GATESOL in Action

FALL 2020 | VOLUME 30 | ISSUE 1

Supporting Multilingual Learners in the Era of COVID-19

GATESOL in Action

Dr. David L. Chiesa, *University of Georgia*
Dr. Robert A. Griffin, *University of West Georgia*

Editors

EDITORIAL REVIEW BOARD

GATESOL EXECUTIVE BOARD

www.georgiatesoljournal.org
journal@gatesol.org
ISSN 2331-6845

GATESOL in Action Journal is published by Georgia Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (GATESOL)
P. O. Box 17933 | Atlanta, Georgia 30316 | gatesol.org | info@gatesol.org

TABLE OF CONTENTS

From the Editors

Supporting Multilingual Learners in the Era of COVID-19.....1
David L. Chiesa and Robert A. Griffin

Empirical Research or Literature Reviews

Nexus Analysis as an Approach to Navigate Change.....3
Mackenzie Bristow

Reinforcement of White Native-Speakerism: An Analysis of English Language Teacher Training Materials.....16
Elise Brittain

Poetry in TESOL Teacher Education: A Chinese Teacher's Identity Negotiation and Reconstruction Before and During the Pandemic.....32
Yixuan Wang

Teaching Media Literacy to ESL and EFL Students in the Age of COVID-19.....48
Joshua Gaston

Pedagogical Practices, Programs, Policy, and Perspectives

Engaging Adult English Language Learners in Distance Education: An ESL Program's Experience During the COVID-19 Pandemic.....59
Mary Baxter

Empowering Language Learning Strategies Online.....70
Melissa Aberle-Grasse

Teaching Perspectives

Communicating in the Face of Racism: Infinitive v. Gerund Verbal Complements in English.....80
Melody Pao

Online Teaching: The Affordances of PowerPoint and YouTube for a More Inclusive Approach.....91
Ndeye Bineta Mbodj

Supporting Multilingual Learners in the Era of COVID-19

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 1–2
ISSN: 2331-6845

David L. Chiesa
University of Georgia

Robert A. Griffin
University of West Georgia

This year, 2020, has been an exceptionally tough year. There have been multiple incursions on our social, political, and economic lives—COVID-19, the murder of George Floyd and Ahmaud Arbery, and presidential proclamations barring foreigners from entering the U.S. These situations have directly impacted the psychology of students, teachers, parents, and administrators throughout Georgia and beyond and have forced educators to rethink, reshape, and redesign the teaching/learning space. This special issue is a response to the current climate in the U.S. and includes articles that focus on the changes, challenges, innovation, and instructional strategies that have affected the way we think about language, multilingual identities, second language instruction, and language program administration.

Evolution of Educational Ecosystems: Language Programs as Lived Experiences

The first article, by Bristow, is an illustration of how English Language Support Programs (ELSPs) are in themselves educational ecosystems made up of lived experiences. To navigate the new set of educational challenges for English language program administrators (ELPAs) in 2020, Bristow looks to the semiotic resources of ELPAs and how they mediate the social actions ELSPs take through a methodological and theoretical approach called Nexus Analysis. Throughout the article, Bristow exemplifies how Nexus Analysis can be used to navigate change in ELSPs by addressing problems and identifying pertinent solutions.

Baxter's piece is a practical narrative account of how one language program managed change effectively during the pandemic. Baxter and her team addressed multidimensional social, political, and economic problems head on and provided sustainable solutions. Baxter and her team dedicated time to promote diverse and inclusive materials in distance learning contexts to foster inclusivity and participation by offering accessibility, varied and relevant content, and opportunities for autonomy and self-directed learning.

Reconceptualizing Online Teaching/Learning Spaces for Multilingual Learners

The literature review on media literacy by Gaston showcases the importance of supporting multilingual learners to find truth in a world saturated with information, considering the current COVID-19 'infodemic' and the proliferation of misinformation and disinformation on social media. He makes the case for why media literacy education is needed for multilingual learners. Despite the number of issues teachers, administrators, and institutions have had rolling out a sudden transition to distance learning, Gaston shows how the current climate is a perfect opportunity to teach media literacy skills to multilingual students.

Aberle-Grasse's article forces readers to take pause and reconceptualize the value and impact of using language learning strategies to support multilingual learners' well-being. She argues cogently that language educators need to take into consideration the trauma of COVID-19 and the physical stress associated with the pandemic. To support learners during this unprecedented time, she addresses the emotional and physical needs of these learners by exemplifying how teaching language learning strategies increases a sense of self-efficacy. Thus, helping learners take control of their learning could have a positive impact on their ability to handle the recent trauma. Utilizing language learning strategies, such as goal setting, reflection, and peer-review, she argues, can support the development of an online community, which is needed in 2020.

The teaching technique described by Mbodj exemplifies how the software applications YouTube and PowerPoint, which are common (and affordable) to many teachers in Georgia and beyond, can help address students' learning differences. The techniques shared in this paper contribute to a more inclusive approach to online teaching by providing multilingual learners with the additional support they may need to comprehend course materials.

Disrupting Discriminatory Practices in TESOL for Identity Construction

Brittain draws our attention to the construct of Whiteness as a centered phenomenon in English language teaching (ELT), which contributes to discriminatory practices in TESOL through reliance on and privileging of White norms on a global scale. She explores how ideologies that reinforce White native-speakerism are demonstrated in open-source English teaching methodology training materials designed for global ELT audiences. Through critical discourse analysis, Brittain discerns that ELT materials have been designed to honor teacher agency and context; however, they also demonstrate contradictory, simultaneous representations of resistance to and reinforcement of ideologies of White native-speakerism.

Wang's article showcases the relationship between the arts and the world of TESOL and asks the following two questions: What role does arts/poetry play in (language) teacher education; and what can arts-based approaches offer in TESOL teacher education? She presents a thought-provoking case study of how a Chinese international graduate student—Meili (pseudonym)—negotiates and reconstructs her language teacher-poet identity in her emergent bilingual poems. Through analysis of three interviews, Wang articulates how Meili is able to challenge the long-existing norms and judgments surrounding nativeness in the field of TESOL by bringing her individual and multilingual voice to her poems.

Pao presents a form-focused lesson plan intended to help English as a Second Language (ESL) learners of East Asian origin communicate in the face of racial discrimination that has emerged due to COVID-19. The lesson takes a learner-centered approach to instructional design and adopts a pedagogy of particularity, meaning language instruction should be customized to a specific group of learners. The article sheds light on a relevant and timely topic that pertains not only to the language learning goals of these learners, but also their identities as immigrants of East Asian descent.

