text-picture annotations, and a text with audio-picture annotations. The 20 target words were highlighted in both texts.

Word Recognition Test (WRT): The participants were asked to complete a Word Recognition Test (WRT) as pretest at the beginning of the study. In this test, the 20 target words were presented in their original context taken from the reading text. For each word, the participants were asked to choose one correct meaning out of four given choices. Of the four choices, one was the correct meaning, and the other three were distractors.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Research question 1: *Does text-picture annotation play any significant role in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners?*

In order to see whether we are able to use t-test as a parametric test, first we should check whether the data have been normally distributed or not. If the level of significance is more than 0.05, it indicates the normality of data distribution. Therefore, we can use parametric test for further data analysis.

Table 1. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for text-annotation, audio-annotation and control group

		Pretest text annotation	Pretest audio annotation	Pretest control
N		18	20	20
Normal Parameters(a,b)	Mean	4.33	4.25	4.20
	Std. Deviation	1.680	1.446	1.240
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.245	.269	.264
	Positive	.245	.269	.264
	Negative	-.158	-.194	-.167
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.041	1.201	1.181
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.229	.112	.123

As it is evident from Table 1, the result of normality test shows that p values of three groups (.229, .112, and .123) are more than significance level (0.05). Therefore, we can accept the assumption of normality and we can use paired sample t-test for comparing the results of pretest and posttest in text-annotation, audio-annotation and control group.

Table 2. Paired sample test for pre- and posttest vocabulary knowledge scores for samples in in text-annotation, and control group

Group	Pair	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Text annotation	Pre- and posttest	-6.056	1.259	.297	-20.407	17	.000
Control group	Pre- and posttest	.350	1.268	.284	1.234	19	.232

As is evident from Table 2, there is a significant difference between pre- and posttest in text-picture annotation group in Iranian EFL context (t=-20.407; P= .000). In other words, participants scored higher in posttest (M=10.39, SD=1.680), when they were exposed to text annotation during their reading, than pretest (M=4.33, SD= 1.680). With respect to this point, the first hypothesis *(text-picture annotation does not play any significant role in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners)* is rejected. In other words, text-picture annotation could play a significant role in learning new vocabularies during reading text. Regarding the control group, there is no significant difference between the students' vocabulary knowledge during pre and posttest (t=1.234; Sig= .232).

Research question 2. *Does audio-picture annotation play any significant role in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners?*

Table 3. Mean pre- and posttest of vocabulary knowledge scores for samples in audio picture annotation and control group

Group		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest for audio group	4.25	20	1.446	.323
	Posttest for audio group	12.55	20	1.731	.387
Pair 2	Pretest control	4.20	20	1.240	.277
	Posttest control	3.85	20	1.182	.264

As is evident from Table 4, there is a significant difference between pre- and posttest in audio-picture group in Iranian EFL context (t=-16.496; P= .000) when they were exposed to audio-picture annotation during reading. Further, it is clear from Table 3 that students learned new words better when they were exposed to audio-picture annotation (posttest) than the time they were not exposed to (pretest) (Mean=12.55 and 4.25, respectively). Therefore, the second hypothesis *(Audio-picture annotations does not play any significant role in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners)* is also rejected. In other words, audio-picture annotation could play a significant role on increasing adult EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. As far as the control group is concerned, as it is observed from Table 4, there is no significant difference between the students' performance in vocabulary knowledge after reading the text without any kind of annotation (t=1.234; P= .232).

Table 4. Paired sample test for pre- and posttest vocabulary knowledge in audio-picture and control group

Group	Pair	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Audio annotation group	Pre- and posttest	-8.300	2.250	.503	-16.496	19	.000
Control group	Pre- and posttest	.350	1.268	.284	1.234	19	.232

Research question 3: *Is there any significant difference between the effect of text-picture and audio-picture annotations in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners?*

In order to answer the third question, the vocabulary posttest in text-picture, audio-picture and control group were computed and then ANOVA was used to see whether there was any significant difference among the three groups in posttest stage. The following tables show the results:

The results of data analysis (ANOVA) in Table 5 below indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between text-picture group, audio-picture group and control group in the results of posttest because obtained F value of 181.376, was found to be significant at .001 level (P=.000). In other words, the third null hypothesis *(There is no significant difference between the effect of text-picture and audio-picture annotations in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall among Iranian EFL learners.)* is confirmed.

Table 5. Results of ANOVA for mean posttest scores of samples in text-annotation, audio-annotation, and control group

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	816.377	2	408.189	181.376	.000
Within Groups	123.778	55	2.251		
Total	940.155	57			

In order to see where the difference stands, the post hoc Scheffe test (see Table 6) showed that the audio-picture group performed significantly better than text-picture group (Mean=12.55 vs. Mean=10.39). Finally, text-picture group performed significantly better than control group (Mean =3.78 vs. 10.39). The results indicated that the scores of audio-picture group increased at a significantly higher rate than the text-picture and control group. As a result, audio-picture annotation was recognized to be the best method for learning new words during reading comprehension text.

Table 6. Post hoc Scheffe Test

	Group	N	Subset for alpha = .05		
			1	2	3
Scheffe(a,b)	control	20	3.85		
	Text	18		10.39	
	Audio	20			12.55
	Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Results

On the basis of the quantitative analyses, annotation provides an efficient way for learners to expand their vocabulary knowledge. Annotation can promote noticing of the target form, in semantic processing.

The first and second research questions addressed the effect of text type and audio type annotations. On average, participants retained 70% of the 20 target words on the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale. The average retention rates were comparable to previous multimedia annotation studies (e.g. Al-Seghayer, 2001; Yoshii, 2000). The results confirmed the impact of annotation in helping second language vocabulary learning. According to Paivio (1990), the main reason can be related to the dual-coding effect that words annotated with both verbal (text or audio) modes of information lead to effective vocabulary retention.

This study was designed to compare the effectiveness of text-picture annotation with audio-picture annotation on L2 vocabulary immediate recall. As shown by the above table, the audio-picture annotation group consistently outperformed the text-picture annotation group. The dual channel assumption, especially the modality principle, of the cognitive theory of multimedia learning can be used to explain this finding (Mayer, 2001). Mayer distinguishes the two separate channels for processing visual/pictorial and auditory/verbal information. The modality effect articulates that working memory has partially independent processors for handling visual and auditory information. The effective capacity of working memory could be increased by using both visual and auditory channels (Mayer & Moreno, 1998).

Text annotation and audio annotation are both verbally-presented information; thus both annotations contain a combination of verbal and non-verbal information. Based on the modality principle (Baddeley, 1999; Mayer, 2001), text annotation and picture annotation will be

processed by the visual channel, while audio annotation will be processed by the auditory channel. Therefore, in text-picture annotations, the simultaneous register of both text and picture caused the visual channel to be overloaded. This led to an information processing that was, at least initially, carried out solely in the visual working memory. Thus, the cognitive resources available in the visual working memory had to be divided between textual and pictorial information, whereas the auditory (phonological) working memory was left unused.

In comparison, in audio-picture annotations, the audio was registered by the auditory channel and processed in the phonological working memory, while the picture was registered by the visual channel and processed in the visual working memory. This combination allowed cognitive resources in both working memories to be used. In other words, more cognitive resources were utilized in audio-picture annotations than in text-picture annotations.

The preference of audio-picture annotation on L2 vocabulary immediate recall can also be explained with the split-attention principle (Mousavi, Low, & Seller, 1995). Participants with access to text-picture annotations had to split their attention in the visual working memory between multiple visual resources (written text and picture). Participants with access to audio-picture annotations approached the audio as an auditory resource and the picture as a visual resource through auditory working memory and visual working memory respectively, which did not require an attention split in either of the working memories. In this way, effective working memory might be increased by presenting information in a mixed (visual and auditory) rather than a unitary mode (visual only). Hence, audio-picture annotation resulted in higher vocabulary immediate recall than text-picture annotation.

Conclusions

Previous studies have examined the effects of multimedia annotations on L2 vocabulary learning. These studies have supported the effectiveness of multimedia annotations in facilitating L2 vocabulary learning. However, no study in second language acquisition has examined audio annotation in combination with text as a dual multimedia annotation type. This study focused on this issue by comparing audio-picture annotation to text-picture annotation in their effects on L2 vocabulary immediate recall.

The results of the study demonstrate that audio-picture annotation is more effective than text-picture annotation in facilitating L2 vocabulary

immediate recall. The results suggested that providing the new words whether in audio and text annotation during reading comprehension can help recalling new words. Some scholars investigated the effect of presenting different words and the results were inconsistent. For example, McKeown (as cited in Read, 2004) suggests that current dictionary definitions are not effective even in initiating the process of understanding word meaning, at least for younger learners. Nagy and Scott (as cited in Read, 2004) indicated a chief strength of definitions because they provide explicit information about word meanings that is normally only implicit in context; therefore, if a student is to learn a word, giving the specific meaning of a word may provide the best chance for competence. It is possible that older students may have a better understanding of how explicit definitions work and how to manipulate the meaning into other contexts.

It is important to note that students will need to be prepared to read and use weak or insufficient clues to unlock the meaning of new words in a variety of texts. This study suggests the need to allow more instructional time to support different types of annotation and to identify stories with well-developed clues so that students can develop a repertoire of different strategies to unlock the meaning of words in the different contexts in which the words are encountered.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will shed some light on blurred issues of text annotation and audio annotation and its effect on reading comprehension performance. Regarding theoretical implications, the findings of this study suggest a number of implications and extensions for the classroom. Firstly, this study adds to the growing body of research in multimedia annotation studies in second language acquisition. Previous multimedia annotation studies have focused on the comparison of text-picture annotation to text-only annotation or picture only annotation (Yoshii, 2000) or on the differences between text-picture annotation and text-video annotation (Al-Seghayer, 2001). However, audio annotation, as a different sensory modality from visual (text, picture), has never been studied before. The present study fills this gap in the literature.

This study provided the much-needed information on the effect of audio annotation on L2 vocabulary learning. By comparing audio-picture annotation to text-picture annotation, it shed light on the use of different dual annotations for multimedia L2 learning. The thesis has established that audio-picture annotation is superior over text-picture annotation in facilitating L2 vocabulary immediate recall. This contributes to the extension of the cognitive theory of multimedia

learning to second language learning by verifying both the modality effect and split-attention effect.

In addition to the contributions and implications for the field of second language acquisition, especially in the area of multimedia annotation research, this study provides some insights for CALL material designers in choosing the right combination of modalities in facilitating L2 vocabulary learning. This study confirmed that the use of audio-picture combinations facilitates L2 vocabulary immediate recall in a more effective manner than text-picture annotation. In designing multimedia courseware or materials, this finding could be taken into consideration when making decisions about presenting information in different modes. This could also inform language teachers and administrators in making decisions about the most effective multimedia programs to enhance L2 vocabulary learning.

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The Relationship between Language, Culture and Society: Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Positioning in Society[1]

La Relación entre Lenguaje, Cultura y Sociedad: El Posicionamiento de los Profesores de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera en la Sociedad

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Abstract

This paper reports on EFL teachers' career choices and societal positioning in different regions of the world. The researchers conducted a qualitative narrative study to analyze, understand and interpret the relationship that exists between language, culture and society in the positioning identified by international EFL teachers. Positioning theory and narrative research were used as the study's theoretical framework, and data collection tools included reflections, narratives and counter-narratives. Teachers' personal narratives show their strength in the illocutionary force through which they demonstrate their positions of agency, authority and empowerment.

Key words: EFL teachers, career choices, societal positioning, narratives, counter-narratives, qualitative research

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Resumen

Este artículo presenta un análisis de las opciones profesionales de los profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera y su posicionamiento social en diferentes regiones del mundo. Las investigadoras realizaron una investigación cualitativa basada en narrativas con el propósito de analizar, comprender e interpretar la relación que existe entre lenguaje, cultura y sociedad en el posicionamiento identificado por los profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera en el mundo. La teoría del posicionamiento y la investigación narrativa fueron usadas como marco teórico para el estudio, y las herramientas de recolección de datos incluyeron reflexiones, narrativas y contranarrativas. Las narrativas personales de los profesores reflejan su fuerza ilocucionaría a través de la cual expresan su posicionamiento como agentes con autoridad y empoderamiento.

Palabras clave: Profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera, opciones profesionales, posicionamiento social, narrativa, contranarrativa, investigación cualitativa

Resumo

Este artigo apresenta uma análise das opções profissionais dos professores de inglês como língua estrangeira e seu posicionamento social em diferentes regiões do mundo. As pesquisadoras realizaram uma pesquisa qualitativa baseada em narrativas com o propósito de analisar, compreender e interpretar a relação que existe entre linguagem, cultura e sociedade no posicionamento identificado pelos professores de inglês como língua estrangeira no mundo. A teoria do posicionamento e a pesquisa narrativa foram usadas como marco teórico para o estudo, e as ferramentas de coleta de dados incluíram reflexões, narrativas e contra-narrativas. As narrativas pessoais dos professores refletem sua força ilocucionária através da qual expressam seu posicionamento como agentes com autoridade e empoderamento.

Palavras clave: Professores de inglês como língua estrangeira, opções profissionais, posicionamento social, narrativa, contra-narrativa, pesquisa qualitativa

Introduction

Scholars have agreed on the expansion of English as an international language (McKay, 2002; Pennycook, 2010, 2014; Phan, 2008; Phillipson 1992, 2009). As Troike argues (in Phillipson, 1992), English developed its leadership in international communication between the 17th and 19th centuries, while Great Britain was leading in territorial conquest, colonization, and international trade. The influence of the English language increased after World War II when the United States of America became the world's most powerful military and technological power. During the postcolonial era, governments and private agents have been investing money to expand English in an international market that was looking for international commerce, development and communication (Pakir, 2009).

The expansion of the English language came with the promotion of English language teaching and learning worldwide (Graddol, 1997; Phillipson, 1992, 2009; Yano, 2001), and this scenario favored the proliferation of professional teacher development programs in different institutions around the world. The population, which is interested in attending these methods courses, are mainly composed of EFL in-service teachers, and in certain cases in-service teachers of English as a second language (ESL). Consequently, the researchers expect that this narrative study designed to analyze and understand EFL in-service teachers' reflections, narratives and counter-narratives about their career paths, career choices and beliefs about the relationship between language, culture and society can serve as a basis for improving teacher programs to develop the professional careers of teachers with varied backgrounds and expertise around the world.

Both researchers in this study have a special interest in teachers' professional development as well as in the education of future teachers who attend teacher education courses in international settings. They work in teacher development and research within different areas of knowledge related to the development of teacher education programs and teacher professional development.

The researchers designed a longitudinal international study to inquire into the lives and work of in -and pre-service teachers working and living in different regions of the world. During the first stage, participant in-service teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) were granted a non-threatening space and produced written reflections, narratives and counter-narratives about their career paths, specifically referring to the factors that influenced their career choices and their relationships with EFL, the culture and the society in various regions

of the world. Expanding to more teachers around the world, the study also contemplated the gathering of narrative data from EFL pre-service teachers, as well as data from pre- and in-service English language arts teachers from the U.S.

The first stage of the study involved data collection from EFL in-service teachers from different countries in the world, through both face-to-face encounters and via internet. These data consisted of written reflections, life stories and histories triggered by a semi-structured questionnaire, to which participants could refer freely. The second and third stages included the gathering of data from EFL pre-service teachers, as well as from in-and pre- service English language arts teachers in the U.S. Invitations were sent throughout the world and to local teacher education programs and schools.

The study was conducted with EFL in-service teachers from different regions in the world. The research questions that guided this study are:

1- How do EFL teachers in developing countries reflect about their positioning with language in culture and society?

2- How do EFL teachers' reflections, narratives and counter-narratives reflect their career choice and beliefs about language, culture and society?

The researchers conducted a qualitative narrative study to analyze, understand and interpret the relationship that exists between language, culture and society in the positioning identified by international EFL teachers. Positioning theory and narrative research were used as the study's theoretical framework, and data collection tools included reflections, narratives and counter-narratives. The researchers used Reissman's (2008) thematic analysis to analyze twenty-five EFL in-service teachers' narratives, counter-narratives and reflections. The researchers recognized 107 significant statements, which were clustered in 13 themes where EFL in-service teachers express their positioning within language, culture and society in diverse regions in the world. Teachers' personal narratives show their strength in the illocutionary force through which they demonstrate their positions of agency, authority and empowerment.

Literature Review

The International Growth of English

In the last 45 years, English has been recognized as the most widespread foreign language in the world. There are 115 million English learners added to 275 million native English speakers in the UK, the USA, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and some 'Anglophone' countries in Asia and Africa in the 1970's (Gage & Ohannessian, 1974). The Central and Eastern European countries expected 30 million English learners during the 1990's (1989/90 British Council Annual Report, as cited in Phillipson, 1992). Further, by 1995, there were 1,400 million people living in countries where English was the official language, and it was calculated that one out of five of the world's population spoke English at a certain level of proficiency (press release on British Council's English 2000 Project, as cited in Graddol, 1997). In the 2000's, the number of English learners (ELs) in China reached 300 million (Ragan & Jones, 2013).

Along this continuous growth in numbers of speakers and learners, English has reached a dominant position within a myriad of domains as varied as science, medicine and technology, international business, diplomacy, mass media, entertainment, journalism and education (Graddol, 1997; Kachru, 2006; Phillipson, 1992; Yano, 2001). English dominance has been established by its functional importance, its outreach and extent of influence, especially closing language barriers in situations of international communication (Kachru, 2006; Phillipson, 1992; Yano, 2001). Undoubtedly, English has been used as a means of mutual understanding in an era of multilateral and multicultural relations. Nevertheless, the unprecedented linguistic expansion of English has been considered problematic. Minor languages have been menaced with extinction, and a monolingual, monocultural understanding of English-speaking countries and their values and beliefs about the world have been imposed (Kachru, 2006; Yano, 2001).

Specialists have analyzed the historical dissemination of English in the world according to patterns of acquisition and functionality in which the language is used across different cultures and in contact with other languages. Phillipson (1992) refers to them as the *core* and *periphery* (p. 17). Kachru (1985, 2006) analyzes English expansion using three concentric circles: the *inner, outer (or extended)*, and the *expanding circles*. Yano (2001) explains further that within the inner circle, English is spoken as a native language (ENL), within the outer circle it is a second language (ESL), and in the expanding circle, it is a foreign language (EFL). Yano (2001) proposes some modifications to

Kachru (1985)'s concentric circles, especially between the inner and the outer circles. In this view, some ESL varieties are under a process of becoming more established as a result of the English language's functional and extensive penetration in diverse social, educational, administrative and academic domains in society. Consequently, more ESL speakers portray themselves as native, or "functional" native speakers, relying on their intuition to produce and/or judge grammatical and appropriate linguistic forms applicable to different situations (Graddol, 1997; Kachru, 1985, 2006; Yano, 2001).

This analysis is directed towards the removal of the concentricity model proposed by Kachru (1995, 2006) in favor of a parallel, comparative disposition of all English varieties, those spoken by native speakers, by "functional" native speakers and by nonnative speakers. Moreover, some EFL speakers can also become "functionally ESL speakers" because of their intensive and extensive exposure to and use of English. The rationale behind this is to overcome the monocultural and monolingual position British, American and other well-accepted standards of English have traditionally had as the model of language correctness. The tendency is to consider each "one of the varieties of English" as valuable means of communication within communities (Kachru, 2006; Yano, 2001).

The promotion of English language teaching and learning. Seldom does English pedagogy look into the political, economic and military relationships existing between the English language dominance and its educational promotion. English Language Teaching (ELT) has mainly developed a focus on linguistic or pedagogical matters, whereas in its core concept it is an activity with international political, economic, military and cultural implications (Graddol, 1997; Phillipson, 1992, 2009; Yano, 2001).