This issue of *GATESOL in Action Journal* (*GIAJ*) is indeed, GATESOL in action! It showcases the strength and power of our language teaching profession to rise up during a time of uncertainty and unpredictability to support the lives and well-being of the multilingual populations we serve. We hope this issue is also a vehicle for change. There is still a lot of work to be done, and as we look ahead, we see a brighter future that is diverse, equitable, and inclusive for all.

Published: October 29, 2020

Nexus Analysis as an Approach to Navigate Change

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 3–15
ISSN: 2331-6845

Mackenzie Bristow
English Language Support Programs and Global Engagement, Emory University

Abstract
Spring 2020 ushered a new set of educational challenges for English language program administrators (ELPAs) ranging from the COVID-19 pandemic to social and racial injustices experienced by staff, faculty, and learners. Recognizing the lack of materials to support ELPA professional development, this article introduces the theoretical and methodological approach of Nexus Analysis as a possible approach for administrators when navigating complex educational ecosystems. Along with a review of literature that describes the role of ELPAs and their associated duties, this article positions the actions of language program administration, which range from policy creation to ordering supplies, as mediated by outside factors on the societal, community, and individual scale. Following this, the Nexus Analysis methodological approach of engagement, navigation, and change is reviewed and generalized to educational settings. To conclude, past research studies that have used Nexus Analysis are reviewed with the aim to connect with familiar ELPA management scenarios and practical considerations unique to our current time in history.

Keywords
English language program management, English language program administrators, Nexus Analysis

Background

English language program administrators (ELPAs) are no strangers to change nor the impacts that geopolitical forces can have on the stability of a successful school or program. Many would argue, however, that U.S. ELPAs are experiencing a new level of instability with the trifecta of COVID-19, racial injustice, and government policies that have attempted to restrict international student mobility or force F-1 students to attend in-person classes to maintain their status despite the health consequences. While government policies reacting or mitigating the public health response to COVID-19, police brutality, and immigration seem to be changing daily, ELPAs face immediate and long-term questions as a result. How do we use our own past experience as well as those from faculty, learners, and our community to navigate the current situation? How do we manage our language programs that in the past relied heavily on face-to-face interactions and networking to achieve aims to a situation now mediated by remote platforms? How do we address the institutional and societal ideas circulating as a result of top-down policies and proclamations about our students that ultimately impact our classrooms? Although these exact questions arise out of our new context, they highlight a familiar educational ecosystem and real-life challenges that exist within English language learning environments across scales and time (Blommaert, 2007; Pennington & Hoekje, 2010).

In this article, I will provide an overview of English language support programs (ELSPs), and the elements that ELPAs in leadership positions often have to consider in order to understand their role within their educational context or ecosystem. Following this discussion, I will introduce the theoretical framework of Nexus Analysis (Scollon & Scollon, 2004), an approach that aims to

Mackenzie Bristow is the Director of English Language Support Programs and Global Engagement at Emory University, Atlanta, GA; email mackenzie.bristow@emory.edu.

understand how semiotic resources mediate action, that can be used to navigate rapidly changing educational environments. To conclude, I will provide example studies that attempt to address navigating new educational policies, program management, and teacher professional development that ELPAs could use in their own practice.

English Language Program Administration

Guidance on what skills an ELPA must build through professional development as well as the factors that contribute to a successful language program has been understood primarily through business and psychology literature (Coombe et al., 2008; White et al., 2008). Suggestions from these publications encourage language program administrators to deepen their understanding of manager duties such as human resources, marketing, sales, financial management, along with academic management to varying degrees based on the particular context. Although not true in every case, many new ELPAs find themselves filling multiple roles simultaneously (e.g., admissions officer, facility manager, accountant, and teacher) with little time to self-reflect. To manage this difficult balance, ELPA professional development literature suggests primarily top-down solutions for ELPAs but often overlook the influence of individual stakeholders and interpersonal communication within the program that shapes the educational environment (Pennington & Hoekje, 2010; Walker, 2011; White et al., 2008). Even rarer within the professional development material for ELPAs is literature addressing individual leadership experiences or learned assumptions about managing and supervising that might guide the decision-making process of ELPAs.

The ELPA professional development literature does provides some useful tools for long-term strategic planning through general business leadership discourses, but rarely addresses the lived experiences of ELPAs who must move between multiple roles on a given day while responding to immediate and significant world events and policies that impact operations. Due to the variety and types of ELSPs, ELPAs understand that they may need to modify their management approach based on the audience an ELSP serves (e.g., immigrants, professionals, or pre-college or matriculated international students); the leadership skill set becomes even more complex when the school itself is a mix of audiences and must provide both supportive (ELSP course in parallel with core courses) and intensive (only ELSP courses) programs (Bhowmik & Kim, 2018). In addition to these complexities, rarely does that literature address the cultural, racial, or economic experiences of the students and staff that could impact the program. Financial factors may also influence an ELPA's experience as the language program may be entirely reliant on student tuition; thus, making the program's success vulnerable to the recent geopolitical forces and the pandemic. Beyond the students served and financial structure, an ELPA's management experience can be dictated by the position of the program within its given institution as an ELSP may exist as part of an academic department like an applied linguistics department, or situated in a student service office, writing program, or as a stand-alone unit (Bhowmik & Kim, 2018; Eaton, 2017). This variety has created a very unique community of practice for ELSPs (Lave & Wenger, 1991), but also has led to uneven understandings of what ELSPs do (Kaplan, 2003; Pennington & Hoekje, 2010) and where they belong.

In contrast, ELPSs often know where their program and students stand in relation to their institution. They are also aware that the events that take place either outside or within their schools on a given day are by nature multidimensional and are often experienced simultaneously by the individuals in the school community (e.g., students, teachers, administrators), the program and its relation to other units in the school or university, and the local and global community (Hult, 2017;

Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Pennington & Hoekje, 2010), but find little guidance on managing this convergence of influences. Connecting multilingual speakers to the greater world is not a new idea for those interested in language and education. Haugen's (1972) work positioned languages as a central component to an ecosystem while Fill and Mühlhäusler (2001) expanded on the interconnectedness of languages and the necessity to maintain endangered languages to support a healthy ecosystem. Institutions of higher education or language programs can also be analogous to an ecosystem as suggested by Dafouz and Smit (2016) who recognize a multilingual university has features that include a "dynamic interrelatedness between the relevant languages (functions and forms) and their academic habitats, not least because these contain, and are constructed by, academics, students, and administrators in their actual and virtual university spaces" (pp. 400–401). If this perspective is adopted, ELPAs can deepen their understanding of what influences the administration of their language program to include not only top-down policies or societal issues, but also the experiences of faculty and learners and their interactions.

One way ELPAs can approach the co-construction of institutional ecosystems is through the concept of scales. The notion of scales is often attributed to Blommaert (2007) who suggested they were an excellent metaphor to explore how social events and processes move and develop. For instance, and related to our current context, a student attempting to complete a language learning assignment during a remote class can be connected to potentially related dimensions such as the work environment where the student is situated, the emotional and mental states of the student, and their classmates, and the initial university policy to move all classroom learning online among others (see also Dafouz & Smit, 2020; Hult, 2017; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Martin-Jones et al., 2016). It is then through the appreciation of the institutional ecosystem and a multiple scale perspective that one can make connections across the organization the ELSPs exist in and how ELPAs' decisions are mediated. As described by Pennington and Hokje (2010):

> Language program leadership is situated in the context of a globalized world and complex and rapidly changing educational environments. The context of language program leadership is described in relation to the spread of English, the increase in international exchange, the language program as a community of practice, [and] the multiple functions of a language program. (p. 3)

Theoretical Perspectives of Nexus Analysis

Given that we understand ELSPs exist in an institutional ecosystem, and those administrating the programs not only participate in the co-construction of the program but are often the major decision-makers (Liddicoat, 2016), Nexus Analysis (NA) can be a useful approach in general and considering our current time in history. NA was developed by Scollon and Scollon (2004), to observe the connection between action, specifically social action (human actions that might be physical, verbal, visual, written, or multimodal), and the factors that mediate them (e.g., classroom size, meetings, signage, policies, orientation videos) that together ultimately guide results. Even a private action like an ELPA sitting in her office alone typing out a response to an email can be included and seen as socially situated carrying its own set of values and role in the meaning-making process (Hult, 2017; Scollon & Scollon, 2004; Wells & Wong, 2012). The factors that can mediate a social action become more apparent when we imagine how our ELPA's experience might change if rather than writing an email she picked up the phone, had a face-to-face conversation, or more currently relevant, joined a Zoom call to provide her response. This highlights the aim of NA, where it is not the text that is of interest, but "rather how language and other semiotic and material tools are used to mediate action" (Lane, 2014, p. 1).

According to Scollon and Scollon (2004), any social action is always mediated by three intersecting levels of discourse: *discourses in place*, the *interaction order*, and *historical body*. Here discourse is understood not just as written or spoken language, but meaning systems that include historical, institutional, socially shared habits, behaviors, and perceptions (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Lane, 2014; Scollon & Scollon, 2004), or what Gee (2011) refers to as discourse with a capital D to capture the complex multimodal semiotic system enacted by individuals. It also happens that these three discourse levels correspond to the different scales of influence. Starting at the largest scale, Discourse in Place includes all societal discourses that are present (Scollon & Scollon, 2004) and are considered in-place because they are situated contextually to mediate the social action under study (Blommaert & Huang, 2011; Hult, 2015; Scollon & Scollon, 2004). This scale taps into both explicit and non-explicit discourses that have become norms for a given society ranging from the physical configurations of a space (classrooms, offices, lecterns) to the larger assumed social views on a topic (education policy, race, class, gender; Hult, 2017; Palviainen & Mård-Miettinen, 2015; Scollon & Scollon, 2004). To analyze this level of discourse, approaches associated with critical discourse analysis can be useful (Hult, 2015). For language programs, actions mediated by discourses in place could include the accepted norms and ideas around admissions, hiring practices, or program handbooks. These could also include language specific topics such as the notion of Standard English, the materials and curriculum used by the language school, and placement tests.

The second level of discourse is called Interaction Order and represents the community scale. When developing this approach, Scollon and Scollon (2004) pulled heavily from the work of Goffman (1983) who focused on the power dynamics or mutual relations between individuals over different social situations (Goffman, 1983; Kuure et al., 2018). An example of this might be observed when a group of instructors discuss a challenging classroom lesson. Factors such as familiarity, seniority, collegiality all could potentially contribute to the power dynamics between the individuals and co-construct the conversation (Lane, 2014). Other, more damaging, examples could include the negative interactions Asian students experienced when COVD-19 hit the United States (Noel, 2020). NA researchers suggest locating a site, like a meeting room or classroom and employing the tools from the ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1974) in order to observe how individuals foreground or background ideas (Scollon & Scollon, 2004). Ultimately, the interaction order can reveal how individuals have different levels of influence depending on the situation and in relation to the context of the interaction (Shohamy, 2006).

The final level of discourse is Historical Bodies that represents the individual scale including past experiences, memories, and the accustomed practices of the participants. Within this scale, it is observed that "different people may play the same role differently" (Scollon & Scollon, 2004, p. 13) as they approach the situation with different experiences. When engaging in any social action, individuals may face unique contexts but always bring with them habitual ways of acting and thinking that are influenced by their past experiences. To access this scale, researchers should tap into introspective data and may use tools like ethnographic interviewing or surveys to obtain it (Hult, 2015). For ELPAs, the historical bodies might reveal itself through unnoticed actions, such as the habits that guide individuals to act as a student or know how a school is run "without seemingly being told what to do" (Scollon & Scollon, 2004, p. 13) or equally reveal inequalities in access to educational systems. However, at the same time, the final result of a social action is at least, in part, a product of an individual's efforts with the potential to impact society suggesting a level of agency within this scale (Hult, 2017; Lane, 2014; Nishida, 1958).

As one might assume, a social action is best understood by observing how all three scales intersect within the social system or a "nexus of practice" (Hult, 2017; Lane, 2014; Scollon & Scollon, 2004) as represented in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1
Nexus of Practice for Social Action

Note. Adapted from *Nexus Analysis: Discourse and the Emerging Internet* (p. 154), by R. Scollon and S. W. Scollon (2004), Routledge.