As discussed above, market demands on English as the language for progress and prosperity influenced English-speaking countries' language policies. English-speaking countries have been investing funds in promoting the teaching and learning of English worldwide. Consequently, English has been traditionally taught to support opposing objectives, on the one hand the development of specific scientific areas and education, and on the other hand, to spread a flavor for the institutional organizations and ways of thinking developed by English the cultures of speaking countries (Phillipson, 1992, Yano, 2001).

ELT in different regions of the world. According to Okushima (1995), and Pakir (1999), English has become a "glocal" language which has an international outreach, i.e. it affords global communication, but

at the same time favors local self-identity meaning within a social group among speakers in the outer circle (as cited in Yano, 2001; Graddol 1997; Kachru, 2006). Other scholars (Canagarajah, 2006; Pakir, 2009; Seidhofler, 2004) have described a different situation for speakers in the expanding circle (Kachru, 2006), who make use of English more as a 'lingua franca' (ELF) (Canagarajah, 2006; Pakir, 2009; Seidhofler, 2004). Seidhofler (2004) defines ELF as a language that serves as a means of communication among people who do not share a common L1 and/or a common cultural background. Consequently, the paradigm of English as an international language has been challenged in the 21st century by new alternatives of language use or appropriation, as well as innovative ways of teaching, learning and researching the English language and EFL teachers (Pakir, 2009).

When analyzing the reflections, narratives and counter-narratives elaborated by EFL in-service teachers, these alternative and innovative ways of teaching, learning and communicating in English open the door to new understandings of teachers' discourses and positionality in regards to EFL, culture and society. Post-colonial theory scholars (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 2006, Canagarajah, 1999; 2006; Menezes Jordao, 2008) have analyzed both linguistic and personal issues emanating from previous situations of domination in the ex-colonies. Postcolonial theory has discussed experience in diverse areas including hybridity, migration, slavery, resistance, agency, representation, difference, race, gender, and place, in the midst of historical, philosophical and linguistic studies that follow English monocultural, monolingual traditions (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 2006; Menezes Jordao, 2008).

In opposition to these monopolistic discourses, post-colonial theory has discussed the concept of hybridity, which has influenced linguistics (Canagarajah, 1999), as well as other areas of social life. Menezes Jordao (2008) discusses hybridity by means of explaining the concept of *difference*, which is a process of identification constructed discursively. The subject is also constructed and determined by means of discourse and at the same time, the subject determines discourse. Consequently, the individual is fragmented, contradictory and subject to change, exactly as the process of meaning-making, which fluctuates from moments of fixation but never becomes permanently fixed. These movements and fluctuations leave spaces in-between in which meanings can be created before becoming fixed and changed again (Menezes Jordao, 2008).

The in-between spaces mentioned above allow the development of concepts like resistance and agency (Bhabha, 1985; 1994; Menezes Jordao, 2008), which can be defined as systems developed from individuals' personal positioning in a 'bordering place' or 'third space'.

These new spaces, also called 'hybrid spaces', allow individuals to develop counter-narratives that challenge totalizing discourses, to express the in-stability of meanings and to reflect about their conflicting representations (Bhabha, 1995; 1994). Hybridity allows diverse forms of knowing and the development of agency and resistance that include uncertainty, ambivalence and doubt about former coherent discourses. Agency introduces different forms of representation (of self and others) and transformation through discourse. Individuals develop agency in their process of meaning-making, when producing discourses through which they define their ideas, kinds of knowledge and forms of knowing (Bhabha, 1985; 1994; Costa, 2006; Menezes Jordao, 2008).

The previous discussion explains the researchers' decision to use positioning theory as framework in this study. The career choice of EFL in-service teachers had been analyzed taking into account the teachers' cultural contexts, countries and regions of origin, as well as the socio-political and economical systems in which they live and in which they have made their professional decisions (Olan & Belló, 2016). However, the exploration of positioning theory to analyze the emergent themes in EFL teachers' narratives in regions of the world, the expanding circle according to Yano (2001) and Kachru (2006), can shed more light to the understanding of this population's career choices, career development and professional needs.

Positioning Theory

In order to develop the concept of positioning theory, Harré and van Langenhove (1999) pay attention to the local moral order as well as to the local system of rights, duties and obligations valid within different social groups. Such a system of local moral order is in a continuous process of change in which mutual and contestable rights and obligations come to life through the individuals' acting and speaking. Positioning allows us to: a) conduct a discursive analysis of personal stories that become comprehensible as social acts within which narrators have positioned themselves and, b) analyze new theoretical developments within the psychology of interpersonal encounters (Harré, 1998; Harré, Moghaddam, Cairnie, Rothbart, & Sabat, 2009; van Langenhove & Harré, 1999).

Harré (1998) defines "positioning theory" and compares the concept with that of the older framework of *role theory.* He describes roles as relatively fixed and long lasting in comparison to the more changeable and transitory *positions* in which individuals usually show a struggle for victory between opposing forces or interests.

The concept of *position* receives a specific meaning in the analysis of people's interactions, which are mediated by symbols that demonstrate their personal positions as individuals and as representatives of their groups. The technical meaning of position includes a collection of personal attributes, which dominate interpersonal, intergroup and intrapersonal actions led by individuals. Individuals act according to the assignment of rights, duties and obligations in which they have been positioned or in which they have positioned themselves (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999).

Methodology

Research Design

Narrative research analyzes experiences in the form of stories lived and told by individuals, both in oral and written form (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Creswell, 2013). Personal EFL in-service teachers' reflections, narratives and counter-narratives are used as a tool in educational research and professional development. Narratives afford individuals, in this case, teachers, the opportunity to analyze their past and present experiences, re-analyze their positions within the social contexts in which they live, and express their individual and subjective interpretation of the circumstances in which they live (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Hale, Snow-Gerono, & Morales, 2008; Nieto, 2003).

Riesman (2008) argues in favor of narratives that provide stories with more power than resistant subversive acts. New interest is being devoted to telling the story, which "makes the moment live beyond the moment" (Riesman, 2008, p. 11). Recently, researchers, teacher educators and scholars interested in teacher development are turning to narratives to foster meta-cognitive reflections, re-examination of assumptions, and shed light on implicit beliefs about teaching and learning. Hinchman and Hinchman's (1997) definition of narrative is used when depicting teachers' stories:

> Narratives (stories) in the human sciences should be defined provisionally as discourses with a clear sequential order that connects events in a meaningful way for a definite audience and thus offers insights about the world and/ or the people's experiences of it. (Hinchman & Hinchman, 1997, p. xvi)

The previous definition includes three common features, temporality, meaning and social encounter, which are also referenced as the triadic nature of stories. Goodson & Gill (2011) further explicate

these features by noting that these qualities, temporality, meaning and social encounter, characterize the nature of narratives (stories) as used in this study. They share a common assumption that there is a connection between "life as it is lived and life as told in personal narratives" (p. 4). Goodson & Gill (2011) define temporality by establishing that (a) "all narratives encompass a sequence of events," meaning is defined as (b) "all the personal significance and meaning[s] are externalized through the telling of lived experiences," and social encounters because (c) "all narratives are told to an audience and will inevitably be shaped by the relationship between teller and the listener" (p. 4). These three features are salient in teachers' stories and evidenced by our own examination of our participants' process of self-discovery, inquiry and growth.

Narratives and counter-narratives. Milner and Howard (2013, p.542) consider narratives and counter-narratives as valuable research tools with teacher populations, as they provide a means of elaborating and sharing lived experiences. Especially noticeable is the presence of counter-narratives within teachers' life stories and histories, defined as narrative spaces in which narrators share their experiences in ways they have never done before. Ladson-Billings (1998) argues in favor of counter-narratives as a means to study and define realities that are juxtaposed to prevalent narratives. Counter-narratives open doors to disruptions and re-interpretations of reality as expressed through pervasive, socially accepted stories.

Participants

Data were collected from different groups of EFL in-service teachers coming from different countries. Twelve of the participants were EFL in-service teachers from developing countries, namely Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Armenia, Jordan, Argentina, Ivory Coast, Dominican Republic, Haiti and Egypt. They had received a scholarship from the US Department of State via the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (ECA) to attend professional development courses at the largest metropolitan public research university in a southern-eastern state in the USA for six weeks. These teachers participated in the Teaching Excellence and Achievement Program (TEA) organized by IREX, an international nonprofit organization that provides leadership and innovative programs to promote positive global lasting change (IREX, 2014). The majority of these in-service teachers (N = 25) are middle aged (M age) = 40.32, SD = 7.028), and consequently traversing the middle stage of their careers. The majority (80%) are females, and (20%) are males.

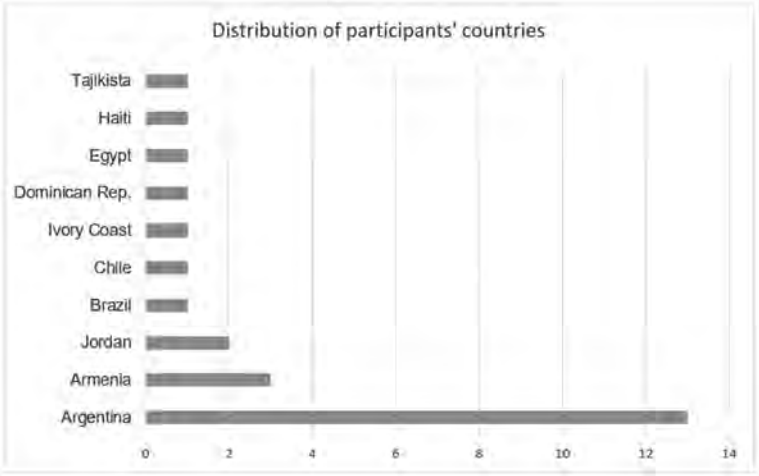

Figure 1. Participants' countries distribution

The other thirteen participants (mainly EFL teachers in Latin American countries) were contacted via e-mail. The first step consisted of sending an informed consent document, an introductory letter containing the study's general objectives, a semi-structured questionnaire and a demographic document. From the original large group that received the documents via e-mail, only thirteen EFL in-service teachers responded, eleven from Argentina and the other two from Brazil and Chile. The emic perspective of the participants was displayed by adding thorough description of their realities, not disregarding the limitations that might have existed during the process of data collection, as well as, within the participants' contexts (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 450).

Data Collection Instruments

The semi-structured questionnaire contained ten open-ended questions intended to elicit participants' written reflections, narratives and counter-narratives about their career paths, especially paying attention to their experiences surrounding their choice of career, their process of selection, the role of school and family among others. They provided relevant demographic data useful for the study's purposes (including nationality, age, gender, educational background, etc.).

Both groups, the one that answered the semi-structured interview during the face-to-face meeting and the one that responded via e-mail, were granted a non-threatening space, plus the necessary time to compose

narratives, counter-narratives and reflections about their previous and present lived experiences, thus providing the researchers with deep insight into the factors that influenced their career decision-making process. Researchers examined data produced by the participants taking an emic position and drawing from their own experiences as former teachers (Munro, 1998; Smith, 2012).

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The researchers decided on a thematic analysis (Riesman, 2008) to provide an analysis according to the research questions that had been established to guide the study. After analyzing twenty-five EFL in-service teachers' narratives, counter-narratives and reflections, the researchers recognized thirteen themes in which EFL in-service teachers express their positioning within language, culture and society. A total of 107 statements were analyzed and 13 themes identified in the reflections, narratives and counter-narratives produced by the teachers.

Findings and discussions are fundamental to draw important implications to influence necessary changes in teacher education programs and professional development programs. The following analysis addresses the first research question: *How do EFL teachers from different regions in the world reflect about their positioning with language in culture and society?*

Table 1. EFL teachers' positioning within language, culture and society

Lack of reference to students/teaching-learning process	22
Express their own decision in career choice/agency not asking for help	19
Authority in their position as teachers	17
Satisfaction with career	11
Pride in skill in the English language/long time dedication	11

The table below shows the main themes analyzed and their frequency as per the second research question: *How do EFL teachers' reflections, narratives and counter-narratives reflect their career choice and beliefs about language, culture and society?*

Table 2. EFL teachers' reflection about their career choice and beliefs about language, culture and society. There are nine (N= 9) themes and 91 sentences analyzed (N = 91).

I have liked / loved English since childhood	14
Family happiness	12
Possibility to study at university	10
Skills for other professions (of better hierarchy)	9
Poor salary	9
Skills for teaching	6

The Positioning Triangle

The following below depict the three background conditions that guarantee the meanings of symbolic interactions that determine each other: a) an illocutionary force of discourse and acts, i.e. the social significance of what is being said and done at a specific place and time (Austin, 1959); b) pre-existing, socially accepted positions individuals use; and c) human episodes shaped by one or more story lines on which the participants agree (Harré, 1998).

The schematic representation is as follows:

Position (s)

Illocutionary force(s) Story line(s)

EFL teachers' reflections, narratives and counter-narratives represent their interpersonal relationships, need to find a job, to establish a teaching career and demonstrate language mastery. Tables 3 a) and b) explain the thematic analysis corresponding to the illocutionary discursive force and the pre-existing socially accepted positions developed along EFL teachers' lives.

Table 3a. EFL teachers demonstrate language mastery by referring to their pride in their knowledge of EFL and the power with which there are endowed

Pride in skill in the English language/long time dedication	11

Table 3b. Category 1: EFL teachers represent interpersonal relationships

Influence of family/near family (positive)	24
Influence of family/near family (negative)	10
Follow models in family/society	9
Encouragement/motivation from family	7

Table 3b. Category 2: EFL teachers need to find a job/establish a teaching career

Pride in skill in the English language/long time dedication	11
Job opportunities (studying English Language Teaching)	7
Teaching not first choice	6
Skills for teaching	6
English to work on tourism/travelling/translation	3
Develop studs. skills/abilities	1

Results

Positioning and Pedagogical Storylines

Data analysis provided examples of reflections, narratives and counter-narratives in which participants follow different story lines (Harré, 1998) to refer to their positioning in relationship to language, culture and society. Maria's narrative reflection forcefully explains her position of authority in the career decision she had made, establishes how important the analysis of her past experiences are and shows a clear story line in which different actors played a role, at the same time as they defined their own positions.

> When I graduated, I was confused as to what career I wanted to pursue. I was in between Psychology and English. Either road I decided to take, I knew I was going to be working with people, which I have always thought it fit my personality. In many ways, a teacher sometimes plays the role of a counselor in her students' lives, so my choices were not too far apart. In the end, I picked English. My choice was influenced by my naïve impression the English I had taken for over ten years at a local school in my hometown was more than enough to afford me outstanding grades in the English program. Little did I know about the difficulties I would face in not just dealing with the complexity of the language but also the meanness of some of my professors. My decision was also

> influenced by my mother's insistence. I was usually too sensitive and too sympathetic to people's feelings to become a professional, emotionally detached therapist. I do not know if I would have made a good therapist or not. My mother was probably right about her assessment of my character and suitability (or lack of) for a career in Psychology. Even then, I feel that my capacity for compassion has proved to be a great asset in my teaching career. However, at the time I started the English program I was not thrilled about teaching. I had yet to discover my passion for it. (Maria, Argentina).

Language – Thought and Language – Action Relationships

Thinking has an intrapersonal dimension as well as an interpersonal scope because it can be both a private and a social – public activity. Examples from the present data set include episodes in which thinking spreads out and covers the individual and the public domains, especially when teachers reflect on their career choice decision-making process privately, but they also seek to discuss it publicly seeking for advice on the best course of action from their families and friends. Indirect influences from these opinions show in their actions and declarations (Harré, 1998). An example provided by Silvia shows the intermingle between thinking being a private and social activity:

> A couple of times I needed help because I felt confused as regards my career. I doubted, I didn't know if I was competent enough in the foreign language. My teacher helped every time I needed.
>
> I remember that I had failed an exam, something that surprised her very much since I was doing it very well and I studied very hard. She called me and had a few words with me. Those words made me changed my mind. Since I felt frustrated I wanted to quit the career. She didn't know anything about it but she talked to me at the right time. She said that learning a language was like learning a musical instrument, you need to have the ability, your hearing is essential. She also told me that she could observe -according to her vast teaching experience-that some students didn't have that capacity, they insisted on learning English and in the end they failed. She concluded by saying "You can play a musical instrument, I bet you can. After this conversation I decided to continue with my studies and I finished my career."(Silvia, Argentina).

Positioning, Selfhood and Discourse

Harré & van Langenhove (1999) develop the concept of identity as a conjunction of the personal identity evidenced in the word "self" or in each individual's personal agency and the "selves" presented in

public interpersonal interactions in the everyday world, sometimes called "personas." Individuals display their particular selfhood by using discursive devices as the first person pronoun "I" with which they indicate their ownership of their sayings and acts, as well as their commitment to the contents and consequences expressed in their discursive acts. These authors discuss that indexicals, like "I", "you", "we", "this" and "now" express each individual's personal identity and agency. The meanings implied in the use of indexicals can only be completed with the knowledge of the speaker or narrator that used them, as well as of the place and time in which they were used (Harré, 1998; Harré & van Langenhove, 1999, p.7). The following examples from the data set provide us with a clearer idea:

> Usually in Jordan we go to the university according to our grade in an standardized exam and because English, and foreign language, are the best opportunity to find a good job, that is why I choosed it. (Hanadi, Jordan).
>
> This is what I have been doing since 2003 and I love it. I love being amongst teachers, sharing and learning with them. I had the chance to work with teachers for the last 10 years and I can say this is really fulfilling for me. (Daniela, Brazil).

Individuals display their "personas" in discursive acts including declarations and written narrations. In the specific case of written narrations, narrators introduce themselves and others as characters and choose the needed vocabulary to tell their stories. The indexicals "I", "me", "myself", "my" and "mine" are used to tell publicly the lived experiences of the individual "self" (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999, p.8). Consider the following examples:

> May be my dad had once mentioned the fact that I could have travelled abroad to study politics. I thought about that for a while but could not see myself anywhere else but teaching and learning from my students!!! (Guadalupe, Argentina).
>
> I make decisions by myself but sometimes with my family. (Ruslan, Uzbekistan).

There is a singularity of the "self," but a multiplicity of "personas" dependent on the social context. The present data analysis expresses different positioning of the teachers, for example: their decision to leave out direct references about students and the teaching-learning process, their agency in the process of decision-making, their authority in the

position as teachers, their satisfaction with their careers and pride in their command of the English language. For example, Sana states the following:

> I selected my career following the career of my father and my English teacher. I liked the language the way it sounded and the power it endowed me with. (Sana, Jordan).

In each different position, the "persona" and his/her behavior are different given the exigencies of the social situation. Each particular case of "self" is constructed according to the constant exchange and interrelationship with the environment. The meaning implied by the narrator will be understood depending on the storyline created and on how coherent is the public "self" that has been developed in the situation (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999, p.9).

Caring

Following the construct of positioning we would like to discuss the concept of the caring relation in which there is a person who is the carer and another who is the cared-for (Noddings, 2012). Noddings (2012) notes that the carer is in a sense "feeling with" the cared-for by attending to his or her needs; however, the cared-for plays an extremely important role, i.e. responds to the carer and acknowledges that the act of care has taken place. Both parties need to recognize the response in order for it to be a true caring relation. The author distinguishes virtue-caring as the relationship in which there is no response from the cared-for versus the relationship in which carer and cared-for play an important role. Noddings (2012) refers to this mutual recognition of the response as reciprocity. In order for the carer to continue the caring relation with the cared-for, he or she needs the support of a caring community. This caring community may or may not contribute to this reciprocity. Noddings (2012) also points out that caregiving activities supported by people who are genuine carers tend to promote the development of a caring attitude or disposition.

In this particular study, the relationship between carer and cared-for is demonstrated through language mastery and language learning. This creates distinction between what Noddings (2012) refers to as virtue-caring in which there is no response from the cared-for and the relation in which both parties play an important role. The in-service teachers' reflections, narratives and counter-narratives afforded the researchers a different perspective to caregiver-student relationship.

Cultures of care are important to understanding the purpose of this study. These teachers had opportunities to express in written form their career choice process, the relationship language, culture and society play and how caring is situated in their teaching and learning.