Language program management is a series of doings (reserving classrooms, attending meetings, hiring and training new instructors, writing and implementing policy) and each of these actions are mediated by societal and institutional norms, the interaction of our students and faculty, and the personal experiences of the ELPA and individuals involved. Many times, an ELPA will take action to resolve a quick issue, but each task is understood to be accumulative undertaken to manage and improve the program, and ultimately the students' experience. Those who do NA often choose to study practical matters and practical problems that individuals need to solve aligning well with the daily expectations and pressures an ELPA often feels to get things done and deliver (Jones, 2012; Scollon & Scollon, 2004, 2009). In practical terms this could be any type of action - from ordering supplies to demonstrating student performance to supervisors. To add to the appeal for ELPAs, NA is based on the desire to improve a situation, so it naturally aligns with the ongoing needs analysis required to run good language programs.

ELPAs know that the students that ELSPs serve and the type of programs we run have always been situated amongst challenging social issues (e.g., immigration, educational access, and linguistic hegemony) and ELPAs may find themselves in the role to mitigate those challenges. NA practitioners suggest when adopting an NA approach, one is often engaged or driven by a social problem with a desire to solve it (Jones, 2012; Lane, 2014; Scollon & Scollon, 2004). This positions NA as an approach with tendencies towards critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1993; Flowerdew & Richardson, 2018); which could address the pressures resulting from the current

pandemic and lack of social justice currently experienced outside and in the ELSP. In the next section, I will review how to conduct an NA as well as previous studies that illustrate the benefits.

Nexus Analysis and Managing Change

NA researchers recommend one should engage in a NA when faced with dynamic, complex education problems (Hult, 2015; Scollon & Scollon, 2004). NAs are traditionally accomplished through qualitative traditions from interactional sociolinguistics, linguistic anthropology, and critical discourse analysis (Hult, 2017; Lane, 2014; Scollon & Scollon, 2004). Scollon and Scollon (2004) recommend three stages to conduct a NA study: *engagement*, *navigation*, and *change*. The engagement stage is characterized by five steps (Scollon & Scollon, 2004, p.154):

1. Establish the social issue
2. Find the crucial social actors
3. Observe the interaction order
4. Determine significant cycles of discourse
5. Identify the zone of identification

A detailed description of these steps is in Scollon and Scollon (2004) on pp. 153–159. Specifically, the engagement state is a period for an NA researcher to identify a topic that they are passionate about or one that needs to be solved, gain access to the context, identify participants (social actors), locate important discourses, and gain an understanding of the context through activities such as participating in casual conversations with participants, deepening relationships with stakeholders, attending to the local and national news and so on in order to discover language program development itself (Hult, 2017; Lane, 2014; Wells & Wong, 2012). According to Scollon and Scollon (2004), the engagement phase can take up to two months to complete. It could be argued, however, that an ELPA is already a full member of his or her community and may have already identified areas in need of improvement, and the particular participants involved truncating the time needed for the engagement phase.

The next stage identified by Scollon and Scollon (2004) is navigating the nexus of practice, or the social system in place. The concept of Nexus of Practice is similar to what social-cultural theorists would call a Community of Practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) except that since NA is focused on social action, any actor could be a member of the system even if they are not directly involved (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 1992; Lane, 2014; Scollon & Scollon, 2004).

As NA is centrally an ethnographic tradition, navigating the nexus of practice can take up to eight months (see full description Scollon & Scollon, 2004, pp. 159-177). At this stage, a researcher navigates the nexus to observe how the three types of discourses (discourses in place, interaction order, and historical bodies) flow through a social action. This can be done through collecting data at each scale using participant observation, critical discourse analysis, interviews and surveys, video and images, and journals to name a few. Once collected, a researcher may observe how the discourses occur and intersect across at any moment or evolve and change over time. NA is also interested in how discourses mediating those actions are taken up and shifted as they move between written, spoken, and other semiotic tools. This calls on researchers to look at how respective cycles develop within the Nexus of Practice or intersect with a moment of social action (Hult, 2015, 2017; Scollon & Scollon, 2004). In either case, the goal of an NA is to map the cycles of the people, places, discourses, objects, and concepts that circulate through the moment when the social action takes place (Scollon & Scollon 2004, p. 159) and discover "anticipations, time scales, or transformations and resemiotizations" (p. 170). The observation of connections between texts, or intertextuality (Duff, 2002; Kristeva, 1980), connections between discourses or interdiscursivity

(Bhatia, 2010), and finally resemiotization where discourse can transform across "events, spaces, times, modes and media" (Scollon, 2008, p. 241) illustrated in the work of Iedema (2003).

The final stage is changing the nexus of practice. Change comes about both naturally and as a result of the researcher revisiting their original motivations for engaging with the nexus of practice (Lane, 2014; Scollon & Scollon, 2007; Soukup & Kordon, 2012). The change stage also should reflect the original motivation for conducting an NA that may be rooted in an attempt to solve a social issue or challenge. As a result, NA is often characterized as an approach that is either activist or "a project to promote social change" (Kuure et al., 2018, p. 76). The daily and long-term social actions are numerous for ELPAs and may include creating and implementing policy, overseeing curriculum development, negotiating a budget, and often teaching (Coombe et al., 2008; Pennington & Hoekje, 2010; White et al., 2008) with each representing a potential nexus point that is mediated.

Now that the central theory of NA has been introduced, several past studies illustrate how NA reveals the benefits of the approach and how it can assist in navigating new educational policies, program development, and teacher professional development.

Navigating Education Policies

Most ELSPs have their own educational policies crafted to manage multilingual students such as placement testing and subsequent required courses (Finn & Avni, 2016; Menken, 2008); however, it is also well understood that policies originating from outside the school, both explicit and de facto, can impact educational settings in general (Hult, 2014; Shohamy, 2006; Wiley & García, 2016). Social and institutional policies such as social distancing, remote learning, visa regulations, as well as media coverage of the police and protests can have an impact on language programs, the learning environment, and the individuals. Often, as a result, ELPA's may find themselves needing to react and shape new policies for their particular context and program. If an NA approach is adopted, an ELPA may be better positioned to understand their own role as agents of policy creation while identifying and addressing the various mediated discourses at play (Fenton-Smith & Gurney, 2016; Liddicoat, 2016; Menken & Garcia, 2010; Shohamy, 2006).