Conclusions

Drawing from the past discussion, we consider that more research is necessary as regards the factors that influence EFL teachers' career choices. Positioning theory has provided an excellent framework to demonstrate the positions of agency and authority in which participants identify themselves. Participants move away from the "carer" role society has traditionally endowed them with, towards a more movable and challenging position of self-assurance and empowerment. Mastery of EFL grants them a privileged position in society.

This study has provided participants with a framework for reflection, a nonthreatening space and a valid opportunity to express their own voice. The concept of narrative pedagogy (Goodson & Gill, 2011) has been introduced as a facilitating framework within which individuals can reflect deeply, re-visit their own selves, collaborate with meaningful others in their process of self re-definition and provide meaning to their past experiences and lives through the lenses of their present historical reality. Thus the value of narrative pedagogy in education, especially in helping the individual shape learning experiences from within (pp. xi-xii).

Even when Goodson & Gill (2011) have analyzed different areas related to narrative pedagogy, a deeper understanding of this construct can favor its application in teacher education and professional development programs. Further research is necessary to collaborate with a more general process of pedagogical innovation conducive towards the application of narrativity in the macro spectrum of education (Goodson & Gill, 2011).

It is the researchers' hope to draw pedagogical and institutional implications from the present study. In-service teachers demonstrate that they can revisit and reflect on their lived experiences, collaborate with others in dialogic interactions and develop a reflective stance when guided through inquiry driven activities to formulate narratives, counter-narratives and written reflections. In-service teachers would benefit from specially designed professional development methods courses in which they are afforded non-threatening spaces to elaborate on the experiences that surrounded their career choice for them to approach new learning and practical experiences more effectively.

Further research is necessary to analyze EFL teachers' process of identity re-definition, levels of sustained motivation and satisfaction and the needs they have while traversing the middle stage of their professional lives. More in depth discourse analysis can shed light on how language plays a paramount role in the development of their professional identities.

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A Narrative Inquiry into Pre-service English Teachers' Imagined Identities[1]

Una Investigación Narrativa sobre las Identidades Imaginadas de Profesores de Inglés en Formación

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Abstract

This paper explores co-construction processes of EIL (English as an international language) pre-service teacher identity in an undergraduate English Teacher Education Program at an Argentinean state university. The study focuses on the professional nature of future language teachers' identities expressed in the individual stories the young people co-composed with the author working as participant researcher. The design employed narrative inquiry as a research methodology whose techniques allow the gathering of field texts inside and outside the Program's classrooms. The overall study included 24 sophomores whose professional identities were conceptualized narratively during the 18-month-long inquiry. This paper offers four participants' accounts, evincing the co-authoring of an imagined (future) teacher identity. After rendering the students' stories, we briefly discuss some implications this power of envisioning the (prospective) teaching self may have for EIL teacher education.

Keywords: Higher education, in-service English teacher education, narrative inquiry, identity co-construction process.

Resumen

Este trabajo explora procesos de co-construcción de la identidad profesional de docentes de ILI (inglés como lenguaje internacional) durante su formación como profesores de inglés en una universidad estatal argentina. El estudio se centra en el carácter profesional de las identidades de estos futuros docentes

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expresados en las historias individuales compuestas conjuntamente con la autora que trabajó como investigadora participante en el proyecto. El diseño metodológico empleado fue la investigación narrativa cuyas técnicas permiten la recopilación de textos de campo dentro y fuera de las aulas de clase del programa. El estudio completo incluyó 24 participantes cuyas identidades fueron concebidas de modo narrativo durante 18 meses. Este artículo presenta los relatos de cuatro estudiantes, resultado de la construcción conjunta de la futura identidad docente imaginada. Después de la interpretación de las historias de los estudiantes, el artículo discurre brevemente sobre algunas implicancias de visualizar la identidad docente en la formación de profesores de inglés.

Palabras clave: Educación superior, formación inicial de profesores de inglés, investigación narrativa, procesos de co-construcción identitaria.

Resumo

Este trabalho explora processos de co-construção da identidade profissional de docentes de ILI (inglês como linguagem internacional) durante a sua formação como professores de inglês em uma universidade estadual argentina. O estudo se centra no caráter profissional das identidades destes futuros docentes expressados nas histórias individuais compostas conjuntamente com a autora que trabalhou como pesquisadora participante no projeto. O desenho metodológico empregado foi a pesquisa narrativa cujas técnicas permitem a recopilação de textos de campo dentro e fora das salas de aula do programa. O estudo completo incluiu 24 participantes cujas identidades foram concebidas de modo narrativo durante 18 meses. Este artigo apresenta os relatos de quatro estudantes, resultado da construção conjunta da futura identidade docente imaginada. Depois da interpretação das histórias dos estudantes, discutiu-se brevemente algumas implicações de visualizar a identidade docente na formação de professores de inglês.

Palavras clave: Educação superior, formação inicial de professores de inglês, pesquisa narrativa, processos de co-construção de identidade.

Introduction

The teaching and learning of English as an international language (EIL) in Spanish-speaking South America constitute rich areas for studying processes of in-service teacher identity construction, which have remained to date mostly under researched in this milieu (Renart & Banegas, 2013). As opposed to English as a second language (ESL) and English as lingua franca (ELF) contexts (Norton, 1997, 2013), our setting constitutes an interesting field for exploring the professional aspects of that identity (Czerniawski, 2013; Day & Sachs, 2009), away from essentialist native-nonnative speaker dichotomies (Holliday, 2009).

This paper stems from an overall narrative research aimed at understanding meaningful local, situated, identity construction processes of future English teachers studying in an Argentinean state university by posing the interpretive question "how do these undergraduates' stories negotiate the development of their professional identity?" To carry out this qualitative research, we utilized the methodology and field-text gathering processes of narrative inquiry (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006), working inside and outside the EIL classroom with 24 sophomores whose identity narratives in English—the language of instruction in their teacher education program—we co-composed over an 18-month-long phase. Through narrative analysis (Creswell, 2012) and contra punctual reading of the literature, we coined four teacher identities as desired (Zembylas, 2007), passionate (Day, & Sachs, 2009), fluid (Giroir, 2014), and imagined (Anderson, 1983). This article focuses on the imagined identities of four undergraduates. Their storied negotiations of their envisioning how to become EIL teachers suggest insights into the complexities of initial teacher education curriculum and practices framed within a South American Spanish-speaking setting.

Literature Review

Initially, ELT signaled its concern with the relationship between teacher and learner identity in 1997 with the publication of *TESOL Quarterly's* seminal monographic volume. Moving beyond linguistics, the editor defined the concept as indicating "how people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future" (Norton, 1997, p. 410). The paper's preoccupation hinged on the last terms, i.e. "the ownership of English," problematizing the *rights of property* to which speakers (self)characterized as belonging to different ethnic, socio-cultural, geographical, and linguistic

backgrounds, should be entitled—or not. These questions are relevant to those ESL/ELF spaces (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014), in which identification issues concerning native/non-native speakers' economic, social, cultural, linguistic, and symbolic capitals (Bourdieu, 1984), together with their ethnicity, have been revealed away from simplifying polarities (Canagarajah, 2007).

Research on students' motivation and investments in their ESL/ELF learning selves (Norton, 2000, 2013); their member status in varied discursive groups (Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011); and efforts to suppress splits between the subjectivities of native and non-native speakers of English (Holliday, 2009) has progressively emerged in ESL/ELF, mostly within North America, Europe, and Asia. For example, Norton's ground-breaking work (2000, 2013) has focused on the constraints of ethnicity, gender, and class, and how these constrictions affected the investment that migrant female ESL learners (Polish, Vietnamese, Czechoslovakian, and Peruvian) made to acquire the language in Canada. Benson and Nunan's (2005) work originating in their narrative research in Hong Kong presents studies carried out in the UK, wide-ranging Asian locations, and New Zealand, with European, (East) Asian, and Middle Eastern students of English who were constructing their language-learner identities. More recently, Nunan and Choi (2011) have compiled identity narratives by European, American, Australian, and Asian instructors, students, specialists, and researchers.

English teachers' identities have increasingly become the focus of many studies. Tsui's (2007) narrative inquiry into a Chinese EIL teacher struggling to position his multiple identities was pivotal in her country where research has been gradually carried out on the pedagogical identity crises suffered by an EFL university teacher (Liu & Xu, 2011). Others include studies of EFL teachers' narrative construction as university researchers (Xu, 2014); and Hong-Kong's and mainland China's pre-service EFL teachers' identities (Gu & Benson, 2014). Hayes' (2009) case study of an EFL Thai teacher in a state school has underscored the need to learn about teachers and teaching in world places—such as ours in the Southern Cone—where most English is taught but the least research is done. In the US, Zacharias (2010) probed into the identity construction processes of 12 Asian teachers in a TESOL graduate program. In continental Europe, Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate (2015) recently studied the development of agentic identity in freshman EFL Finnish student-teachers.

Hispanophone South America is a large area with long standing EIL (Sharifian, 2009) learning and teacher education programs.

However, teachers' and students' voices regarding their identity construction processes have remained basically under-represented and deemphasized in the literature (Barahona, 2016), albeit in some recent contributions (Arias, 2014; Renart & Banegas, 2013; Sarasa, 2014). In our own pre- and in-service teacher education, identity is examined in terms of its professional features, rather than non-existing local dichotomies between native and non-native speakers. The term professional has signposted the "complex amalgam combining teacher biography, identity work, and the values embedded within different communities of practice" (Czerniawski, 2013, p. 383), another comparatively novel category indicating "groups of people… bound together by shared expertise and passion for a joint enterprise" (Wenger & Snyder, 2000, p. 139). Along these lines, narrative inquiry has defined teacher professional identity as "narrative life compositions" (Clandinin, Cave, & Cave, 2011, p. 1), expressed by "stories to live by" (Clandinin, Downey & Huber, 2009, p. 141). Thus, ontologically and epistemologically, "thinking of life as a story is a powerful way to imagine who we are, where we have been, and where we are going… We live stories. When we talk to others about ourselves we tell life stories (Connelly & Clandinin, 1994, pp. 149-150).

For over a decade now, studies on English teachers' and students' identities have converged with narrative inquiry (Bell, 2002; Pavlenko, 2002). The profession has fairly lately coined the notion of narrative knowledging as "an umbrella term to refer to the meaning making, learning or knowledge construction that takes place at all stages of a narrative research project" (Barkhuizen, 2011, p. 5). These developments have been probing rewardingly into those local, situated teachers' identity construction processes advocated by the literature (Canagarajah, 2005) as vital to the fields of ELT and EIL. Those endeavors are also fundamental to underpin continuous professional development (Johnson & Golombek, 2011) in a world zone like ours, where EIL is taught and learnt for worldwide communication beyond its continental borders.

Methodology

Research Design

Our research is inscribed in the qualitative paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It involves a narrative inquiry into the development of pre-service EIL teachers' professional identity. Ontologically and epistemologically, narrative inquiry—originally created by Connelly and Clandinin in their pivotal 1990 paper—encompasses "the study

of experience as story" (Dewey, 1998/1938), thus requiring a narrated "view of experience as phenomenon under study" (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006, p. 375).

Context and Participants

The local context involved 24 Argentinean undergraduates attending an advanced English language communication course in an English teacher education program at an Argentinean state university. Most narratives were gathered in the second semester of 2014, during ten classes taught exclusively in English, led by the assistant professor, and accompanied by two teaching assistants. The year 2015 was devoted to co-composing 24 individual narratives and to validation encounters. Since I am a teacher educator within the program, my research evinces strengths and weaknesses inherent to a qualitative study involving a participant researcher. Apart from requesting and obtaining students' informed consent, I took ethical safeguards (Clandinin & Murphy, 2009) in order to render the inquiry transparent while shunning power asymmetries or infliction of undue discomfort.

Data Collection Instruments

Instruments for registering oral and written field texts (Clandinin & Caine, 2013) within and without the classroom drew on life story interview techniques (McAdams, 2008), including the following, performed in English, the language of instruction in the course and the teacher education program: a) a personal information sheet; b) narratives on fictional and family stories, educational and linguistic biographies, memorable teachers, real life heroes, and significant challenges; c) an identity essay; d) a memory box on life's turning points; and e) a group dialogue on wise academic decisions. Communication with participants also involved bilingual (English-Spanish, as the inside/outside of class settings dictated) face-to-face exchanges, emails, and interaction on the virtual learning environment to co-compose the content of the 24 narratives while emerging categories were validated (Creswell, 2007, 2012) during virtual and personal exchanges throughout 2015.

The decision to gather the texts within the classroom—in the context of an advanced English communication course—and through the medium of the English language was grounded in several reasons. First, university English teacher education programs in Argentina only accept candidates with an advanced command of the language. This means that most cultural, linguistic, and pedagogic courses involve academic

disciplines taught in English, using authentic materials suitable for native speakers of the language studying those same subjects at college level. In this milieu, students naturally expect, and are expected, to use only English in the classroom, the means and object of instruction, and the content they will one day teach. Second, the literature reports on the benefits inherent to non-native speakers' writing experiences in EIL since identity reflection is enhanced when voiced in the target language. This also allows them to manifest their voices through their vast EIL linguistic resources (Norton, 1997, 2000, 2013). Finally, the use of EIL involves our participants' very teaching identities while the fact that they are hyper-aware EIL users enhances their stories' verisimilitude (Kramsch & Lam, 1999).

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The co-configuration of stories and their analysis involve the researcher's narrative categorization of participants' identities (Creswell, 2007, 2012) since retelling means conceptualizing (Britzman, 2003). Identities were first structured along a throughline obtained from students' accounts. I categorized four original identity plotlines conceptualized as *desired, passionate, imagined,* and *in transit*. Due to space constraints, we present imagined teacher professional identities emerging from four participants' own compositions in the English language—the means and object of instruction in the teacher education program—highlighting their original authorial English quotes in the texts below, according to the long-established tenets of narrative inquiry (Cortazzi, 2001).

Results

Drawing on students' narratives, we coined professional identities driven by *desire* (Zembylas, 2007); *passion for teaching* (Day, & Sachs, 2009); *fluidity* (Giroir, 2014); and *imagination*. These four stories of envisioned identity resignify Anderson's imagined communities, whose "members… will never know most of their fellow-members… yet in the minds of each lives the image of their communion" (1983, p. 6).

James Nicholas White

With enough hard work and planning I am certain that anyone can find one's own style and become a great teacher.

James was born in a nearby city in 1990. His chosen pseudonym combines his translated names with White Fang's surname in London's eponymous novel. James loves the epic genre he has read in *The Iliad* and watched in *Spartacus* because it "portrays some of the greatest virtues of men, such as love, brotherhood, honor, and perseverance." His hero is American social engineer Jacque Fresco, "whose idea of a global socioeconomic system based on social cooperation and scientific methodology will come true."

James attended a Catholic parochial school in our city where he started English in second grade. When he began watching American TV series with his elder siblings, he picked up the sounds of the language by relating them to their Spanish screen subtitles. At about 11, he started playing video games whose English captions he read out loud, acting out character roles and imitating the pronunciations heard on TV. By age 14, "I had learned a lot more English at home than at school and it was no wonder how I was getting good grades. The more I learned English on my own, the more I thought I had a gift and my motivation to keep learning kept growing." His family could not afford private lessons but a schoolteacher spotted his "virtues" and encouraged him to continue learning on his own. His educational experience was not smooth since in junior high he was bullied as a "geek" by the "cool kids." When he started playing basketball he found an exit from this "dark place." His identity essay reflects these struggles:

> I am one of the billions of people who have been heartbroken, hurt, bullied, or abused in any way at some point in their lives. I am one of the people who are still standing. I am one of the people who see every difficult experience as a learning experience and an opportunity to grow stronger… I am one of the people who are reluctant to go to a shrink for that kind of counseling, believing the answer lies within them.

James' memorable schoolteachers include his exact science instructor who tailored her lessons to foster understanding of Newton's Third Law of Motion. His physics teacher introduced gravity empirically, encouraging his students to think critically. James is aware of "that kind of teaching [that] draws me more into pedagogy than the teaching of a specific discipline." When he graduated from school, he enrolled in biochemistry. With hindsight, he realized he had been overconfident and underprepared. His neglect of his studies was compounded as he started dating a classmate who left him devastated when she ended their relationship. In 2010, he entered the English teacher education program "to do something I had always been good at: English… so I figured I might use that talent as a future profession."

In his personal information file, James indicated that, by August 2014, he had taken 11 finals out of the 32 the curriculum prescribes. Two freshman courses proved to be enlightening for him. In the first, he underwent an epiphany after reading Frank McCourt's *Teacher Man,* a book he deems should be compulsory for its power to confirm students' vocation as it did his own.

> I am… one of the very few men who intend to become English teachers, and one of the even less future English teachers that have a science-oriented former education. I am one of the countless people who stumbled across the field of pedagogy and found themselves, to their own surprise, loving the discipline.

In the second course, there was a lecturer "whose… way of making jokes and providing bizarre examples used to call everyone's attention… his style made it easier for everyone to focus in class and follow the explanations." His respect for this teacher increased after he realized the humor was carefully planned. Although he is not working as a teacher yet, he believes that, as he puts it, even if "not everyone can get to be a funny or likeable teacher… with enough hard work and planning I am certain that anyone can find one's own style and become a great teacher."

Emma

I had to work extremely hard and retake several subjects. I think this is the way to achieve my goal: becoming an English teacher.

Emma was born locally in 1990. Her selected name alludes to Austen's eponymous character. Her preferred fiction is *Pride and Prejudice*, "I found that period in England was even more interesting than I thought. I also liked how Austen described how being in love at that time was."

Emma attended a local Catholic school where she remembers several teachers. One "explained the main topics in a significant way" while another motivated them to continue learning. These "teachers had an impact on my life as I see myself doing that as a teacher in the future." Her political ideas teacher's "lectures were so clear and memorable that sometimes we did not have to study for the tests." Emma owes her deepest learning experiences to Taekwondo, whose principles initiated a new life for her at 16. Her Taekwondo master is her memorable teacher and real-life hero.

> His wisdom has helped me to overcome the most difficult situations. He has never shown me the solutions but rather he had made me reflect upon my behaviors and choices so that I could come up with an answer.

Apart from earning a black belt, she also became a certified international instructor after completing a specialized course.

At five Emma started babbling away in "what I thought was English. I loved doing it because I thought I was very fluent." In her early teens, she shared an English tutor at her cousins' house where she had a revelation:

> I do not remember the grammatical aspect… but I do remember the topic: the Triangular Trade… I was dealing with that historical subject at school… I became aware that English was not just about grammar and vocabulary; I realized that there was an entire new world waiting for me.

In 2009, she enrolled in our Program since she was interested in teaching and loved English "literature, history, and culture." She suffered a number of setbacks because she had "believed that I knew a lot" whereas she realized she needed sustained work rather than innate talent. By August 2014, she had completed 13 out of the 32 mandated courses, several of which she had to attend again during "years of frustration and hard work." She also learnt to prioritize study time, momentarily quitting Taekwondo and volleyball training. Emma values the care of a teacher in a freshman course who offered positive feedback, encouraging her to capitalize on her mistakes.

Not only has Emma overcome academic obstacles, but she has also surmounted personal ones. When she narrated her greatest personal challenge, she asked a classmate to read a text about abused women's belief.

> [They believe that] they are the problem because they have been continually told that by their abusive partner… [who] may quickly switch between verbally abusive and more caring behavior which means the woman is often unsure of what to expect.

Today, she feels proud about having ended this relationship thanks to her friends' advice and her own strength. This is the reason why she is able to represent herself as

> [I am] one of the people who have to work hard to achieve their goals. I am one of the people who are not talented but are passionate about the things they do. I am one of the people who were mistreated by the person they loved. I am one of the people who had to overcome years of suffering after being told they would never succeed. I am one of the people who want to help their friends when they are facing similar problems. I am one of the people who would not let anyone hurt their feelings again. I am one of the people who now appreciate their friends' pieces of advice… I am one of the people who think that sacrifice is the key to achieve success.