At times, the ability of ELPAs to moderate or change policy may be limited. This was surely the case when most universities transitioned to online learning. At the same time, however, the current challenges for educational institutions provide ELPAs an opportunity to reflect on their own agency as well as those within their program in shaping policy (Baldauf & Chua, 2012; Fenton-Smith & Gurney, 2016; Liddicoat, 2016; Menken & Garcia, 2010). An example of this can be found in Källkvist and Hult (2016), who investigated a Swedish university's language planning process related to English-Swedish parallel language. In this context, Swedish universities were called upon to establish language policies for their respective institutions to enact an English language policy set forth by the Swedish national government (discourses in place). The researchers gathered data such as meeting notes and official government documents (discourses in place), the interaction of the participants during the meetings (interaction order), and information about participants professional experiences and the individual statements made by participants during the meetings (historical body). Using ethnographic and discourse analytic approaches, the researchers observed how the language new policy was co-constructed by three different scales of discourse. Since ELPAs are often managing meetings or invited to meetings the Källkvist and Hult (2016) study highlights how ELPAs could take a more critical eye towards how top-down policies or initiatives evoke action by participants and then change shape over time and across genres (e.g., from written to spoken back to written) as well as the roles individuals play in applying and

evolving the language to describe policies through process of resemiotization and co-construction (Hult, 2015; Scollon, 2008). In their own context, ELPAs facing policy changes observing how individuals are describing new policies or modifying them through their interactions (like returning to campus or social distance guidelines) and shifting them to fit needs or localized contexts will assist in identifying potential future challenges or opportunities for success.

Managing ELSPs

Pennington and Hoekje (2010) suggest that the real work of an ELPA is their ability to leverage the available resources to achieve the aims of the program. A few studies addressing the complexities of managing an ELSP as social action have been conducted, but mostly within the context of international university partnerships (Bristow, 2020; Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020); however, they still address the experiences of ELPAs including obtaining space or supplies, hiring instructors, or leveraging a network (Johnston & Peterson, 1994; Pennington & Hoekje, 2010). Currently, how ELPA identify resources and what mediates them has changes since most programs have budgets set at zero with classes continuing remotely or in-person with personal protective gear. Despite these changes, ELPAs can still recognize their programs as encompassing diverse and multilingual learners and teachers who continue to benefit from administrative support that recognizes their needs.

In the past, an ELPA may have considered how the physical space of the ELSP supported and welcomed learners. As NA recognizes meaningful communication goes beyond what is written and spoken, ELPAs may benefit from pulling from studies that describe multilingual physical learning or living environments such as Dressler (2015) and Pietikäinen et al. (2011), who leveraged approaches from linguistic landscape along with NA. In both these respective studies, researchers took photographs of the physical signage in a bilingual school and town, respectively, and analyzed the interaction order of the languages uncovering what language was privileged over another. Ultimately these studies mediated understandings of linguistic representation and emotional wellness for the students and communities. Addressing the multimodal physical and visual resources that shape the language learning environment (Dooly, 2017; Norris, 2004) could be applicable for ELPAs who want to understand how their ELSP currently represents the diversity of their learners.

This could be done through photographing the physical or online classrooms to analyze what images or languages are being forefronted. This would assist in understanding the current visual or linguistic choices made in the school or classroom and can help ELPAs and faculty develop new, inclusive visual choices (such as enabling virtual backgrounds or logos on PowerPoints) to represent the physical presence of the school and/or select images that represent the diversity of its faculty and student body.

At the same time, with technology and technological access being the main resource during the pandemic, an ELPA must be aware of individual needs. Scollon and Scollon's (2004) original work establishing NA reveals the authors' experiences using computers to facilitate technology-assisted classes in Alaska in the 1980s. Focusing primarily on Native American populations, Scollon and Scollon (2004) identified the various discourses mediating the introduction of electronic educational experiences on university students through analyzing legal and educational documents, participant-observation, and interviews. As a result of their research, they noted factors such as background, economic status, language, and culture (all mediating discourses) greatly influenced the success of the students.

Although most ELAPs already take the time to listen to challenges faculty and students are encountering challenges with working from home or teaching/learning with protective equipment, they may miss solutions by only focusing on one mediating factor. Through following a more systematic approach, such as NA, that observes the intersection of the institutional policy, classroom interaction, and individual present and past experiences better solutions may arise.

Teacher Development

ELPAs who provide the time and support for teacher professional development find NA can support change and explore the intersection of the individual, beliefs, and practice (Hult, 2018; Koivistoinen et al., 2016; Kuure et al., 2018; Räisänen & Korkeamäki, 2015). Many ELPAs find themselves intrinsically involved with introducing or implementing a new curriculum without much guidance on how to support the individual needs of the faculty. Räisänen and Korkeamäki (2015) provide one example of a faculty-led self-development practice driven by a top-down curriculum change in Finland. Here, the first author analyzed her own experience in implementing the new required teaching approach through a nexus of classroom room interactions (interaction order), self-reflection on curriculum (historical bodies), and expectations of traditional classroom teaching in contrast to new teaching practices (discourses in place). Over a year, through journaling and analyzing video recordings of the classroom, the instructor documented her transformation of old practices to new which included altering the physical layout of the classroom and favoring new approaches in teaching. The journaling in particular was useful for the instructor as it helped her uncover opinions and expectations around teaching that had been built over years (historical body).

Current classroom practices embodied by ELSP faculty are challenged by all new technology and class delivery (Dooly & Sadler, 2013; Kuure et al., 2018) brought on by COVID-19. Providing time for instructors to engage in professional development through journaling or analyzing video is not that uncommon, but ELPAs can take this process a step further through observing and listening to what discourses may be mediating the instructors' experience of teaching in the current context. Through addressing all three scales, the ELPA may be able to support professional development process more fully and understand why a particular skill might take longer to master.

Conclusion

Although Nexus Analysis is not the only way to navigate change, it provides ELPAs with the framework to address practical problems and identify solutions that reflect the local context. ELPAs are already full members of their nexus of practice and are motivated to introduce positive change within their organization making them excellent NA practitioners. Once engaged, and ELPA can identify the mediating forces within top-down policies, the interaction of the individuals, their own agency and leadership role, and the past experiences of colleagues that intersect within an array of social actions embedded with the language program. Although this article covered several tasks that an ELPA must address, navigating education policies, managing ESLPs, and teacher development, there remains ample room for ELPAs to learn from NA in order to identify what discourses might mediate decision-making processes and professional development. Through a process like NA, and ELPA may discover a tool that can help describe their own experiences as well as analyze their programs to find balanced solutions and co-construct beneficial changes with colleagues, faculty, and learners for their program as a whole.