Currently teaching English in her old school's kindergarten, she envisages attaining her goal of becoming a graduated English teacher.

Fátima

I am going to try it hard, even though it takes me three times more than the time it is supposed to take.

Fátima was born locally in 1980. Her name purposefully alludes to Ildefonso Falcones' novel *La mano de Fátima*. Her parents met in Portsmouth, UK, where her father arrived on board a Navy submarine and happened to assist her British mother on a skating rink. After dating for seven years, they married and settled down in Argentina. Her mother initially spoke English to her children until a kindergarten teacher claimed the practice was harmful. Fátima never spoke English again until 24. However, she understood the words her mother spoke to UK relatives on the phone or during private lessons at home.

Fátima attended a primary Catholic school for girls where "the academic level was quite good," and "the nuns [were] very tough and strict". Then, she transferred to a state high school whose "academic level was not a very good one, so I got high grades without trying very hard." However, she portrays two memorable teachers. Her literature instructor encouraged students to analyze books personally and to choose some readings. Her history teacher had "a way of telling us historical events that seemed stories" since "she liked to tell us 'gossips'." Fátima was unable to opt for English, being forced to take up French.

> We used the same book throughout the five years. Besides, my group of classmates was a rather rebellious one, and the French teacher had weak character which meant that we did not let her deliver her classes properly.

When Fátima graduated from high school, she "spent a year doing nothing, so my parents started getting angry." She finally enrolled in

architecture but, disliking it, dropped out after two years. Then she got married and traveled to Spain in 2005, working with her husband in a tourist resort for five years, and returning to Argentina to remain with their parents. In Spain, at 24, Fátima learnt English for the first time in her life attending classes at an institute where teachers were kind and students' ages wide-ranging. There, she found out that her childhood listening skills had remained intact.

Before arriving in Argentina in early 2011, Fátima had already enrolled online in our program since she had decided to continue studying English. By August 2014, she had finished 11 out of the 32 curriculum subjects.

> I like what I am studying and the people I've met there. I think that most of the teachers… are very good teachers with a great knowledge of English. However… there are some teachers that do not show their love for what they do.

Her greatest challenge has been to start the program "at thirty, married, and with a job." She quit this full-time job, and though missing its economic benefits, she acknowledges the impossibility of studying while working. In 2015, she started delivering private English classes at home. Considering these experiences she reflects along the following lines:

> I am one of the people who had the possibility to attend university after secondary school, but one who missed this opportunity because I did not know what course of study I would like to do. I am one of the people, who after ten years started studying at university again. And I am also one of hundreds (or thousands?) of students who are taking the English Teacher Training Course at [University] and that yearns to graduate in a near future. I am one of the people who enjoy being on their own, reading a book while sunbathing, and listening to quiet music in bed. I am one of the people who keeps on buying books I would like to read, but does not have time to read them.

Fátima knows that her struggles are not over:

> I know that it is difficult, that there are some subjects that are "impossible to pass," and that many students have gone to other "easier" institutions to become English teachers… I have convinced myself that I am going to try it hard, even though it takes me three times more than the time it is supposed to take. I know that if I was able to pass almost fifty percent of the subjects I am going to be able to pass the other fifty percent.

Juana

I can see myself as an English teacher in the future.

Juana's elected name belongs to one of her aunts. She was born locally in 1990. Because of her father's work they moved regularly along the country. Every two years she readapted to a new school, "a new city, a new house, new friends, new everything." Consequently, she felt unwilling to relate to each new milieu although she considers that this transitoriness has been her best instructor. Her deepest learning experience occurred while attending a Catholic school in a small riverside border town.

> Before moving there, I lived in a wealthy neighborhood… When I first arrived, everything seemed normal to me, I had lived in [the province] before, so I was used to the weather and the countryside. But the second time I was there I was old enough to be aware of what was happening around me… I recall one moment… The government sent the school a survey for us, students, to complete. Questions ranged from 'does your family own a microwave?' up to 'what is the floor of your house made of?' Options included 'no floor at all', and 'do you have a toilet?' At first I thought the questions made no sense, but when I looked around, some of my classmates were actually ticking on the options saying they were missing what for me was fundamental house equipment… At one point one ticked on the option of 'one bedroom for the whole family' and just laughed about it. He was not ashamed of it; he did not feel bad about it… I was fourteen at the time, and it was the first time I remember I thought I should not take everything I have for granted.

At this school, Juana met Catherine, her real-life hero. This friend was the second of six children whose mother had committed suicide, abandoning them to a worthless father. As the eldest sister had left home, the second undertook housekeeping and mothering duties. Today, Catherine is a kindergarten teacher who looks after her sisters while feeding three small neighbors whose mother works. Juana confesses that "I do not think I ever told Catherine how much I admire her…. She is definitely a one of a kind person."

Juana's mother is an English teacher. Unwilling to instruct her children but eager for them to learn the language as early as possible she sent them to private classes in every location they inhabited. "The classes I attended were not always properly prepared for young children, or I did not have many classmates my age and, therefore, I hated English classes." About to finish junior high, she attended a

bilingual school in the Capital where she learned informally with her peers while they watched TV or listened to music. Juana also watched series with her mother, who bought her English books. She graduated from a Catholic school in our city, where she also took English classes at an institute.

Juana's struggles to find a course of study taught her to accept "life's uncertainties." Doubting what to study, she opted for architecture, which she soon loathed. Her subsequent enrollment in biochemistry was short-lived and displeasing. She ended up working in a call center. "I had wasted my time… I felt really lost, and under a lot of pressure from my family." Quitting her job and enrolling in our program in 2012 proved a turning point.

> My unstable linguistic story is what made me love the English language and, at the same time, what made it so hard for me to take the decision of whether I wanted to be a teacher or not… I literally cannot think of a period during my childhood or adolescence when I did not attend English classes, so I considered them as a part of me rather than something I could study professionally.

By August 2014, Juana had completed 13 out of the 32 courses and begun teaching English. Her itinerant childhood and adolescence have led her to her current place, where she feels at ease and able to visualize the future.

Conclusions

Our interpretive construction of an imagined (Anderson, 1983) teacher identity through these narratives can be reinscribed as envisioning membership in potential communities of practice (Wenger & Snyder, 2000) during a powerful act of creation mediated (Norton, 2013) by EIL, which constitutes the four participants' content and medium of pre-service learning and (future) instruction. James, Emma, Fátima, and Juana have managed to draw their more or less adjacent horizons of professional expectations based on the spaces of experience (Koselleck, 1985) provided by their schooling, their itineraries learning (and teaching) English, and their private lives.

Our future teachers' power to envision their co-creation (Clandinin & Caine, 2013; Clandinin, Downey, & Huber, 2009) as future graduate instructors of English involves an outstanding degree of agency and performativity together with identity co-authorship (McAdams, 2008)

allowing them to make choices for furthering their education. James', Emma's, Fátima's, and Juana's imagination also involves resilience (Day & Sachs, 2009), understood as their positive capacity to overcome problems within and without education by flexibly redirecting strengths and capitalizing on them. This socially situated and dialogically expressed (Bakhtin, 1994) agency highlights the proactive nature of pre-service teacher identity construction vis-à-vis reproductive conceptions of teacher education as mere training (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2015).

Surprisingly, the social and discursive negotiation of our four participants' imagined identities as (future) English teachers did not include their self-recognition as non-native students of the language or their longing to resemble ideal native speakers. Because of their South American socio-linguistic setting, where English is a language of international/global/communication, these participants differ from instructors and learners in other ISL/ILF milieus (Benson & Nunan, 2005; Hayes, 2009; Norton, 1997, 2000, 2013). James', Emma's, Fátima's, and Juana's unique focus lies on the development of their linguistic and pedagogic content knowledge at university, leading up to the attainment of the professional degree facilitating their legitimate membership within the Argentinean EIL teaching community of practice (Czerniawski, 2013; Wenger & Snyder, 2000).

We can see that emerging teacher identities are co-created within tensions between what is given and unmovable, what proves (im)possible, and what seems (in)existent. Although we have chosen a throughline for each of the four stories, and conceptualized their identities as imagined, they are neither immutable nor essential. Each narrative evinces ambivalences, conflicts, expectations, dreams, loves, and antagonisms. We have strived to suggest that—rather than the fixed targets of top-down-circumscribed graduate professional profiles so dear to curriculum designers—pre-service teachers exist as oxymora (Britzman, 2003) in-between the apprentice and the instructor. However, although they are not yet graduates but live instead a process of becoming, their professors often expect them to act as 'real' teachers in their practicums while wishing them to remain acritical recipients of lectures in the university classrooms. Our narrative inquiry into these individual and situated, yet complex, itineraries of EIL teacher identity co-construction may contribute towards the design of pre- and in-service development programs (Johnson & Golombek, 2011) made up by an academic, experiential, and vital curriculum (Murphy, Huber & Clandinin, 2012), thus enhancing and illuminating multiple ways of becoming a teacher.

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The Phonemic Realisations of the Letter <Ii> and <Yy> in Educated Nigerian English Accent and its Implications for ESL Teaching and Learning[1]

Las Realizaciones Fonéticas de la Letra <Ii> y <Yy> en el Acento del Inglés Nigeriano Estándar y sus Implicaciones para la Enseñanza y Aprendizaje del Inglés como Segunda Lengua

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Abstract

This paper examines the phonemic realisations of the letter <Ii> and <Yy> in Educated Nigerian English Accent (ENEA) as a second language. It is based on the concept of intraference. Examples were gathered from 2005 to 2013 in a national survey through interviews, participant observation and the recording of spontaneous speeches. The method of analysis is eclectic: qualitative textual analysis and description, and quantitative statistical presentation of data. Ordinal data are presented in percentile and frequency tables and charts and the linguistic texts are described, explained and compared with RP variants. The study established that educated Nigerians redeploy the various British RP realisations of the letters <i> and <y> indiscriminately to pronounce words in which the letters appear in a manner that RP and other native English accents may not pronounce them, thereby producing phonological variants. Since the variants emanate from the (un)conscious redeployment of underlying RP phonemic realisations of the letters and since they are institutionalised in ENE, the paper proposes that they be treated as variations that characterise ESL and Educated Nigerian English Accent (ENEA).

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Key words: Intraference, letters <i>and <y>, phonemic realisations, ENEA, phonological variation.

Resumen

Este artículo examina las realizaciones fonéticas de la letra <Ii> y <Yy> en el acento del inglés nigeriano estándar como segunda lengua. Esta revisión se basa en el concepto de intraferencia. Los ejemplos fueron recopilados desde el 2005 al 2013 en una encuesta nacional a través de la aplicación de entrevistas, observación participativa, y el registro de discursos espontáneos. Se utilizó el método de análisis ecléctico: análisis textual cualitativo, descripción y presentación estadística de los datos. Los datos ordinales son presentados en tablas de frecuencia, porcentaje, gráficos y los textos lingüísticos son descritos, explicados y comparados con variantes de pronunciación recibida, RP. El estudio estableció que la población nigeriana educada reorganiza las variadas realizaciones de las letras <Ii> y <Yy> de acuerdo a la pronunciación recibida RP del inglés británico de manera indiscriminada para pronunciar palabras en las que aparecen palabras en la manera en que RP y otros acentos nativos de inglés podrían no ser pronunciados por ellos, de esa manera produciendo variantes fonológicas. Dado que las variantes provienen de la inconsciente redistribución subyacente de las realizaciones fonéticas de las letras y desde que se institucionalizaron en ENE, el artículo propone que pueden ser considerados como variaciones que caracterizan ESL y (ENEA).

Palabras clave: Intraferencia, letras <i> y <y>, realizaciones fonéticas, ENEA, variación fonológica.

Resumo

Este artigo examina as realizações fonéticas da letra <Ii> e <Yy> no sotaque do inglês nigeriano padrão como segunda língua. Esta revisão se baseia no conceito de intraferência. Os exemplos foram recopilados desde 2005 até 2013 em uma pesquisa de nacional através da aplicação de entrevistas, observação participativa, e o registro de discursos espontâneos. Utilizou-se o método de análise eclética: análise textual qualitativo, descrição e apresentação estadística dos dados. Os dados ordinais são apresentados em tabelas de frequência, porcentagem, gráficas e os textos linguísticos são descritos, explicados e comparados com variantes de pronunciação recebida, RP. O estudo estabeleceu que a população nigeriana educada reorganiza as variadas realizações das letras <Ii> e <Yy> de acordo com a pronunciação recebida RP do inglês britânico de maneira indiscriminada para pronunciar palavras nas que aparecem palavras na maneira em que RP e outros sotaques nativos de inglês poderiam não ser pronunciados por eles, dessa maneira produzindo variantes fonológicas. Dado que as variantes provêm da inconsciente redistribuição subjacente das realizações fonéticas das letras e desde que se institucionalizaram em ENE, o artigo propõe que podem ser considerados como variações que caracterizam ESL e (ENEA).

Palavras chave: Intraferência, letras <i> e <y>, realizações fonéticas, ENEA, variação fonológica.

Introduction

Nigerians speak English in the way they have been taught formally in school, according to the information they gather from grammar textbooks and pronunciation cues from educated speakers, standard dictionaries and naturally in the way they use their languages. For these reasons, interference features abound in Nigerian English varieties. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985) say that ESL variations emanate from interference and that some of the "interference varieties are so widespread in a community and of such long standing that some believe them stable and adequate enough to be institutionalised and hence to be regarded as varieties of English in their own right…" (pp. 27-28). However, it is shown in this paper that some ESL variations emanate not from interference but from intraference, which is a lexicalised conceptualisation of such well-known terminologies as 'intralingual interference' (Richarda & Sampson, 1984, p. 6), the 'overgeneralisation of linguistic rules and items' (Selinker, 1984, p. 37) and 'the internal principle of linguistic change' (Labov, 1994, p.84). The paper examines how intraference manifests in ENEA in the articulation of letters the <i> and <y> (pronounced in the same way in RP and other native English varieties).

Nigerian English (NigE) is one of the leading English as a-second-language (ESL) varieties in the world at present. English is the official (but not national) language in Nigeria. However, Nigerian English is not a homogeneous entity. It is often assessed, described and categorized from the perspectives of region, linguistics, sociolinguistics and formal education. Many varieties come to the fore at the regional level; for example, Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Urhobo, Edo, etc varieties. Ethno-linguistic and phonological deviations are usually used to categorize regional varieties. Three varieties of *basilect*, *acrolect*, and *mesolect* are invariably delineated on the sociolinguistic plane. The *basilect* is the lowest variety at the base of the sociolinguistic pyramid associated with Nigerians who do not have higher formal education and wide socio-educational interaction. The *mesolect* is a variety associated with a majority of literate Nigerians who may not be so highly educated such as secondary school leavers, junior civil servants, young sales men, the rank and file of military and para-military personnel, among many others. The *acrolect*, which is the focus of this paper, is the quintessential variety of NigE at the top of the social pyramid. It is associated with highly educated Nigerians such as graduates, lecturers, writers, journalists, senior government officials, etc.

The typologies of Nigerian English according to educational and linguistic criteria are the most popular ones. (Brosnahan, 1958;

Adekunle, 1979; Banjo, 1970, 1996; Odumuh, 1980; Udofot, 1997). Banjo's and Odumuh's identical classifications of Varieties (V) 1, II, III and IV are the most popularly used or cited. Accordingly, V.I is the lowest type that is associated with primary school pupils and leavers and some secondary school students. This variety is characterised by egregious grammatical errors, mispronunciation and broken structures. V. II is an improvement on V.I. It is the variety that over 70% of literate and educated Nigerians use. Errors of grammar and articulation, according to the standards of RP/British English and highly educated Nigerians, are reduced in this variety. V.III is the educated variety. Like the acrolect, it is the variety associated with highly educated Nigerians which is very close to **SBE** and **RP** in syntax and pronunciation. This variety is also called Educated Nigerian English or Standard Nigerian English. It is the same as the acrolect. According to Banjo, these classifications are not clear-cut, for there are overlaps. "There can, in truth, never be any firm dividing lines" (Banjo, 1996, p.79).

Although the phonemic trends examined manifest in all the varieties, this paper concentrates on the cases in ENE. The paper is an expanded version of an integral part of a major survey of intraference variations in ENE from 2005 to 2013. It was designed to answer these questions: (i) Do educated Nigerians articulate the letters <i> and <y> differently from the way native speakers pronounce them? (ii) Are there significant cases of such differences in ENE? (iii) Why do Nigerian users of English as a second language pronounce the two letters differently from native speakers? and (iv) How do we treat the variants in the teaching and description of ESL? The paper adopted the concept of intraference to (1) demonstrate how the phonemic realisations of the letters <i> and <y> intrafere with (substitute or replace) one another, (2) present examples and patterns of the realisations and (3) propose how these features should be treated in teaching and learning English in ESL settings.

Literature Review

The concepts of interference and intraference underlie this paper. In ESL, interference and contrastive analysis (James, 1950; Weinreich, 1957) were the more popular concepts which linguists used to predict sources of errors and deviations prior to the 1960s (Akere, 2009, p. 5; Surakat, 2010, p. 102). Interference, also called negative language transfer, is a language user's habit of transferring the features, rules and meanings of his/her native language to his/her foreign or second language. It occurs at all levels of linguistic organisation, the most common being the phonological ones which manifest in phonemic

change/replacement and prosodic features. For example, most Nigerians pronounce <the> as /**di**/ or /**di**:/ as against RP /**ði**:/ or /**ðə**/ because the voiced dental fricative /**ð**/ and schwa /**ə**/ are not in Nigerian local languages; hence they are often replaced with the nearest alveolar stop /**d**/ and the vowels /**i**/, /**e**/ or /**a**/ for /**ə**/. According to Ekundayo (2006), interference and contrastive analysis do not examine critically HOW the rules and dynamics of the second language itself make learners produce coinages and variations, an issue which Corder (1980), Selinker (1971) Richards (1984), among others, "took up vigorously in the turn of the 1960s" and started making a strong case for intralingual interference, the overgeneralisation of linguistic features, among other terms used (p. 40).

The term *intraference* in this field is not as popular as interference. The application of the word intraference may be traced to several independent outstanding works separated by time and long distances: Barry Hale (2000), an Australian video artist, uses the term 'intraference mirror' in a non-linguistic or extra-linguistic context to denote a simple video feedback loop which he manipulates to create evolving images in real time (www.barryhale.intraferencemirrors). In linguistics, William Croft (2000, 2003) uses the term as later Ekundayo (2006, 2014). According to Croft "different elements of the same language can interfere with each other if they share enough linguistic substance," and that intraference occurs when language items are affected by different dialects, sociolinguistic variants or other structures of the same language (Croft, 2000, pp. 111-165).

Ekundayo (2006) conceptualises intraference as "the habit of transferring the rules and dynamics of a language from a section where they have been established and where they acceptably operate to another section within the language where they hitherto used not to operate. Since such a transfer is within the language, it is better tagged intraference, which is the reverse of interference" (p. 20). Ekundayo (2014) argues that intraference emanates from two major factors: psycho-sociolinguistic features, on the one hand, and linguistic dynamics, on the other. These two forces combine to influence a nonnative speaker of a language to produce phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and orthographic variants. The psycho-sociolingustic is an amalgam of two sub-factors. The first is the social knowledge, context and setting of the speakers; for when a new concept, experience, event, etc confronts nonnative speakers, and even native speakers of a language, they fall back on the dynamics, features and rules of the language and (re)deploy them to express the new experience and idea. This linguistic habit may generate a new linguistic structure, or add a new layer of meaning to an existing structure. The second sub-factor of the psycho-sociolinguistic set is the brain or mind mechanism of the users, the way the users

view and rearrange features of the language creatively or otherwise in their minds. Precisely, it relates to Chomsky's (1965) *competence* and *performance*. Competence refers to the underlying innate linguistic knowledge of a speaker and performance denotes the practical, actual use of language in a given situation. Intraference cases are found in performance, but they first originate from competence because the speaker has a measure of competence (knowledge) of the language, either in *restricted* or *elaborated code*, in Bernstein's (1971) terms. The social knowledge and context, as in the ESL context of this study, often influence the redeployment of the language features and rules (the linguistic factor).