References

Baldauf, R. B., & Chua, C. S. K. (2012). Language planning and multilingualism. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0632

Bhatia, V. (2010). Interdiscursivity in professional discourse. *Discourse & Communication*, *4*, 32–50. https://doi.org/10.1177/1750481309351208

Bhowmik, S. K., & Kim, M. (2018). Preparing diverse learners for university: A strategy for teaching EAP students. *TESOL Journal*, *9*(3), 498–524. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.340

Blommaert, J. (2007). Sociolinguistic scales. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *4*(1), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1515/IP.2007.001

Blommaert, J., & Huang, A. (2011). Historical bodies and historical space. Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6(3), 267–282. https://doi.org/10.1558/japl.v6i3.267

Bristow, M. (2020). *Language program development through internationalization* [Doctoral dissertation, Georgia State University]. https://scholarworks.gsu.edu/alesl_diss/54

Coombe, C., McCloskey, M. L., Stephenson, L., & Anderson, N. (Eds.). (2008). *Leadership in English language teaching and learning*. University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.231735

Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2016). Towards a dynamic conceptual framework for English-medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied Linguistics*, *37*(3), 397–415. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu034

Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2020). *Road-mapping English medium education in the internationalised university*. Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-23463-8

Dooly, M. (2017). A mediated discourse analysis (MDA) approach to multimodal data. In E. Moore & M. Dooly (Eds.), *Qualitative approaches to research on plurilingual education / Enfocaments qualitatius per a la recerca en educació plurilingüe / Enfoques cualitativos para la investigación en educación plurilingüe* (pp. 189–211). Research-publishing.net. https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2017.emmd2016.628

Dooly, M., & Sadler, R. (2013). Filling in the gaps: Linking theory and practice through telecollaboration in teacher education. *ReCALL*, *25*(1), 4–29. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344012000237

Dressler, R. (2015). Signgeist: Promoting bilingualism through the linguistic landscape of school signage. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *12*(1), 128–145. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2014.912282

Duff, D. (2002). Intertextuality versus genre theory: Bakhtin, Kristeva and the question of genre. *Paragraph*, *25*(1), 54–73. https://doi.org/10.3366/jsp.2002.25.1.54

Eaton, S. E. (2017). Perceptions of ESL program management in Canadian higher education: A qualitative case study. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *16*(9), 13–28. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.16.9.2

Eckert, P., & McConnell-Ginet, S. (1992). Think practically and look locally: Language and gender as community-based practice. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, *21*(1), 461–488. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.an.21.100192.002333

Fairclough, N. (1993). Critical discourse analysis and the marketization of public discourse: The universities. *Discourse & Society*, *4*(2), 133–168. https://doi.org/10.1177/0957926593004002002

Fenton-Smith, B., & Gurney, L. (2016). Actors and agency in academic language policy and planning. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *17*(1), 72–87. https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2016.1115323

Fill, A., & Mühlhäusler, P. (2001). *The ecolinguistics reader: Language, ecology, and environment*. Continuum.

Finn, H. B., & Avni, S. (2016). Academic literacy as language policy in community college developmental writing. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *17*(3–4), 369–384. https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2016.1201188

Flowerdew, J., & Richardson, J. E. (Eds.). (2018). *The Routledge handbook of critical discourse studies*. Routledge.

Gee, P. (2011). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method* (3rd ed.). Routledge.

Goffman, E. (1983). The interaction order: American sociological association, 1982 presidential address. *American Sociological Review*, *48*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.2307/2095141

Haugen, E. I. (1972). *The ecology of language*. Stanford University Press.

Hult, F. M. (2014). Language in education: Social implications. In R. Silver & S. Lwin (Eds.), *How does policy influence language in education?* (pp. 159–175). Bloomsbury. http://lup.lub.lu.se/record/3410317

Hult, F. M. (2015). Making policy connections across scales using Nexus Analysis. In F. M. Hult & D. C. Johnson (Eds.), *Research methods in language policy and planning* (pp. 217–231). John Wiley & Sons, Inc. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118340349.ch19

Hult, F. M. (2017). Nexus Analysis as scalar ethnography for educational linguistics. In M. Martin-Jones & D. Martin (Eds.), *Researching multilingualism: Critical and ethnographic perspectives* (pp. 103–118). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315405346

Hult, F. M. (2018). Engaging pre-service English teachers with language policy. *ELT Journal*, *72*(3), 249–259. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccx072

Hymes, D. (1974). *Foundations in sociolinguistics: An ethnographic approach*. University of Pennsylvania Press.

Iedema, R. (2003). Multimodality, resemiotization: Extending the analysis of discourse as multi-semiotic practice. *Visual Communication*, *2*(1), 29–57. https://doi.org/10.1177/1470357203002001751

Johnston, B., & Peterson, S. (1994). The program matrix: A conceptual framework for language programs. *System*, *22*(1), 63–80. https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(94)90041-8

Jones, R. H. (2012). Discourse in action. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0328

Källkvist, M., & Hult, F. M. (2016). Discursive mechanisms and human agency in language policy formation: Negotiating bilingualism and parallel language use at a Swedish university. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *19*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.956044

Kaplan, R. (2003). *Language and language-in-education planning in the Pacific Basin*. Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Koivistoinen, H., Kuure, L., & Tapio, E. (2016). Appropriating a new language learning approach: Processes of resemiotisation. *Apples – Journal of Applied Language Studies*, *10*(2), 105–117. https://doi.org/10.17011/apples/urn.201612145091

Kristeva, J. (1980). *Desire in language: A semiotic approach to literature and art*. Columbia University Press.

Kuure, L., Riekki, M., & Tumelius, R. (2018). Nexus Analysis in the study of the changing field of language learning, language pedagogy and language teacher education. *AFinLA-e: Soveltavan Kielitieteen Tutkimuksia*, *11*, 71–92. https://doi.org/10.30660/afinla.69208

Lane, P. (2014). Nexus Analysis. In J. Östman & J. Verschueren (Eds.), *Handbook of pragmatics* (Vol. 18). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/hop.18.nex1

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511815355

Liddicoat, A. (2016). Language planning in universities: Teaching, research and administration. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *17*(3–4), 231–241. https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2016.1216351

Martin-Jones, M., Andrews, J., & Martin, D. (2016). Reflexive ethnography research practice in multilingual contexts. In M. Martin-Jones, & D. Martin (Eds.), *Researching multilingualism: Critical and ethnographic perspectives* (pp. 103–118). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315405346

Menken, K. (2008). *English learners left behind: Standardized testing as language policy*. Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853599996

Menken, K., & Garcia, O. (2010). *Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203855874

Nishida, K. (1958). *Intelligibility and the philosophy of nothingness: Three philosophical essays*. Maruzen.