The linguistic factor generates the five major types of intraference: phonological, graphological or orthographic, morphemic or morphological, morpho-syntactic and lexico-semantic with many sub-divisions, which Ekundayo (2006) and (2014) surveyed in Educated Nigerian English (ENE). The phonemic realisations of the letters <i> and <y> are a small sub-set of the phonological type. In summary, Ekundayo (2006, 2014) uses intraference to round up a number of linguistic habits in (but not restricted to) a second language. it is used to conceptualise, describe and account for (i) the linguistic features of a variety which emanate from the redeployment of the internal features and rules of a language in new contexts without reference to another language, (ii) the features in a particularly variety arising from the interaction of the variety with another variety of the language; for example, Americanisms in Nigerian English are not interference but intraference features: English A (NigE) assuming the features of English B AmE (See Awonusi, 1994; Igboanusi, 2003). Take the word <advertisement> for example, which is /əd'vʒ:tɪsmənt/ in RP but /ædvər'tɑɪzmənt/ in AmE and /ædvæ'tɑɪzment/ or /ædvæ'tɪzment/ in NigE. The American variant was initially (and still is) a product of linguistic intraference because it is the redeployment of the well-known phonemic realisations of the letters <i> as /ɑɪ/, <er> as /ə/ and <s> as /z/ in the English language that generate(d) the American variant. These phonemes are all in English and therefore intra-. The NigE variant similar to the AmE variant may be explained as either the intraference of Americanism or simply as phonological intraference. As the intraference of Americanism, it means that the pronunciation is borrowed from AmE accent (intraference of Americanism in another variety of the same language). As phonological intraference, it means that NigE adopt(ed) the same process which AmE redeploy(ed) to produce the variant /ædvæ'tɑɪzment/ or /ædvæ'tɪzment/: the redeployment of /æ/ for <a> and <er>, and /z/ for <s>. All considered, most educated Nigerians do not necessarily listen to Americans before

they attempt to articulate words in performance. They would rather first pronounce it according to their phonological competences. Ekundayo also uses intraference to denote spelling pronunciation, the creative (re) application of language features and rules to fabricate new structures and meanings; for example *sickler* in NigE for 'SS genotype carrier or one who regularly falls ill'; *aristo babe* for 'a girl or lady who flirts and has sex with aristocrats (rich men) to earn a living or make money.' In phonology, intraference involves the reapplication and extension of segmental and suprasegmental features and rules to structures in which they do not apply in RP. The letters <i> and <y> in RP are realised phonemically as follows:

	/ɪ/	----------it, dig, graffiti, city, tidy
Letters <*i, y*>,	/j/	----------young, yet, joyous
	/iː/	----------machine, police
	/aɪ/	----------shine, iron, cry, why.

Simo Bodda (1995) shows that Nigerian and Cameroonian English varieties substitute /i/ for RP /ɪː/, /ɪ/ and /aɪ/, /a/ for RP /æ/ and /ə/, as in Nigerian <beer> /bia/, <fear>/fia/, etc for RP /bɪə/ and /fɪə/. Bobda's study covered a broad spectrum of Nigerian and Cameroonian English varieties encompassing the idiolects of the educated and uneducated (pp. 249-255). Some of the cases in his inventory do not or hardly occur in ENEA, which is the focus of this paper. ENEA, the spoken variety of 'Standard Nigerian English' (SNE) or ENE is similar to RP. Ugorji (2010) also shows how educated Nigerians reassign the phonemic realisations of letters <i> and <y> to different words in his survey of the basilect, mesolect and acrolect of Nigerian English, a situation where /ɪ/. I: or /i/ occurs in 'queen, seed, invitee, sick, sit, pill,' among other examples (p.90). Ugorji says that that /i/ and /ɪ/ are variants in the acrolect of Nigerian English. Ubong and Babatunde (2011) equally observe that "more than one phoneme may function as alternants and variants for a single RP model" (548). For example, RP /iː/ and /ɪ/ are realised in NigE as /i/, /ɪ/ and /iː/. Ugorji's inventory of the phonological features of Nigerian English takes the acrolect very close to RP, a closeness which Jowitt (retrieved 2016) also admits: "Educated, acrolectal Nigerian speakers of English have in their vowel system sounds which are to a great extent those of British RP, although there are a considerable number of variants which are also found in the relevant 'regional' basilect-mesolect" (p.11).

Ekundayo, Longe, and Teilanyo (2012) further show that NigE articulation of words like <omniscience> /ɔmniˈsaiens/ for RP

/’ɔmnisɪəns/, <dwarf> /dwa:f/ for RP /dwɔ:f/, <lettuce> /’letus/ for RP /letɪs/, <incumbent> /’inkumbent/ for RP /ɪn’kʌmbənt/, etc are the outcomes of phonological intraference, not interference (pp. 90-93). Although a number of works have treated the articulation of various phonemes in NigE, predominantly from the perspective of interference, (Jubil, 1979; Amayo, 1986; Ikara, 1986; Awonusi, 2007; Soneye, 2008; Dadzie & Awonusi, 2009; etc), none has isolated the letters <y> and <i> to determine in a nation-wide survey how educated Nigerians redeploy and redistribute the underlying RP and/or native English phonemic realisations of the letters, a gap that this paper fills. The paper documents thirty-six words in which the underlying RP phonemic realisations of the letters <i> and <y> are redeployed in patterns different from RP. As a result of phonological intraference, educated Nigerian speakers of English as a second language often mix up the phonemic realsations of the letters <i> and <y> as /ɑɪ/, /ɪ/ and /i:/ respectively.

Methodology

Research Design

The paper is a survey of the linguistic occurrence of intraference features in Nigerian ESL. It adopted an eclectic approach: the qualitative method of textual analysis and the quantitative method of statistical presentation of ordinal data in simple percentile, frequency tables and graphs. It was assumed that the phonemic realisations of letters <i> and <y> ‘intrafere’ with (substitute, displace) one another in the spoken English of educated Nigerians. Focus was on currency of the variants and educational status of the population as defined in context and participants below; not necessarily on age, sex and individual ranks of the educated people surveyed. The transcription used is IPA. Specifically, Daniel Jones’ phonetic symbols in *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary* (2006, inside front page), also in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2007, inside front page) and in Awonusi (2009, p. 10, column B) were used for the RP/native English transcriptions of the cases here.

Context and Participants

The study was carried out in Nigeria. Educated Nigerians were surveyed from May 2005 to May 2013. Nigerians in the continuum of National Diploma (ND) minimum to Ph.D./Professor, those who have post-secondary school certificate/qualifications, civil servants and workers with many working-year experience are considered educated

in this study. Informants were between 19 and 70 years, comprising lecturers and final year students in English and Literature, Linguistics, and International Studies and Diplomacy, Mass Communication, Theatre Arts and other departments in ten government-owned universities and other schools tested the six geo-political zones of Nigeria: the South-West, the multi-lingual South-South, the South-East the North Central, North Eat and North West. The universities and institutions visited are Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Bayero University, Kano (North); University of Lagos, Lagos, Federal University of Technology, Akure (West); University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka (East); University of Ilorin, Ilorin, University of Abuja, Federal Capital Territory (North-Central); University of Benin, Benin City, Edo State, and the University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt (South-South). Four federal government-owned polytechnics were also surveyed. They are Federal Polytechnic, Auchi (South-South), Federal Polytechnic, Ede Osun State (West), Federal Polytechnic Offa, Kwara State (Middle-Belt, North Central), Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna State (North) and Federal Polytechnic, Oko, Anambra State (East).

In addition, some cases were elicited from the live performances of ten trained Nigerian Television Authority (NTA) newscasters and ten trained newscasters with State-owned television stations and five with three private television stations: African Independent Television (AIT), Independent Television (ITV) and Silver Bird Television (STV). Where 0 -29 of the respondents used a variant, it is tagged *isolated*, 30 to 44% is *emerging variant*, 45-49% is *free variant* 51-59% is *common*, 60-79% *widespread* and 80-100% *entrenched*.

Data Collection Instruments

Speech recording, participant observation and interview were used to gather data. The interviews and observations were mainly unstructured and conducted in both formal and informal settings such as university classes and lecture theatres, staff rooms, lecturers' offices, churches and social gatherings where the researchers either participated in or observed linguistic events. For this sub-section of the nation-wide survey, thirty-six (36) words were written in charts and flexible banners for students to pronounce or on papers for individual respondents to articulate. Before each interview, the researcher counted or established the number of informants on the spot and after the articulation of the words, those who articulated them in RP or native English accent were counted and isolated from those who pronounced them in NigE accent. The tallying and percentile counts for the words were done manually from 2005 to 2013 and then arranged in a table.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Thirty-six variants are presented and annotated in the table below.

Table 1. Words with the Intraference of /aɪ/ and /ɪ/ or /i/ for the Letters <Ii> and <Yy>

S/N	Words	RP	Percentage of RP over 50,000	ENEA	Percentage of ENE over 50,000	Intraference Source	Degree of Spread
1	advertisement	ˈəd'vɜ:tismənt	2,000/4%	/ædvæ'taɪzment/ ædvætɪzment/	30,000/60% 18,000/36%	/aɪ/ for <i>	widespread
2	annihilate	ˈə'naɪəleɪt/	1,000/2%	/ænɪ'hilet/	49,000/98%	/aɪ/ for <i>	entrenched
3	awry	/ə'rɑɪ/	0/0%	/'ɔ:rɪ/	50,000/100 %	/ɪ/ for <y>, as in gory, worry,	entrenched
4	bigamy	/ 'bɪgəmɪ/	500/1%	/'baɪgæmɪ/ 'bɪgæmɪ/	30,000/60% 19,500/39%	/baɪ/ for <bi-, by-	widespread
5	bigota	/'bɪgəta/	500/1%	/'baɪgota/ /'bɪgəta/	35,000/70% 14,500/29%	as bisexual, biennial, as in bipolar, etc.	widespread
6	citadel	/'sɪtədəl/	10,000/20%	/'saɪtædel /sɪtædel	30,000/60% 10,000/20%	/aɪ/ for <i>, as in cite, rite, etc	widespread
7	dandelion	/'dændɪlɪən/	24,000/48%	/'dændɪlɪon/	26,000/52%	/ɪ/ for <i>.	common
8	diffuse	/dɪ'fju:z/	5,000/10%	/'daɪfju:z/	45,000/90%	/aɪ/ for <di>, as in digest, digress,	entrenched
9	dissection	/dɪ'sekʃən/	2,000/4%	/daɪ'seʃon/ /daɪ'sekʃon/	42,000/80% 8,000/16%	as in 7 above	entrenched
10	divisive	/dɪ'vaɪsɪv/	10,000/20%	/dɪ'vɪsɪv/	40,000/90%	/ɪ/ for <vi> as in visible, division.	entrenched
11	divorce	/dɪ'vɔ:s/	3,500/7%	/'daɪvɔ:s/	46,500/93%	same as shown above	entrenched
12	elite	/eɪ'li:t/ or /ɪ'li:t/	3,000/6%	/'elaɪt/	47,000/93%	/aɪ/ for <lite>, as in cite, site, rite, etc	entrenched
13	expertise	/ekspɜ: 'ti:z/	5,000/10%	/es'pætaɪz/ /ekspæ'ti:z/	15,000/30% 30,000/60%	/aɪ/ for <tise>, as in advertise, size, etc	widespread
14	famine	/ 'fæmɪn/	5,000/10%	/fæ'maɪn/	45,000/90%	/aɪ/ for <-ine>, as in mine, dine, sign, etc.	entrenched
15	favourite	/ 'feɪvərɪt/	7,000/14%	/fevo'raɪt/ /fevə'raɪt/	30,000/60% 13,000/26%	as in elite above.	widespread
16	feminine	/ 'femənɪn/	4,000/8%	/femɪ'naɪn/	46,/92%	as in famine above.	entrenched

17	granite	/ 'grænɪt/	0/	/'grænaɪt	50,000/100 %	As in elite.	entrenched
18	hibiscus	/hɪbɪskəs/	0/0%	/haɪbɪskɔs/	50,000/100 %	/aɪ/ for <hi-> as in high, hide	entrenched
19	hymen	/'haɪmɪn/	14,000/28%	/'hɪmɪn/	36,000/72%	/aɪ/ for <y>	widespread
20	hypocrite	/hɪpəkrɪt/	18,000/36%	/hɪpokraɪt/	32,000/64%	As in elite.	widespread
21	hysterical	/hɪ'sterɪkəl/	9,000/18%	/haɪ'sterɪkæl/	41,000/82%	as in hyper, hyphen, tyre, dye, cry et	entrenched
22	imbecile	/ɪmbe'si:l/	2,000/4%	/ɪm'besaɪl/	48,000/96%	regular /aɪ/ for letter <i> as in wile, reconcile.	entrenched
23	INEC			/aɪnek/ /ɪnek/	26,000/47.5 % 24,000/52.5 %	regular /aɪ/ and /ɪ/ for letter <i>.	variant common
24	itinerary	/aɪ'tɪnerərɪ/	23,000/46%	/ɪt'nerərɪ/	27,000/54%	as in it, into.	common variant
25	liberate	/'lɪbrert/	26,300/52.6	/laɪ'bret/	24,700/47.4 %	/aɪ/ for <i>	common variant
26	masculine	/ 'mæskjulɪn/	17,000/34%	/'mæskulaɪn/	33,000/66%	as in line, riverine, etc	widespread
27	recitative	/resɪtə'ti:v/	0/0%	/resaɪ'tetɪv/ /rɪ'saɪtetɪv/	23,000/ 46% 27,000/54%	as in consultative, repetitive,	variant common
28	Regina	/rɪ'dʒaɪnə/, /rɪ dʒi:nə/	0/0%	/ 'redʒɪnæ/	50,000/100 %	/ɪ/ as Tina, Angelina, Paulina.	entrenched
29	saline	/'sælɪn/	5,000/10%	/sælaɪn/	45,000/90%	s in line, fine	entrenched
30	Sophia	/'saʊfɪə, saʊfɪ:ə	0/0%	/ / 'sofɪæ/	50,000/100 %	as in soldier, Mafia, etc	entrenched
31	sychophant	/sɪkəfənt/	7,000/14	/saɪkofænt/ /sɪkofænt/	35,000/70% 8,000/16%	cycle, psyche	widespread
32	tyrannical	/tɪ'rænɪkl	12,000/24%	/taɪ'rænɪkæl	38,000/76%	/aɪ/ for <i>	widespread
33	tyranny	/'tɪrənɪ/	3,500/7%	/'taɪrænɪ/ /'tɪrænɪ/	25,000/50% 21,500/43%	/aɪ/ for <y>	widespread variant
34	vagina	/və'dʒaɪnə/	15,000/30%	/vædʒɪnæ/	35,000/70%	/ɪ/ for /aɪ/	widespread
35	vineyard	/'vɪnjəd/ /vɪnɪæd/	0/0%	/'vaɪn 'jæd/	50,000/100 %	regular "vine" /vaɪn/ and "yard"	entrenched
36	twilight	/'twaɪlaɪt/	16,000/32%	/'twɪlaɪt/	34,000/68%	As in twins, twist, etc.	entrenched

Table 2. Frequency distribution Table for Table 2

S/N	Range	Degree of Spread	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
1	80-100%	entrenched	17	42.5%	3.5
2	60-79%	widespread	13	32.5%	1.53
3	50-59%	common	05	12.5%	17.5
4	40-49%	variant	05	12.5%	0
5	30-39%	emerging	0	0%	0
	Total		n=40	100%	22.53

Note that the frequency table has 40 words instead of the 36 in table 1. The reason is that several words generated variants and common pronunciations at the same time. The graph below shows the degree of spread for each type.

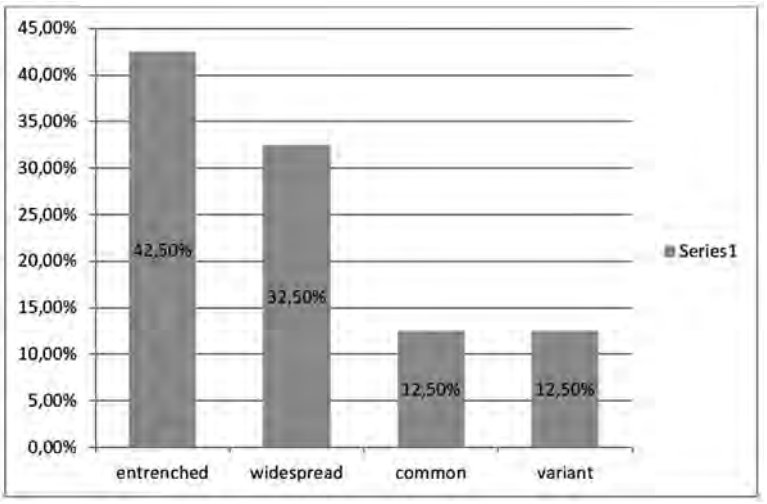

Figure 1. Summary bar graph for the variants examined

As shown in the tables and chart, the cases examined are largely widespread and entrenched in ENE. Some variants are absolutely institutionalised so much that none of the Nigerians surveyed here pronounced them in the RP way. These are variant numbers 3, 17, 18, 26, 27, 29 and 34 in the table. There are others which have very low

scores for RP such as variant numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, 12, etc. In ENEA the letters <i> and <y> are articulated as /i/ and /ɪ/ where RP uses /ɑɪ/ as in *awry, advertisement, annihilate, divisive*, etc, and as /ɑɪ/ in ENEA where RP uses /ɪ/ or /i:/ as in *diffuse, divorce, elite, bigots,* etc. The substitution of /i/,/ɪ/ for /ɑɪ/ and vice versa is not occasioned by phonological interference but by phonological intraference, i.e. the replacement of one phoneme for another in the same language, not from outside it. A good example of the redeployment of the phonemic realisations of letter <i> is in the acronym 'INEC' ('Independent National Electoral Commission,' number 23 in the table), which does not exist in **SBE** and other native English varieties. The acronym has two popular variants arising from the redeployment of /ɑɪ/, /i/ and/or /ɪ/, two underlying phonemic realisations of the letter <i>. Educated Nigerians pronounce it as either /ɑɪnek/ or /ɪnek/. Many of the respondents, being educated Nigerians pronounced the words in the RP accent, which accounted for the percentage of RP in the third column.

Conclusions

The paper examined the phonemic realisations of letters the <i> and <y>. Thirty-six examples were presented to demonstrate the patterns of the pronunciation of letter <i> and <y> in ENEA. The results and presentation reveal clear differences between the RP and ENEA variants of the phonemic realisations of the letters <i> and <y>. The 36 examples here are by no means exhaustive of all the cases in ENEA. Intraference and interference, teaching habits and institutionalised deviant forms facilitate the use and spread of these features in ESL. The variants have implications for the study, description and teaching of ESL.

Teachers and grammarians of ENE often treat as errors most of the features of NigE that do not conform to RP, yet the local variants keep flourishing. Ugorji (2010) also draws attention to the emergence of nativised varieties which suffer from pedagogic confusion in which the RP is in principle desired and proposed but not targeted or well-taught because teachers cannot reach it and are not competent in it. So, no matter how hard they try, they find it difficult or impossible to achieve total native English mastery of the language dynamics and they keep spreading the entrenched nonnative patterns unconsciously. Meanwhile the nativized varieties have not also been codified and standardized for effective authoritative teaching and learning. Ugorji (2010) describes the situation as 'pedagogic anarchy' (p.26).

Against this backdrop, it is here proposed that those that have become widespread, entrenched or institutionalised should be treated as veritable ESL and ENEA variations. This does not prevent those who prefer the RP variants from using them. All considered, intraference plays a huge role in differentiating between BrE and AmE articulation of many words. Even in native English, intraference has influenced the emergence of the free phonemic variants of <i>; for example, <anti> is either AmE /æntɑɪ/ or BrE /æntɪ/, either /'dɪrekt/ or /'dɑɪrekt/ for <direct>, and /'fɪnæns/ or /'fɑɪnæns/ for <finance>, etc.