Noel, T. K. (2020). Conflating culture with COVID-19: Xenophobic repercussions of a global pandemic. *Social Sciences & Humanities Open*, *2*(1), Article 100044. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssaho.2020.100044

Norris, S. (2004). *Analyzing multimodal interaction: A methodological framework*. Routledge.

Palviainen, Å., & Mård-Miettinen, K. (2015). Creating a bilingual pre-school classroom: The multilayered discourses of a bilingual teacher. *Language & Education: An International Journal*, *29*(5), 381–399. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2015.1009092

Pennington, M. C., & Hoekje, B. J. (2010). *Language program leadership in a changing world: An ecological model*. Emerald Books. https://doi.org/10.1163/9781849507479

Pietikäinen, S., Lane, P., Salo, H., & Laihiala-Kankainen, S. (2011). Frozen actions in the Arctic linguistic landscape: A Nexus Analysis of language processes in visual space. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *8*(4), 277–298. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2011.555553

Räisänen, S., & Korkeamäki, R.-L. (2015). Implementing the Finnish literacy curriculum in a first-grade classroom. *Classroom Discourse*, *6*(2), 143–157. https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2015.1036900

Scollon, R. (2008). Discourse itineraries: Nine Processes of Resemiotization. In V. Bhatia, J. Flowerdew, & R. H. Jones (Eds.), *Advances in discourse studies* (pp. 233–244). Routledge.

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2004). *Nexus Analysis: Discourse and the emerging internet*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203694343

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2007). Nexus Analysis: Refocusing ethnography on action. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *11*(5), 608–625. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9841.2007.00342.x

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2009). Breakthrough into action. *Text & Talk*, *29*(3), 277–294. https://doi.org/10.1515/TEXT.2009.015

Shohamy, E. G. (2006). *Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches*. Routledge.

Soukup, B., & Kordon, K. (2012). ELF in international supervision: A Nexus Analysis approach. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, *1*(2), 315–335. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2012-0021

Walker, J. (2011). English language teaching management research in post-compulsory contexts: Still 'crawling out'? *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, *16*(4), 489–508. https://doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2011.630919

Wells, J. L., & Wong, F. (2012). Mediated discourse analysis. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Wiley Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1313

White, R., Hockley, A., der Horst Jansen, J., & Laughner, M. (2008). *From teacher to manager: Managing language teaching organizations*. Cambridge University Press.

Wiley, T. G., & García, O. (2016). Language policy and planning in language education: legacies, consequences, and possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal*, *100*(S1), 48–63. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12303

Received: August 17, 2020 | Accepted: September 21, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020

Reinforcement of White Native-Speakerism: An Analysis of English Language Teacher Training Materials

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 16–31
ISSN: 2331-6845

Elise Brittain
Culture, Literacy, and Language, University of Texas at San Antonio

Abstract
This article draws awareness to Whiteness as a centered phenomenon in ELT which contributes to discriminatory practices through reliance on and privileging of White norms on a global scale. This study sought to address this issue through a critical discourse analysis of 14 English as a foreign language (EFL) open-source teacher training modules with the following guiding question: How are ideologies that reinforce White native-speakerism demonstrated in open-source English teaching methodology training materials designed for global ELT audiences? Critical Whiteness Studies (CWS; Nayak, 2007), the concept of native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006), and the 'native speaker' frame (Lowe, 2020) informed the theoretical assumptions of the study. Critical Discourse Studies (CDS; Wodak & Meyer, 2015) provided an analytical lens to examine discourses of power and framing of ideology in the texts. The main thread that emerged from the analysis was an *avoidance of stance*, demonstrated through contradictory, simultaneous representations of resistance to and reinforcement of ideologies of White native-speakerism. This avoidance of stance is exemplified through *representation of language varieties*, the emergence of a *monolingual view* of teaching, *representations of culture*, and *the framing of authenticity*.

Keywords
White native-speakerism, Whiteness, English teacher training, training materials, English as a foreign language (EFL), English language teaching (ELT), reinforcement, resistance

Background

The 2020 murders of George Floyd, Breonna Taylor, and Ahmaud Arbery by police officers in the United States incited the most recent wave of nationwide anger about the brutal treatment of African Americans in the U.S. and reignited an awareness across organizations and racialized communities of the need to address systemic racial divides. Our international field of English language teaching (ELT) is no exception to the presence of systemic racism which privileges Whiteness. A statement from English Language Programs, which oversees some U.S. Department of State-funded international English teaching programs, expressed a call for an antiracist stance:

> Now, more than ever, the world needs compassion, exchange, and mutual understanding. The death of George Floyd was a horrendous tragedy that has mobilized the world to stand up for justice and human rights in solidarity with communities of color everywhere. (English Language Programs, 2020)

Elise Brittain is a doctoral fellow in Culture, Literacy, and Language at the University of Texas at San Antonio; email elise.brittain@gmail.com.

This call recognizes a need to reexamine ELT in teacher preparation as well as U.S. public and cultural diplomacy efforts around the world as part of the work to address systemic racism as a collective challenge to discrimination.

This article draws awareness to Whiteness as a centered and reinforced phenomenon in global ELT which contributes to discriminatory practices against English educators and learners who do not conform to White norms[1] (Charles, 2019; Gerald, 2020a, 2020b; Kumaravadivelu, 2016; Lowe & Lawrence, 2018; Matias & Mackey, 2016; Ruecker, 2011; Schreiber, 2019; Zacharias, 2019). Language is not a neutral tool (Pennycook, 2017) and carries political implications in the ideologies that accompany its use, learning, and teaching. This study examines the reinforcement of Whiteness in ELT through a critical analysis of an open-source teacher training program developed for English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher audiences which is available as part of U.S. Department of State English teaching initiatives. The following question guided the study: How are ideologies that reinforce White native-speakerism demonstrated in open-source English teaching methodology training materials designed for global ELT audiences?