In terms of teaching, these features may be regarded as institutionalised variations which characterise ESL/ENEA and should be taught alongside the RP variants. This option or position is the most sociolinguistically expedient for pedagogy and effective communication and the description of the features of ESL. For examination purpose, particularly at the secondary school level where examiners use Nigerian examples as deviations or errors and RP variants as the correct forms, students should be told that where the two variants appear in a question, the RP variant should be picked as the answer since that is the one the examiners intend as the answer. However, efforts should be expedited to reorient Nigerian examination bodies to change their prescriptive and judgmental attitude to entrenched Nigerian variants. Nigeria's endonormic standard should equally be codified, as the Nigeria English Studies Association and ICE (International Corpus of English) Nigerian Project are undertaking at present. The 'anarchy' that Ugorji described may remain till Standard Nigerian English becomes so firmly rooted even at those examination levels that examiners will no longer see the entrenched Nigerian variants as errors for examination questions. The reality on the ground here is that differences exist between examination English and real life performance English. Fortunately, however, some standard dictionaries and glossaries of the features of Nigerian ESL have been published recently, for example, the 2014 *A Dictionary of Nigerian English* compiled by the *Nigerian English Studies Association* (NESA) which turned *English Studies Association of Nigeria* (ESAN) in September 2015.

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The Interplay of Teacher Training, Access to Resources, Years of Experience and Professional Development in Tertiary ESL Reading Teachers' Perceived Self-Efficacy[1]

La Relación entre Formación Docente, Acceso Recursos, Experiencia Docente y Desarrollo Profesional en la Autoeficacia Percibida por los Docentes en la Enseñanza de la Lectura en Inglés como Segunda Lengua

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Abstract

Through a mixed methods approach, this study collected data on the current state of IEP teachers' perceived self-efficacy in teaching ESL reading, and the factors that may affect this. Statistical analyses of surveys show a number of relationships among the factors explored: years of teaching, perceived self-efficacy, amount of pre-service training, amount of professional development and availability of resources. To detail the experiences of these instructors, responses from follow-up interviews are discussed. Taken together, the results of this study underscore the need for ESL teacher training programs and IEP institutes to devote greater effort in preparing faculty to teach ESL reading skills effectively.

Keywords: ESL reading, teacher training, self-efficacy

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Resumen

A través del enfoque de métodos mixtos, este estudio recolectó información actualizada de la percepción de los docentes de IEP sobre la autoeficacia en la enseñanza de la lectura en inglés como segunda lengua y los factores que podrían afectar el proceso. El análisis estadístico de las encuestas muestra una serie de relaciones entre los factores explorados: años de experiencia docente, autoeficacia percibida, grado de formación inicial docente, grado de desarrollo profesional, y disponibilidad de recursos. Para detallar las experiencias de los docentes se discutieron las entrevistas de seguimiento. Los resultados de este estudio destacan la necesidad de los programas de formación de profesores de inglés como segunda lengua de dedicar un mayor esfuerzo en la preparación de profesores para enseñar de manera efectiva habilidades de lectura.

Palabras clave: Lectura en inglés como segunda lengua, formación docente, autoeficacia

Resumo

Através do enfoque de métodos mistos, este estudo recolheu informação atualizada da percepção dos docentes de IEP sobre a auto-eficácia no ensino da leitura em inglês como segunda língua e os fatores que poderiam afetar o processo. A análise estatística das enquetes mostra uma série de relações entre os fatores explorados: anos de experiência docente, auto-eficácia percebida, grau de formação inicial docente, grau de desenvolvimento profissional, e disponibilidade de recursos. Para detalhar as experiências dos docentes se discutiram as entrevistas de seguimento. Os resultados deste estudo destacam a necessidade dos programas de formação de professores de inglês como segunda língua de dedicar um maior esforço na preparação de professores para ensinar de maneira efetiva habilidades de leitura.

Palavras clave: Leitura em inglês como segunda língua, formação docente, auto-eficácia

Introduction

Well-developed reading skills are an undeniably important part of a student's course of study throughout schooling. It has been shown that children who read proficiently are more likely to succeed in school (NICHD, 2000; TEAL, 1995) and less likely to dropout. Additionally, "children with weak literacy skills are also more likely to enter the criminal justice system and to be underemployed" (Guo & Morrison, 2012, p. 3).

Several factors affect a student's reading skills such as attentiveness in the classroom, home background, and attitude towards reading (Rowe, 1995), but research suggests that teachers themselves play one of the most influential roles in students' achievement (Guarino, Hamilton, Lockwood, & Rathbun, 2006). Beyond teacher qualifications, a growing line of investigation takes an interest in teacher self-efficacy and its influence on student success in the classroom. Self-efficacy is defined as "the individual's perceived expectancy of obtaining valued outcomes through personal effort" (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport, & Dornbusch, 1982, p. 7) in terms of their abilities to think, plan, organize and perform activities needed in successful classrooms (Bandura 1997, 2006).

Teacher self-efficacy is integral to teacher success and sustainability because it is directly related to knowledge and skills required for effective teaching (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1992; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Teachers who report levels of higher self-efficacy tend to experience greater perseverance, increased flexibility to cope with obstacles and an increased feeling of self-accomplishment (Bandura, 1997). Such teachers also have an increased awareness of how they are teaching, what their goals are, and are able to relate student outcomes to their teaching practices (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). Additionally, teachers reporting low self-efficacy have been shown have higher levels of emotional exhaustion from class disturbances due to lack of classroom management (Dickle et al., 2014). Consequently, research into perceptions of teacher self-efficacy can shed light on best teaching practices and assessment in the classroom (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008).

Many studies of teacher self-efficacy have been conducted in the K-12 content classroom in the areas of science education (e.g. Cakiroglu, Capa-Aydin, & Woofolk-Hoy, 2012; Corkett, Hatt, & Benevides, 2011), literacy education (e.g. Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011), and math education (e.g. Clotfelter, Ladd, & Vigdor, 2007). An educational context in which comparatively little research has been done on teacher self-efficacy is the university ESL classroom

or tertiary intensive English programs (IEPs). Although intensive English programs have experienced rapid growth across the U.S. in recent years (Institute of International Education, 2012), this lack of research on teacher self-efficacy in adult ESL reading may be because of the recent increase in the number of international students entering American tertiary education. The number of students requiring ESL programs has subsequently increased, and research in this area is only now becoming necessary.

Intensive English programs are unique among institutions of language education for a number of reasons. First, as the majority of their students arrive on F-1 visas, IEPs must build English language programs in accordance with the number of hours of instruction required by the U.S. F-1 immigration status regulation for language training (Szasz, 2010). For international students in an American IEP setting, a full-time course load is "at least 18 clock hours of attendance a week" (U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services, 2010). Second, while students may arrive with an English proficiency as low as A1 on the CEFR scale, the majority of students enter an IEP with a degree of English proficiency ranging from A2-B1. This is likely because most IEP students come to the U.S. with the goal matriculating into a university, and thus want to spend as little time possible on intensive English studies. Many also have scholarship restrictions set forth by government sponsors which allow only a short time frame for intensive English studies (e.g. 3-6 months). Finally, as the goal of the majority of international students studying in IEPs in the U.S. is to gain admission into an American university, Therefore, program curricula usually focus on the academic language skills to enable students to read, write, speak, and comprehend English at a level that is appropriate for university-level course work.

In order to be successful readers of academic English, international students need to have large amounts of vocabulary knowledge (Alderson, 2000; Hellekjaer, 2009), be able to efficiently integrate background knowledge with text (Grabe & Stroller, 2002), use metacognitive monitoring to repair comprehension (Alderson, 2000), and make use of a variety of learning strategies for reading and new vocabulary (Hellekjaer, 2009). While many IEP students may be able to successfully take on academic texts in their L1, it is not necessarily true that these skill sets and strategies will transfer over to the L2 (Koda, 2005, 2007). Thus, it is crucial that ESL teachers at the tertiary level be adequately trained and effective in teaching reading to help students meet their goals.

To explore the current state of teacher self-efficacy in the teaching of adult ESL reading, we employed a mixed methods approach to explore the following questions:

1. How do teachers in a university-based intensive English program rate their levels of self-efficacy as ESL reading teachers?
2. How are self-ratings of perceived self-efficacy influenced by a teacher's amount of pre-service training, ongoing professional development, access to useful resources, and years of experience?

The quantitative results of a questionnaire and the qualitative results from interviews with a handful of university-level ESL teachers across the United States suggest that teacher self-efficacy in teaching adult ESL reading is relatively low. Moreover, this lack of confidence may stem from a lack of pre-service training, limited relevant professional development, and a dearth of useful resources to aid in the planning and teaching of ESL reading.

Literature Review

Teacher Self-Efficacy

With such an important role to play in student success, it is of interest to know how teacher self-efficacy is influenced by other crucial variables, such as professional development and pre-service training. Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) examined two major independent variables: teacher efficacy and organizational support and found that all teachers at various years in the profession need a strong sense of self-efficacy and organizational support to make the best use of their professional development training. In a similar vein, a recent study by Dixon et al. (2014) found that ESL teachers who received increased hours of professional development training developed higher self-efficacy. In reviewing this data, one can conclude that teacher training and self-efficacy are interdependent.

A study conducted in Turkey by student teachers (Cabaroglu, 2014) also yielded findings relevant to the interaction of teacher self-efficacy and pre-service training. These student teacher / researchers utilized a combination of self-evaluation, reading relevant literature, informal observations and interviews, and preparing action plans to improve their teaching abilities. Afterwards, quantitative data from the TSES (Teacher Self-efficacy Scale) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001) revealed that the student teachers' self-reports of self-efficacy had increased, while qualitative data collected from reflective

diaries showed that this action research promoted a positive learning experience for the pre-service teachers as well.

Another study linking pre-service training to teacher self-efficacy was done by Clark (2016). For the study, Clark determined the number of pedagogical reading courses required by various university teacher education programs. Upon correlating this data with ratings of teacher self-efficacy, the findings show that the number of pre-service courses taken influenced teacher self-efficacy in the teaching of reading. More specifically, teachers who took two courses in reading methodology had a higher perception of self-efficacy when compared to reading teachers than teachers who only took one course.

A common thread can be seen throughout each of these studies: teachers who have more training through methodology courses and/or professional development report greater feelings of self-efficacy than those with less training and professional development. However, it could be argued that pre-service training alone cannot be the only factor affecting a teacher's perceived self-efficacy. Tschannen-Moran & Johnston (2011) explore factors beyond pre-service training in teachers' perceived self-efficacy. The researchers surveyed 648 elementary and middle school teachers using the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). A series of statistical analyses including multiple regression and correlation revealed that among these literacy teachers, ratings of the quality of their teacher preparation program, highest degree obtained, access to resources, school level taught, participation in a book club, and self-efficacy in the areas of instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement were all significant predictors of self-efficacy for literacy instruction.

To expand upon existing multi-factorial investigations of teacher self-efficacy, the present study explored the interplay between teacher self-efficacy, professional development, pre-service training, and access to useful resources.

Methodology

Research Design

This study took a mixed methods approach to shed light on our research questions, as both quantitative and qualitative data are central to this line of inquiry. We worked from Johnson & Onwuegbuzie's (2004) definition of a mixed methods approach as "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into

a single study" (p. 17). A questionnaire and a handful of face-to-face interviews, which are described in the subsequent sections, were utilized for data collection. This mixed methods approach allowed us to gather both quantitative data from a wide variety of participants (for the purpose of generalization), as well as in-depth information from individuals which could elucidate some of the quantitative data.

Participants

A total of 70 in-service ESL teachers (17 male, 53 female) employed at a university-level intensive English program in the United States participated in the questionnaire portion of the study. In addition to experience teaching at the university level, 29% had taught at the elementary school level, 34% had taught middle school, and 39% taught high school. In terms of years of teaching experience, the mean years of experience among the questionnaire participants was 12.16 years (range: 1-40 years). The figure below shows the distribution of the participants' teaching experience in years.

Figure 1. Participants' years of teaching experience

Of these 70 participants, eight were chosen for participation in the interview portion of the study (2 males, 6 females). Convenient sampling procedures were used to select these particular subjects. Table 1 shows the years of ESL teaching experience for each of the 8 interviewees. All subjects agreed to be interviewed without compensation and provided written consent for both the questionnaire and the interview.

Table 1. Interviewees' years of teaching experience

Interviewee #	Years of Experience	Notes
1	8	
2	10	
3	6	Non-native speaker
4	2.5	
5	6	
6	10	
7	25	Non-native speaker
8	35	

Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed based on the researchers' experience teaching ESL and knowledge of the field (a total of approximately 40 years of experience combined) as well as informal interviews with four in-service university-level ESL teachers. The theoretical framework for the instrument and many of the questions were modeled after Eslami & Fatahi (2008). The questionnaire consisted of the following 6 sections:

1. Demographic information & years of experience
2. Efficacy for student engagement
3. Efficacy for instructional strategies
4. Training and professional development
5. Curriculum & access to resources

This questionnaire was found to be reliable by calculating Cronbach's alpha for each of the four major subsections of the instrument. The alpha coefficients are as follows: .74 for efficacy for student engagement, .81 for efficacy for instructional strategies, .92 for training and professional development, and .66 for curriculum & access to resources.

Interview Questions. The ten interview questions were designed by the three researchers with input from other ESL program administrators and ESL teachers at the University of Arizona. The goal of the interviews was to collect more detailed information from a handful of teachers which might be able to provide further insight into some of the trends found within the quantitative data.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

After obtaining IRB approval to conduct the study, the questionnaire was hosted online via Google Docs and sent out to randomly-selected intensive English programs throughout the United States to solicit participation from teachers. All participants gave written consent by typing their name and the date after reading through the consent form. The online questionnaire was left open for four weeks, at which point it was closed and the results were downloaded for statistical analysis.

For analysis of the quantitative questionnaire data, both descriptive statistics by item and correlational analyses (between perceived self-efficacy and the other variables) will be reported. Participants selected an answer ranging from 1 (Disagree) to 5 (Agree) on a Likert scale to indicate responses for subsections 2 (efficacy for student engagement), 3 (efficacy for instructional strategies), and 5 (curriculum and access to resources). The results of subsection 4 (pre-service training and professional development), are discussed in terms of counts since no Likert scales were used.

The eight subjects who participated in the online questionnaire were selected via convenience sampling to participate in the interview portion of the study. All subjects gave written consent prior to being interviewed. Their answers were recorded with a smart phone audio recording app, transcribed and coded (to maintain anonymity of the data), and subsequently destroyed.

In order to identify themes in the participants' responses, each transcribed interview was coded by the three researchers (independently) as either self-identifying as an effective ESL reading teacher or not an effective ESL reading teacher. This was done by analyzing each interviewee's response to question #3: *"Do you feel that you're an effective reading teacher? Why or why not?"* Subjects 1, 2 and 3 self-reported as being ineffective ESL reading teachers while subjects 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 self-reported as being effective ESL reading teachers. After separating the transcribed interviews into these two groups, the researchers re-read each interview and coded the data question by question in order to identify themes in the discourse. The emerging response themes are discussed separately for each of the two aforementioned groups. Because a theme of access to resources in motivating students surfaced across both groups, it is explored subsequently at the whole-group level.

Results

Quantitative Questionnaire Data

Efficacy for student engagement. Four questions comprised this section inquiring about teachers' perceived self-efficacy in engaging students during an ESL reading class. On the whole, participants reported rather marginal or average feelings of self-efficacy in this category with a mean 3.6 out of 5 for all questions in the section. Positive correlations were found between teacher's perceived self-efficacy for student engagement and amount of teacher training (r =.339), access to useful resources (r =.302), and years of experience teaching ESL (r = .391). However, no significant correlation was found between perceived self-efficacy for student engagement and amount of professional development. A closer look at the data suggests that no such relationship was present likely because the vast majority of teachers (78.5%) indicate that they received virtually no professional development in teaching ESL reading at their current places of employment. Support for this hypothesis is reflected in the mean response to "I could benefit from more professional development and/or training in teaching reading skills to ESL students." as 4.35 out of 5.

Efficacy for instructional strategies. This section consisted of four questions about teachers' perceived self-efficacy in their ability to use a variety of instructional strategies during an ESL reading class. In general, participants' self-reports were higher for instructional strategies than student engagement with a mean 4.11 out of 5 rating across all questions. Positive correlations were found between teacher's perceived self-efficacy for instructional strategies and amount of teacher training (r =.377), access to useful resources (r =.283), and years of experience teaching ESL (r = .342). However, as with student engagement, no significant correlation was found between perceived self-efficacy for instructional strategies and amount of professional development. We posit that, similar to efficacy for student engagement, this is likely because the majority of teachers reported receiving little to no professional development in teaching ESL reading at their current places of employment.

Curriculum and access to resources. The data from just two questions in this section, pertaining to resource access, are reported. Each question is followed by the mean rating (out of 5) as self-reported by the participants: (1) At my current place of employment, I have access to useful resources to help teach reading skills. (Mean: *3.97, SD: 3.94*). (2) At my current place of employment, I have access to useful resources to help teach vocabulary. (Mean: *.96, SD: .97*).

Pre-Service training and professional development. The data set for section four of the questionnaire, which asked teachers about their amount of pre-service training and current professional development, paints a rather dismal picture of the state of training and organizational support for ESL reading teachers. As many as 78.5% of teachers reported having little to no professional development in teaching reading skills at their current place of employment, as indicated by selecting the "0-2 times pear year" response. 77% of respondents reported taking 0-1 graduate level classes about teaching reading, and even fewer reported taking undergraduate classes on the subject (87% indicate 0 or 1 class). Not surprisingly, an overwhelming majority of the respondents indicated that they could benefit from more professional development or training in teaching ESL reading as evidenced by a mean response of 4.35 out of 5 on the Likert scale question (1 Disagree – 5 Agree).

Qualitative Interview Data

Self-reported ineffective ESL reading teachers. Analysis of the interview data from interviewees 1, 2, and 3 revealed a handful of patterns in their responses. Firstly, these interviewees reported only having taught ESL for between 6-10 years (mean: 8 years). Considering that the mean number of years teaching ESL among questionnaire participants was 12.16 years, these three interviewees have less experience than the average participant. Secondly, all three interviewees reported having no formal training in teaching ESL reading prior to becoming an in-service teacher. Instead, they indicated that they learned to teach ESL reading "mostly intuitively" or "from peer coaching with current colleagues." When asked the best way for teachers to improve their skills, all three stated that teachers should receive training which is "regular" and "ongoing" and is conducted by "expert teachers who specialize in ESL reading."

Two of the three interviewees in this group noted that they feel teaching vocabulary is easier than teaching reading strategies, referring to the latter as "stressful" due to lack of knowledge in how to do so and access to "limited and inadequate resources" to help them teach. Interestingly, the interviewee who reported that teaching reading strategies was easiest came from a K-12 teaching background in which she was paired with a "reading coach" who provided "a huge guide… about what she was supposed to be teaching or what the next step was." This interviewee stated that in turn, she felt that she taught reading strategies well because "it's more structured" than teaching vocabulary. Years of support from an expert coach in a former job likely influenced

this interviewee's response and level of confidence in teaching ESL reading strategies. Lastly, analysis of the responses to "What do you do well in your reading class?" revealed a pattern of "teaching vocabulary" and "modeling excitement about reading."

Self-reported effective ESL reading teachers. Interviewees 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 self-reported as being effective ESL reading teachers. Not surprisingly, the range of teaching experience across this group was much broader than the self-reported ineffective teachers (6-35 years) with a mean number of years of experience double that of the other group (16.4 years). This supports the findings from the quantitative data which show that years of experience strongly correlates with efficacy for student engagement and instructional strategies. Unlike the self-reported ineffective group, this group of interviewees all reported some degree of formal training at the graduate level in teaching ESL reading prior to becoming an in-service teacher. Additionally, all noted that they continue to seek out training through conferences, attending workshops, and "staying in the literature." Four out of the five interviewees discussed the importance of reflecting on their own experiences as readers as well when considering how to teach reading.

When asked about their opinion of the ease of teaching reading strategies as opposed to teaching vocabulary, three of the five interviewees stated that both are "equally easy to teach." This is likely due to the training they've each received and continue to seek out. Finally, in detailing what they do well in their ESL reading classes, a theme of setting goals and designing strong assessments emerged from the responses. This is reflected in statements including the following:

> I also feel like my assignments in reading courses are strong…(they) work because it's easy to assess whether or not (students) understand how to do it" and "(it) works because it gives students milestones that are tangible. They feel like they're making progress.

Access to resources. According to our quantitative survey results, access to beneficial resources for teachers is a significant predictor of teachers' perceived efficacy in teaching reading skills. It also significantly predicts teachers' perceived abilities to motivate students who show a low interest in reading. This is further supported by several interviewees when they were asked the question, "What resources should be available?" One person stated, "They (students) should choose texts that they enjoy! That's the only way students will be interested too (in addition to the teachers)." Another person stated the following:

> The most important resource is a good library so students can choose individually what they want to read…. Reading teachers need to take advantage of this (an independent reading program) so their students have choice. The tasks should be carefully chosen so as to not burden the student, but rather make them want to read the books.

Conclusions

The results support the notion that ESL reading teachers in a tertiary intensive English program need more training in and access to resources for teaching this skill in order to experience a higher sense of self-efficacy in the classroom. These findings both support and expand on previous literature by affirming the positive relationship between teacher training and self-efficacy as well as exploring the state of teacher self-efficacy and its relationship with other variables in an under-studied educational context: the intensive English program. Because our study was carried out with teachers from this unique genre of educational institution, it should be noted that our results may not be generalizable to other language learning contexts. Similarly, with a small sample size (N=70) representing programs across 17 states, further research should be conducted before firmly concluding that the trends in our data paint an accurate picture of teacher self-efficacy in the majority of IEPs within the U.S.

One of the goals of the present study was to shed light on the current lack of this training and its effect on teacher self-efficacy. However, in order to move forward and bolster teacher self-efficacy in the ESL reading classroom, we call for further research into specific reading methodology course offerings of ESL teacher training programs at universities across the United States as well as deeper exploration into the exact nature of any professional development offerings in ESL reading at the university level for in-service teachers. In this way, the field may gain a better sense of exactly what kind of teacher training courses and organizational support to develop.

A few suggestions for teacher professional development were gleaned from our qualitative interview data: observing expert teachers either online or in-person (Putnam & Borko, 2000), engaging in book groups where teachers read a book about teaching reading and discuss relevant ideas (Grossman, Wineburg, & Woolworth, 2001), participating in peer coaching with a knowledgeable colleague (Schifter & Fosnot, 1993), attending ongoing trainings by an expert in the field of teaching reading (Little, 1994), having an expert as an accessible resource (Smith, 1969; Brockbank & McGill, 2006), and having access to helpful websites for suggestions (Ingvarson, Meiers, & Beavis, 2005)

The above listed forms of teacher professional development boost a teacher's self-efficacy; some of which are well-documented by Bandura (1994, 1997). Observing expert teachers is a strong example of vicarious experience in which the observer relates to the expert teacher and gains the confidence to successfully accomplish a new skill. Both engaging in book clubs and having an expert as a resource are examples of social or verbal persuasion in which strong words of encouragement from a trusted person provide a positive perception of ability. Lastly, participating in peer coaching with a colleague is an example of master experience in which teachers are given the opportunity to build on past mastered skills by practicing similarly new ones. Whatever the form, the predominant theme is that this type of support needs to be ongoing and not just offered once or twice a year. This gives teachers the support they need as problems arise and keeps the methodologies used in the classroom current and relevant to the needs of the students (National Staff Development Council, 2001).

The results of this study also serve as a call for tertiary intensive English programs to take stock of the quantity and quality of resources available to their faculty for teaching ESL reading. Some possible resources for ESL teachers are as follows: Internet TESL Journal links page, ESL Gold (materials, lesson plans, and links for teachers and students), Using English (language references, teacher resources, analysis tools, discussion forum and links), and The Internet for ESL Teachers (Claire Braden's collection of pedagogical articles). Many researchers have found correlations between students having a choice in what they read with how they are intrinsically motivated to read. In fact, according to Reynolds & Symons (2001), background knowledge and topic interest are closely correlated and are a strong determining factor for a student's motivation to read. With students who come from a variety of countries and backgrounds in IEPs, this points to the need for teacher access to materials and resources that cover many content area topics.

Another factor which may affect student motivation is the incorporation a variety of engaging instructional strategies in teaching reading. According to Lems, Miller, and Soro, (2010), some strategies useful at the tertiary level are as follows: reader's response logs allowing students to engage with the reading and practice metacognitive skills while demonstrating comprehension, silent reading techniques such as SSR (Sustained Silent Reading) or DEAR (Drop Everything and Read) where students and the instructor silently read high-interest books, using visual and audio aids to supply a more dynamic interaction with the reading, and using semantic maps and other graphic organizers to bring meaning to non-fiction texts.

In conclusion, teaching reading skills to tertiary ESL students is an important academic endeavor in which some teachers in intensive English programs often feel underprepared to teach. With a lack of experience, pre-service training, and professional development, tertiary ESL teachers may not feel confident in teaching. Many desire adequate training and support in order to raise self-efficacy and effectiveness in the classroom. In addition, access to beneficial resources aids the teachers' perceived ability to motivate and instruct students to read. With the help of ongoing in-service training, teachers can obtain the instruction they need to feel more effective, and with access to resources, they can be equipped to implement the strategies and training they have received. Thus, both ESL teachers and students alike have a chance to be more successful in reaching their goals.

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Monetary and Career based Motives at the Core of EFL Programs: Problems and Solutions[1]

Programas de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera Basados en Fundamentos Económicos y Profesionales: Problemas y Soluciones

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Abstract

In this paper, we discuss the dominant discourses that use monetary and career-based reasons to justify the learning and teaching of English in Costa Rica by drawing parallels to similar phenomena taking place in Japan, Korea, Canada, and Colombia. We argue that the propagation of these discourses has resulted in the commodification of EFL teaching and learning in Costa Rica, as programs are designed to meet narrow material-based interests and purposes. The reflection includes an analysis of publicity around EFL learning, a national initiative to improve EFL teaching/learning, a specific EFL program in a public Costa Rican university, and the opinions of students from this program. We demonstrate how the construction of English as the means by which professionalism, economic growth, and wealth can be accomplished has shaped EFL curricula in particular ways, thereby neglecting diverse motivations for EFL learning. We finish the paper by advocating for the creation of more democratic spaces in EFL classrooms where both teachers and learners can critique in constructive ways the impact that these dominant discourses have on themselves as individuals and on EFL curricular at large.

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Keywords: Commodification of English, corporate-oriented English teaching and learning, critical discussions, diversifying EFL curriculum

Resumen

En este artículo discutimos los discursos dominantes que utilizan razones económicas para justificar la enseñanza y el aprendizaje del inglés en Costa Rica, estableciendo paralelos entre fenómenos que ocurren actualmente en Japón, Corea, Canadá y Colombia. La propagación de estos discursos ha dado como resultado la mercantilización de la enseñanza y aprendizaje del inglés en Costa Rica, impactando así el diseño curricular de los programas para satisfacer propósitos e intereses económicos. La reflexión incluye un análisis de la publicidad a nivel nacional en torno al aprendizaje del inglés, de algunas iniciativas nacionales orientadas al mejoramiento de esta área, de un programa de inglés como lengua extranjera ofertado en una universidad pública en Costa Rica, y de las opiniones de estudiantes de este programa. Se hace hincapié en cómo la construcción del inglés como medio para la movilidad social, riqueza y profesionalismo ha impactado los programas de inglés como lengua extranjera, causando que estos, en su mayoría, pasen por alto diversas motivaciones que los aprendices puedan tener para el aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera, debido a la prioridad que se le da a los intereses materiales y económicos del sector productivo. Por último, este artículo aboga por la creación de espacios democráticos en los cuales tanto profesores como estudiantes puedan criticar de forma constructiva el impacto que los discursos dominantes antes mencionados tienen sobre los individuos y el currículo en inglés como lengua extranjera en general.

Palabras clave: Comodificación del inglés, enseñanza del inglés orientada al sector productivo, discusiones críticas, la diversificación del currículo en inglés como lengua extranjera.

Resumo

Neste artigo discutimos os discursos dominantes que utilizam razões econômicas para justificar o ensino e a aprendizagem do inglês na Costa Rica, estabelecendo paralelos entre fenômenos que ocorrem atualmente no Japão, Coréia, Canadá e Colômbia. A propagação destes discursos deu como resultado a 'co-modificação' do ensino e aprendizagem do inglês na Costa Rica, impactando assim o desenho curricular dos programas para satisfazer os propósitos e interesses económicos. A reflexão inclui uma análise da publicidade ao nível nacional em torno à aprendizagem do inglês, de iniciativas nacionais orientadas ao melhoramento desta área, de um programa de inglês como língua estrangeira oferecida em uma universidade pública na Costa Rica, e as opiniões de estudantes deste programa. Enfatiza-se em como a construção do inglês promove a mobilidade social, riqueza e profissionalismo e como tem impactado os programas de inglês como língua estrangeira, que na sua maioria passam por cima diversas motivações que os aprendizes possam ter para a aprendizagem do inglês como língua estrangeira, devido à prioridade que se dá aos interesses

materiais e econômicos do setor produtivo. Finalmente, este artigo opta pela criação de espaços democráticos nos quais tanto professores como estudantes possam criticar de forma construtiva o impacto que os discursos dominantes antes mencionados têm sobre os indivíduos e o currículo em inglês como língua estrangeira em geral.

Palavras clave: Co-modificação do inglês, ensino do inglês orientado ao sector produtivo, discursões críticas, a diversificação do currículo em inglês como língua estrangeira.

Introduction

The learning and teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) has proliferated rapidly around the world, but even more so in regions attempting to actively participate in the so-called global economy, such is the case of Costa Rica. To respond to this ever-increasing demand for English, the number of EFL programs has also multiplied at all levels of education nationwide, creating a societal push that has positioned English as the only logical foreign language to learn and has granted it a mandatory status in K-16 (Álvarez, Valenzuela, & Villalobos, 2008). The rapid rise of EFL teaching/learning, however, requires an examination of the forces fueling the choice for EFL in the country and the pressures these forces exercise on EFL curricula in Costa Rica at the college level.

In this paper, we discuss the circulating discourses portraying EFL learning as a desirable/inevitable pursuit connected to monetary gain and career advancement, and argue that these may be not only drawing the attention of individuals but also shaping EFL curricula in Costa Rica in particular ways. To this end, we examine how the discourses disseminated by EFL advertisements, combined with the pressures exercised by a national government-supported foundation, have caused the EFL program in a public Costa Rican university to be reduced to business/career advancement ideals. Our claim is that programs such as this one fail to consider the wide range of motivations driving learners to engage in EFL learning. To demonstrate this, we analyze the multiple reasons that 30 students in the program provide for their EFL endeavor. Based on this analysis, we advocate for democratic/constructivist spaces, where both teachers and learners can examine diverse motivations for EFL learning and the extent to which learning English truly serves the promises disseminated by the discourses connecting English to monetary gain and career advancement.

Literature Review

This paper deals with the *discourses* that connect EFL teaching and learning to monetary gain and career advancement in the business sense, and the impact these have had on individuals' choices for what foreign languages to learn and on EFL curricula in Costa Rica at large. According to Mayr (2008), "Discourse is a difficult and fuzzy concept as it is used by social theorists (e.g. Foucault, 1972, 1977), critical linguists (e.g. Fowler et al., 1979) and finally, critical discourse analysts (e.g. van Dijk, 1990), all of whom define discourse slightly differently and from their various theoretical and disciplinary standpoints" (p. 7). Our

use of the term 'discourse', however, does not refer to the structuralist paradigm that looks at language as separate from the social use it is given and the social context in which it originates. Instead, we endorse a more functionalist view in that we take discourse to be any instance of language-in-use that rationalizes social practices and thus constructs a version of reality. That is, we understand discourse to, "...deal with meaning in social, cultural, and political terms, a broader approach to meaning than is common in much mainstream linguistics" (Gee, 2011: ix).

Our argument is that a barrage of discourses has legitimized particular social constructions of English. The ideologies (ideascapes) contained in such discourses, which position English as an inevitable/desirable endeavor and call for a link between EFL and the corporate sector to be established, have become undeniable truths, fueled by advertisements and nationwide polices (mediascapes) (Appadurai, 1996). As the ideascapes that English is the only logical foreign language to learn and that EFL programs must respond to the corporate sector gain more force, these ideologies become regimes that teachers, administrators, and learners of EFL programs agree to believe in and act upon.

In various countries, but especially in Costa Rica, dominant discourses circulate, which construct EFL learning as an indispensable tool that guarantees material and monetary gains and position EFL learning as a non-negotiable, inevitable task that must meet the needs and demands of the corporate sector. As Motha and Lin (2014) put it, the present EFL landscape is filled with discourses connecting the lack of English proficiency to a disconnection from an imagined international community and an exclusion from access to economic gain and professionalism, thus compelling individuals to regard English as worthy of pursuit and EFL program administrators and curriculum writers to reshape such programs in ways that serve the business sector.

One illustrative example of how English has become a sought-after foreign language is Park's (2010) study of success stories published in the press in Korea at the same time that an 'English frenzy' was developing as a result of the government and the business sector joining efforts to position English as an indispensable asset in the global economy. These stories, normally written from the perspective of a journalist, but at times composed as self-reports, consisted of accounts portraying individuals who succeeded at learning English as "… character[s] whose achievements in language learning attest to [their] grand potential for endless self-development and self-improvement celebrated in the new economy" (p. 23). The publication of these

success stories was coupled with the upgrading of the English curricula to emphasize communicative competence, the creation of immersion programs, and more aggressive competition among universities to offer courses taught in English. All in all, these stories contributed to the transformation of English in Korea from "…mere preparedness for employment" to being "… about living up to the vision of what constitutes the ideal human subject in the neoliberal world" (p. 27).

Another example of the push for English is found in Kubota's study (2011) of the discourses propelling the EFL industry in Japan. In her study, she explains that the current linguistic instrumentalism, taking place in Japan, is rooted in the assumptions that EFL competence is necessary to participate in a global economy and that English proficiency enhances economic gain for both nations and individuals. Kubota argues that the language education policies and the language teaching and testing industries in Japan have perpetuated these discourses of linguistic instrumentalism and although there is a general consensus that the entire population is to acquire basic skills in English, the business sector has made it practically mandatory for Japanese professionals to develop EFL proficiency to meet corporate demands. As the EFL testing industry further institutionalizes the ideology that English is a requirement in the present labor market, more individuals resolve to engage in EFL learning and EFL programs adopt a business- and work-skills orientation.

Yet another example is Heller's study (2002) of the transformation in the ideology and practice of English-French bilingualism in Canada unfolding over the last four decades, which she claims is filled with contradictions between language as a mark of belonging and language as a marketable commodity. She discusses that in Canada "… young people expect their bilingualism to translate into privileged access to jobs in the service and information sectors," (p. 59). Although Heller's study focuses on the push for French as a second language, she clearly illustrates how monetary- and career-based discourses manage to spread the need for foreign/second language learning as connected to the corporate sector, under the promise of access to wealth and professional advancement. This, in turn, points to the fact that not only English is subject to commodification, but that other languages with symbolic power may be undergoing similar processes of instrumentalism.

Even closer to the context under scrutiny, Guerrero's study (2010) around the force that English is gaining in the 'expanding circle' countries where English has no official status but where it is largely used as a foreign language, also serves to illuminate the point we wish to

make. In her study, she examines the Colombian National Bilingualism Project and claims that the initiative serves to perpetuate the symbolic power of English by constructing it as a necessary tool for academic and economic success. She assesses how this project constructs English "… as the magic formula that will solve [their] economic, social, cultural, and political problems…" (p. 305). To this, however, she adds that, "in such a complex, competitive, rich, plurilingual, pluricultural world like the one we live in, it is very narcissist and egocentric to think that speaking an important language like English is the key to solve all our problems" (p. 306).

While the alignment between EFL programs and the demands of the commercial sector is not necessarily in itself ethically or even pedagogically wrong, the reduction of EFL programs to focus only on monetary gain and corporate professionalism runs the risk of neglecting other motivations for EFL learning. Although not necessarily present in public discourses about English learning, individuals are likely to have a wide range of reasons for choosing a foreign language. While some learners may be driven by an interest in cultures and people, a desire to broaden their view and avoid provincialism, a desire for new stimuli and challenges, a need for achievement, or a desire to integrate into a new community (Dörnyei, 1990), others may do so fueled by a desire for travel, knowledge, and friendship (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983). And still others may simply have the goal of speaking a difficult or exclusive language (Oxford & Shearin, 1994), or relating to the international community (Yashima, 2009) by going abroad, associating with members of other cultural/linguistic groups, and engaging in foreign affairs.

In EFL programs driven by the profit-based and career-advancement mentality, learners' diverse motivations can easily be overlooked, as the priority becomes "... to be the provider of human capital and the engine for economic growth" (Block, Gray, & Holborow, 2012, p. 7), which inevitably leads to the exclusion of alternative purposes for learning English. Higher education institutions are particularly pressured to provide individuals with the skills required in a highly capitalist economy (Holborow, 2012, pp. 14-32). As Mayr (2008) puts it, "...there has been a tendency to run universities like commercial businesses, with students being their customers. This development in turn has been promoted by the government's pro-managerial discourses and policies, which espouse an entrepreneurial culture and educational system" (p. 3). In other words, universities have undergone changes in the direction of adopting a free-market and corporate business viewpoint, which have implications for EFL programs.

As a matter of fact, for universities in Costa Rica, the dominant circulating discourses mentioned above have gradually allocated the learning of English a mandatory status. But not only that, these discourses have also led to the re-structuring of EFL programs so that they meet the narrow needs and interests of the productive corporate sector, which necessitates workers to possess only technical, business, job-related, and managerial skills. The status of English as the mandatory foreign language to learn and the practice of shaping EFL programs in ways that respond to corporate demands in turn has resulted in limiting learners' choices as to what foreign languages to learn and what purposes to learn them for. In the next section, we explain the approaches we used to demonstrate that the Costa Rican EFL landscape, specifically at the university level, resembles the phenomena currently taking place in Japan, Korea, Canada, and Colombia.

Pressures Shaping EFL Programs in Costa Rica

Devoid of any contextual knowledge, one cannot understand the forces fueling the choice for EFL in Costa Rica and the pressures these forces exercise on EFL curricula in Costa Rica at the college level. For this reason, we present examples of language learning advertisements found in flyers, billboards, magazines, and newspapers that are publicly displayed and illustrative of dominant public discourses in Costa Rica. In other words, we provide a glimpse into Costa Rican ideascapes/mediascapes (Appadurai, 1996) around EFL. As we reflect upon these advertisements, we also draw connections to the pressures applied by a foundation in Costa Rican on EFL programs nationwide, as well as the structure and institutional status of one particular EFL program in a public university in the country, with an emphasis on an analysis of its textbooks and testing practices.

Zooming in from the broader societal context of Costa Rican ideascapes and mediascapes and the local environment of the target EFL program, we also present and examine data collected by means of a survey of 30 students in the EFL program under scrutiny, here and after called *Inglés para Todos* (English for All), regarding their motivations for engaging in EFL learning. The participants, taking the third level of the program, were in majors such as economics, environmental management, international affairs, administration, history, visual arts, topography, gender studies, and biology. At the time of this study, there were only three level-three courses, and so the participants were randomly selected from out of these three groups (10 students from each group). Looking at all these facets of the Cost Rican EFL landscape

allowed us to see not only the push for EFL in the nation but also the effects this push has had on the EFL program Inglés para Todos. The table below summarizes the data sources examined in this paper.

Table 1. Sources of Data Utilized for Analysis

Data Source	Information Found in Data
EFL teaching and learning advertisements found in billboards, magazines, newspapers, and flyers	Circulating discourses around EFL teaching and learning in Costa Rica
Goals of a Costa Rican foundation and its influence on the structure of EFL program nationwide	Pressures on the status of EFL programs and the shape of these EFL programs at the college level
Textbook and testing practices in the program *Inglés para Todos*	Business and career advancement orientation of program *Inglés para Todos*
Self reports of 30 participants regarding their motivations for engaging in EFL learning	Diverse motivations for EFL learning other than the ones contained in dominant discourses

The Media, Nationwide Initiatives, and the Corporate Sector

In Costa Rica, the public is exposed to a barrage of advertisements about English teaching and learning filled with discourses portraying the language as a desirable and inevitable endeavor that brings monetary gain and career advancement, connected to the needs and demands of the productive corporate sector. These advertisements, which can be seen on billboards, in newspapers, magazines, and in social networks, encourage Costa Ricans to study English, by linking its learning to being a competent professional in a ruthless job market, to higher possibilities of getting a promotion or better-paid job, and to opening doors to a lucrative business world in the entrepreneurship sense.

Although this is not an in-depth study of the construction of EFL by the Costa Rican media, an overview of advertisements that abound in Costa Rica serve as an illustration of the ideascapes/mediascapes (Appadurai, 1996) currently circulating monetary- and professionalism-oriented reasons for EFL learning. Specifically, four major ideascapes were embodied in the advertisements we found in various sources: (a) *Thinking in English* was equated with *thinking big*, causing creativity, success, and the pursuit of dreams to be associated with proficiency in English; (b) EFL learning was associated with

increasing profits and allowing professionals to *offer better services,* which clearly connects EFL proficiency to money-related outcomes; (c) a lack of oral proficiency in English was compared to being mute, thus constructing receptive bilingualism (understanding written and spoken English but not being able to speak it as an unfortunate situation that positions individuals in a place of deficit and disadvantage; (d) an implicit promise was made that being proficient in English would improve individuals' *professional profile* by granting them better chances of being hired; and (e) *speaking English* was described as an unavoidable requirement to get a job in the current competitive job market, portraying EFL learning as a competition in which those who learn the language have a competitive edge.

This kind of advertisement and the discourses it contains tap into people's desires and fears by connecting English proficiency to success, profit, professionalism, and a ruthless job market. These circulating discourses have constructed the learning of English as a desirable endeavor, thus pushing Costa Ricans to choose English as their additional language, based on the belief that it unlocks doors to wealth, social mobility, and professional development in a highly business-oriented setting. Against the backdrop of these circulating discourses, English has become a high-demand and profitable area of education in Costa Rica by those aspiring to access economic mobility. As the belief that speaking English automatically translates into access to better paid jobs and material gain, learning English has become more widespread and even gained the support of the government, which has created the conditions to further endorse EFL learning as the only logical choice and to reshape EFL programs. In Costa Rica, more recently, the EFL programs that have flourished are commonly those that have been reduced to the aforementioned ideologies and purposes, thus contributing to the exclusion of alternative motivations for investing in EFL, in favor of utilitarian purposes.

Driven by the English frenzy (Park, 2010) also present in Costa Rica, more and more parents make tremendous sacrifices to enroll their children in the schools with the strongest EFL programs, hoping to secure a prosperous future for their children. This pressing need for English also resembles the EFL landscape of Korea, where due to active promotion of English as a crucial resource "for competition in the global economy, university students and white-collar workers struggle to acquire and improve English language skills to render themselves marketable in the increasingly flexible job market, and parents strain themselves financially and emotionally trying to provide their children with the best opportunity for acquiring English" (Park, 2010, p. 23).

By and large, the dominant discourse in the country seems to be that EFL learning and teaching is worth it, mainly to the extent that it serves economic growth, as is discussed below.

In Costa Rica, the government has granted EFL learning a mandatory status in elementary and high school education (Álvarez, Valenzuela, & Villalobos, 2008). This situation has been further institutionalized by the creation of a national foundation whose objectives include a) *generating knowledge for decision-making on public policies related to the teaching of foreign languages,* b) orchestrating actions with international volunteer programs focused on language teaching, designing educational processes that emphasize the development of language skills for the workforce, and c) *building public-private partnerships to carry out language programs on a national level.* As evident in the objectives in italics, this government-supported foundation is to become involved in public policies related to EFL, focusing on creating a stronger link between EFL and the acquisition of skills for the productive corporate sector. Although this foundation states that it works as a catalyst for the teaching of various foreign languages, their efforts point to positioning English as the foreign language in Costa Rica, and not as much work has been done geared towards other languages.

Compelled by the objectives described above, this foundation has provided massive amounts of EFL teacher training across the nation, focused on improving the teachers' EFL proficiency and their EFL teaching methodologies. In addition, the foundation has also created mandatory EFL programs in the five public universities in the country, which to a greater or lesser degree, have taken the shape of ESP two-year programs, characterized by a particular choice of textbooks. Of specific interest is the four-level EFL program *Inglés para Todos* in one of these public universities. Granted, the university where this program operates offers other foreign languages such as Japanese, Mandarin, and Portuguese, but the EFL program in question is the one that has been given the most priority, as seen by the fact that for 27 out of 36 majors, taking this EFL program has institutionally been declared mandatory and that while the university does offer few courses in other foreign languages (three to four for each language at the most), up to 27 EFL groups are opened every semester. The projection of authorities in this university, however, is for the program to become mandatory in all majors in the near future.

EFL Textbooks, Testing Practices, and the Corporate Sector

A quick overview of the contents of the textbooks utilized in the program under scrutiny reveals an interesting trend. The content of the textbooks for levels one and two center on a number of topics including: personal details, my region, leisure, home and away, buying and selling, services, work, gadgets and technology, food, journeys, body and mind, and getting together. The topics seem fairly varied but many of these units are developed in office and work related contexts. Levels three and four topics include working life, projects, leisure time from work, services and systems at work, customers, customer service, guests and visitors at a company, security at the workplace, teamwork at the workplace, logistics of business projects, decision-making at the workplace, innovations at the workplace, and evaluation of processes and performance at the workplace. In this second textbook, it becomes more evident how the learners are introduced to the world of business with units that connect English to economic growth, money-related outcomes and professionalism, thus reducing English to just business. None of the units of the second book include alternative uses for English.

One might think that a textbook is only a textbook and that the teachers have the power of agency to include alternative materials and activities, but the sole existence of a pre-selected textbook often results in instructors keeping the textbook at the center of all teaching and learning. This is true even more so when the textbook selected is coupled with the administration of a standardized final exam at the end of each course, which centers on the units contained in the textbook. For example, the standardized final exam administered to students finishing level three in the second semester of 2015 was comprised of the following items. The listening sections included 1) listening to two people talking about their strong and weak points in applying for a job, 2) listening to a woman talking about what she likes and dislikes about business trips, and 3) listening to a man talking about how to create an effective and appealing business website. The reading sections involved 1) matching people to potential jobs according to their qualifications and provided job descriptions, and 2) solving a multiple-choice exercise based on a text about investments. The writing section comprised the following tasks: 1) writing about their dream job, 2) writing a complaint letter to a business manager, 3) writing a new proposal for a company, 4) writing an e-mail to the human resources manager about the importance of work-life balance, and 5) describing a strategy to launch a new product. The speaking section included 1) showing an international business partner the premises of the company he/she is visiting, 2) describing an entrepreneurial initiative to a potential

business partner, 3) explaining to the staff of a company changes in the structure of the business, and 4) engaging in speed networking to find business partners. The clear match between the units in the textbook and the final standardized exam is a factor that may force teachers to allow the business-oriented textbook to guide their teaching.

The textbooks selected for the *Inglés para Todos* and the privileged standardized testing practices resemble the trend of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), "which incorporate[s] concerns like 'negotiations', 'meeting skills', 'preparation skills'...." (Cameron, 2002, p. 71). Although ESP is, of course, a valid and important option to have, the predominance of ESP topics in textbooks, the abundance of ESP courses/programs, and the reduction of EFL to the learning of work-based and business-oriented skills stifle learners with diverse motivations from the opportunities to learn the language for alternative purposes, favoring the interests of those concerned about business and profit making. Needless to say, our aim is not to criticize the existence of ESP courses and programs but to problematize the marginalization of alternative motivations for EFL learning and the assumption that ESP equals guaranteed professional advancement.

The EFL Classroom: A Complex Landscape of Motivations

Given the particular textbook selection and testing practices in Inglés para Todos, a survey was conducted with 30 EFL students taking their third semester of English, to learn about their motivations to study the language. The participants were majoring in economics, environmental management, international affairs, administration, history, visual arts, topography, gender studies, etc. In the survey, they were given a list of possible reasons to study English, were asked to choose three that coincided with their own motivations, and to rank them in order of importance. This list included studying abroad, getting to know the culture of English-speaking countries, finding a job, getting a promotion, meeting general interest in foreign languages, meeting general interest in learning more about English, facing a personal challenge, expanding their knowledge of the world, traveling, making/maintaining relationships with English speakers, fulfilling an academic requirement, and setting up their own business.

As regards their first motivation, Figure 1 below shows that although the biggest force driving the respondents to engage in foreign language learning coincides with the discourses spread by the media and government-supported initiatives, their EFL endeavor is also fueled by other various motivation of a more personal type.

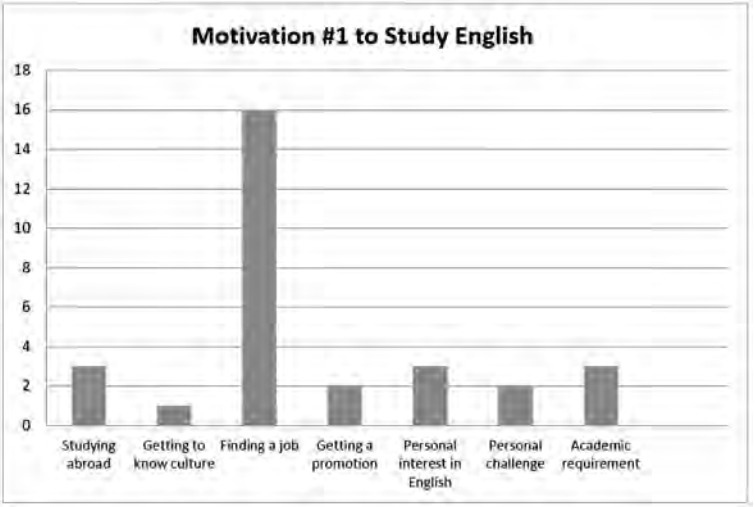

Figure 1. Motivation #1 to study English

Regarding their second motivation for studying English, most students report to have money-related motivations such as finding a job or getting a promotion, as well as career-based reasons including studying abroad and academic requirement. However, it is important to note here that the money-related motivation fell from a 60% to a 26% whereas career-based motives remained stable. Additionally, the informants also reported to have other motivations. Clearly, as they explore other reasons why they engage in EFL learning, other alternative motives not related to money or career building start to emerge and become more prevalent.

Figure 2. Motivation #2 to study English

Finally, as to their third motivation, the picture becomes a bit more complex, in which the majority reported to be interested in meeting a general interest in understanding English better and personal reasons, as well as career-based motivations.

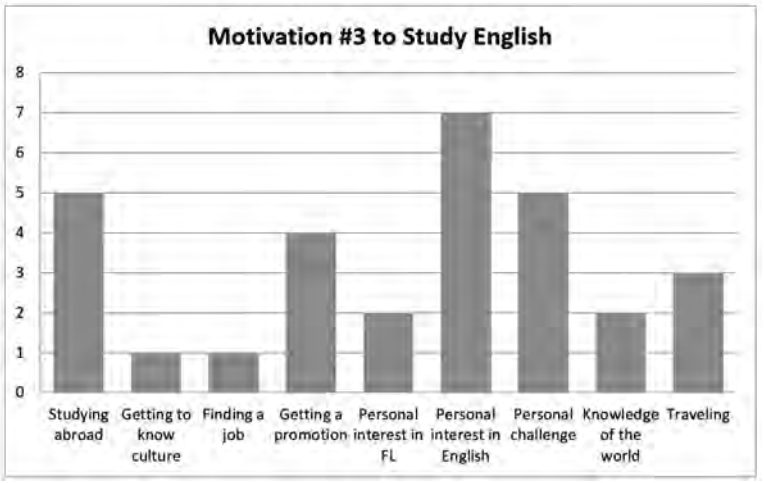

Figure 3. Motivation #3 to study English

These figures demonstrate that individuals normally have multiple motivations for engaging in EFL learning, that even the majority of students who are driven by money- and career-oriented purposes have other motivations as well, and that the classroom is a complex landscape of motivations. As demonstrated in the figures above, learners walk into EFL classrooms driven by diverse motives and hoping to accomplish multiple objectives that programs focusing on money- and career-related outcomes fail to meet. The high percentage found in the respondents' first motivation to study English shows that the discourses that connect the learning of English to thinking big, to granting skills to offer a better professional service, to boosting one's professional profile and opportunities to get hired in a competitive job market, are pushing individuals to believe that EFL learning is a desirable and unavoidable task, thereby fueling an English frenzy (Park, 2010).

Our Task as Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

In light of the 'English frenzy' (Park, 2010) spreading in Japan, Korea, Canada, Colombia, and Costa Rica, and the proliferation of EFL programs that respond to narrow motivations for EFL learning, it is

essential that we as EFL professionals take measures to bring about change geared towards a more diverse EFL curriculum. To this end, the design and implementation of EFL curricula must consider that not all learners are invested in EFL learning for the reasons advanced by circulating discourses and that those who are, may also have other alternative motivations. We insist that learners be critical of their motivations because even when the discourses connect English to promises of material gain and career advancement, both teachers and learners must examine the extent to which these promises can become a reality.

This critical examination of motivations is possible by opening spaces in EFL classes in which the forces pushing people to learn English and guiding language curricula are discussed to move the current desire for English from an unconscious to a conscious plane (Motha & Lin, 2014). The resulting new awareness can constitute an important starting point for teachers and students to start to question their own motivations and their connection to dominant circulating discourses around EFL and to seriously examine what English can do for them. This dialogue can potentially allow them to make liberating decisions about their EFL learning endeavor and about what they will do with the English they learn. Again, critical discussions should center on an examination of how dominant monetary and career advancement discourses impact individuals and EFL curricula. This dialogue can be a process to come to terms with the many contradictions EFL teachers feel between their altruistic reasons for joining the field and the often-limiting ways of being an EFL professional in programs that favor money- and career-based motivations.

In the direction of catering to multiple motivations for EFL learning within the curriculum, we generated some examples of activities and topics teachers may incorporate into their lessons to cultivate a multi-faceted rationale for studying English: (1) using English for volunteering or working for international altruistic aims, (2) exploring aesthetic uses of language such as composing music e writing poetry and short stories, (3) learning not only about English speaking countries but also about the world through different perspectives, given how much media is produced in English, (4) participating in and promoting youth culture by consuming, analyzing and creating content from a youth culture perspective, (5) taking a stand to support minority or indigenous language rights and revitalization, (6) turning aesthetic reading into an everyday classroom practice, and (7) discussing the need for social and not only economic entrepreneurship.

These seven ideas are rarely tackled in the books that are currently used in EFL programs in Costa Rica, and are never to be found in the current advertising for EFL learning nor in the goals and projects of the national government-supported foundation. By integrating such topics and activities into an EFL curriculum, students may find themselves more engaged, more successful, and may develop more and better communicative proficiency, which in turn may serve them very well in the marketplace. But more importantly, these may allow EFL learners to see the multiple purposes for which English can be used, other than the money- and career-based ones comprising the dominant circulating discourses.

One good example of the ideas exposed above is the Caracola Creative Languages project by Alice Emery, Luz Cadavid and Wendy García, located in New Haven, Connecticut, whose vision is to provide socially engaged language teaching and learning founded in the principles of experiential learning, artistic creation as a transformative exercise, and communication. In their philosophy, they state that while they are aware that speaking multiple languages brings about numerous opportunities for growth, they seek to open spaces for exciting cultural experiences in collaboration with members of the community. This, they claim, may serve to bridge the social divides that may exist at the community level. To this, we would add, that a curriculum that departs from the expressed needs of the learners is more likely to help those learners become successful at communicating in the second or foreign language that they are learning; skills that may as well serve them for job and money related purposes or any other motivations they may have. The Caracola Creative Languages founders understand this and have managed to translate it into a curriculum that responds to their learners.

Our idea is not to stop individuals from choosing EFL or to shut down ESP-oriented programs but to call for the diversification of EFL curricula so that it includes various motivations and to educate individuals to become conscious of their own motivations and critical towards circulating discourses connecting English to profit, career advancement and success. One good starting point to initiate dialogue in the EFL classroom is the question, *"How might English be a language that allows us to be more, rather than just to have more?"* (Pennycook, 2000, p. 220). EFL needs more critical language teachers and learners capable of taking actions towards diversifying EFL curricula.

Fueled by the discourses in advertisements and the pressures from the government-supported foundations, English itself and EFL programs in Costa Rica are being commodified, where individuals' fears

of a competitive job market take priority over their aspirations to travel, to get to know the world, to keep and maintain friendships with native and nonnative speakers of English, to expand their perspectives of the world, to set up their own business, to take on a personal challenge or simply to learn more about a foreign language. A program that excludes non-money related motivations runs the risk of leaving little to no room for discussions around diversity, equity and justice; for the development of critical thinking skills; for activism around important current issues such as immigration and human rights. Programs that mostly focus on work skills, as seen in the textbook and testing practices favored in *Inglés para Todos*, exclude topics such as social entrepreneurship, as it responds to the needs of the industry and not to studies that focus on prospective students and their various motivations to engage in EFL learning. Interestingly, at the national level, needs analyses seem to be done on the industry and corporate sector and not on the learners themselves. Governments and universities seem to operate upon the premise that serving corporations equals serving people's needs, dreams and aspirations.

Conclusions

This discussion is grounded in the Costa Rican context, specifically that in higher education. The consequences of monetary and career-based motives for studying English are likely to apply to primary and secondary school settings as well, but this is outside the scope of this paper. We speculate that the issues raised here are repeated all over Latin America, but again, this discussion focuses the analysis on the situation in Costa Rica. We also acknowledge that is paper is not an in-depth study of ideology in any given institution's EFL program. It is merely a scholarly reflection on and critique of the current state of affairs in EFL teaching in higher education in Costa Rica. In this article, we explored international literature on the proliferation of English for monetary and career-based motivations and then linked this literature to the unique context of Costa Rica, with a small set of data serving to illustrate some of the issues raised.

By engaging in the actions described in the section above, the satisfaction many teachers may feel is to know that while they are part of the teaching force of one of the most powerful languages in the world, they did not succumb to a prescribed curriculum without critical examination of alternative perspectives to those offered by the dominant discourses. Opposition to the current commodification of EFL teaching and learning and its reduction to profit and career purposes is

a big challenge that is already long overdue. The ideology –real and imagined– that English serves the "broadest possible communication" and that "it is an instrumental 'necessity' for getting a good job" (Gal, 2012, p. 39) is so much a part of our everyday lives that it becomes unthinkable for society to start operating otherwise. But in hindsight, every effort counts in changing a landscape of foreign language teaching that still puts the market at the center of human activity and leaves humans and their diverse reasons for engaging in EFL learning at the periphery.

Our discussion aims to articulate a problem in the field of EFL teaching and learning; namely, that we should not allow the study of English to be defined entirely by the demands of the market. There are many reasons to study a language and by tapping into or even cultivating these multiple reasons for English learning, we have the opportunity to engage learners in dynamic, current, authentic language teaching and learning.

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