Whiteness and the *Native Speaker*

Whiteness is a socially-constructed, fluctuating, racialized ideology based on exclusion of socially-constructed racialized groups (Gerald, 2020b; Nayak, 2007; Ruecker, 2011). It is not only appearance but also *doing*—actions, behaviors, and thinking standardized and centered as norms (Jenks & Lee, 2020). Primarily, the naturalization of Whiteness in relation to an *Other* is propagated by White people but can also be internalized by People of Color (Matias & Mackey, 2016). White individuals may be unaware of or deny their racial identities and privilege (Picower, 2009). Robin DiAngelo described the implication of this in her conversation with Layla Saad on the *Good Ancestor* podcast, saying, "If I can't hold what it means to be white, I cannot hold what it means not to be white" (Saad, 2019). Resistance to acknowledgement of White racial identity and privilege may manifest as strategic tools of Whiteness that act as a *protection* of hegemonic views (Picower, 2009). This self-protection aligns with Robin DiAngelo's (2018) concept of white fragility which originates in "superiority and entitlement" and reinforces "white racial control and the protection of white advantage" (p. 2), resulting in avoidance of the inequality that emanates from the ELT field because of the discomfort that accompanies this recognition (Gerald, 2020a, 2020b). This may take the form of an "altruistic shield" applied to White educators in ELT (Gerald, 2020a, p. 22), or "native speaker saviorism" (Jenks & Lee, 2020, p. 2) or the 'white savior' role, which places Whiteness as the destination for non-White students and the White educator as the guide to salvation (Matias & Mackey, 2016).

The term *native speaker* encompasses a racial component along with a linguistic component (Ruecker, 2011; Sung, 2011). Native speakers of English are often described as people born in countries with a majority White population and closely associated with Whiteness historically (Phillipson, 1992; Ramjattan, 2019; Ruecker, 2011; Ruecker & Ives, 2015); however,

[1] The work of decentering Whiteness in my life, both as a person who identifies as White and as a White teacher and scholar in ELT, is new for me, and this article and the analysis described marks a beginning to an ongoing process of growth, learning, and action toward supporting Black lives and the lives of marginalized peoples. For those interested in forming accountability and action groups and continuing the conversation of decentering Whiteness in ELT, in academia, or beyond these institutions, we can form groups toward this work together, and I invite correspondence toward this endeavor. I strongly encourage readers to follow the work and training developed by Dr. Della V. Mosley and Pearis Bellamy (2020) and their colleagues at academics4blacklives.com and #Academics4BlackLives to first and foremost support your Black colleagues, and through such work also support your non-Black People of Color colleagues and *non-native* English speaking colleagues.

these associations may be greater with countries such as the U.S., the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada (Charles, 2019; Iams, 2016; Kramadibrata, 2016; Ruecker, 2011) with others forgotten or excluded (e.g., South Africa, Ireland) (Ruecker, 2011). The label native speaker may be assigned primarily to a homogenous, stereotyped, and essentialist view of White native speakers, and the nuanced experiences of teachers representing non-White racialized groups, notably Black teachers of English, are not considered (Charles, 2019; Kubota, 2018). The exclusion of race from the conversation about native-speakerism ignores the internalized image of a racialized White native speaker as the ELT ideal (Sung, 2011). This study applies these understandings to examine reinforcement of the White native speaker image and influence in teacher training materials designed for EFL audiences and distributed with a public and cultural diplomacy agenda.

Theoretical Framework

Critical Whiteness Studies (CWS), the concept of native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006), and the native speaker frame (Lowe, 2020) formed the theoretical basis for the study. CWS is described by Nayak (2007) as consisting of the following foundational beliefs:

1. Whiteness is a modern invention; it has changed over time and place.
2. Whiteness is a social norm and has become chained to an index of unspoken privileges.
3. The bonds of whiteness can yet be broken/deconstructed for the betterment of humanity. (p. 738)

This lens brings forward the social construction of Whiteness in ELT; the privileges and disparities associated with conforming or not conforming to White-centered norms; and the need for resistance to these naturalized and internalized norms.

Native-speakerism is an ideology that privileges those considered to represent the notion of the Western native speaker of English (Lowe & Lawrence, 2018). The use of the term is "characterized by the belief that 'native-speaker' teachers represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideas both of the English language and of English teaching methodology" (Holliday, 2006, p. 385). Holliday's conceptualization of native-speakerism has been critiqued for exclusion of intersecting identities of native speakers who may experience privilege of native speaker status but also marginalization based on race, such as Black teachers of English (Charles, 2019) and other biases (e.g., ableism, heteronormativity, ageism). "Native speakerness and Whiteness work in tandem to signify competence and intelligence and thus superiority, negatively affecting the experiences of non-native or native English-speaking teachers of color" (Kubota, 2018, p. 3654). This study employs the term *White native-speakerism* to denote the privileged White Western norms which exclude non-native speakers of English and People of Color, including Black, Asian, Indigenous, Indian, and the myriad ethnic and racialized identities of native speakers of English.

Lowe's (2020) definition of ideologies is "widespread systems of knowledge and belief" (p. 51). These systems are "socially-constructed and cognitively-stored" (Jumiah, 2016, p. 17), making them unobservable (Lowe, 2020). Lowe (2020) indicates that ideology can be interpreted by identifying frames, which are more readily observable. The native speaker frame refers to a lens which "has a monolingual and monocultural approach to language teaching" and, though not necessarily explicitly, "devalue[es] and den[ies] the contributions and traditions of other cultures and educational systems" but may also be influenced by additional localized ideologies and discourses (Lowe, 2020, p. 57). Although distinguishing the two, Lowe aligns the native speaker

frame to the White racial frame which centers White norms, resulting in the perpetuation of systemic racism. Lowe (2020) indicates the following examples of dominant discourses reinforcing the native speaker frame: the idealization of the 'native speaker,' Western methodological superiority over non-Western approaches, methodological standardization of best practices, English-only in the classroom, and cultural deficiency of students. These conceptualizations formed the basis of the assumptions of this study.

White Native-Speakerism Research in ELT

Research regarding teacher identity has explored the complex experiences of Black teachers of English abroad, revealing a navigation of native speaker status privilege and simultaneous marginalization (Charles, 2019). White preservice teachers preparing for culturally diverse classrooms in the U.S. have expressed a realization of their own White discourse stance through Critical Whiteness Studies (Matias & Mackey, 2016), while also demonstrating the employment of *tools of Whiteness* to justify their biases (Picower, 2009). White native speaker teachers with experience abroad have reflected on their White native speaker privilege through autoethnography (Iams, 2016) and duoethnography (Lowe & Lawrence, 2018). Other studies have explored White teachers' navigations of morality in South Korea (West, 2019) and native speakers' reactions to changes in local policy which threatened their privileged positioning in English teaching in South Korea (Jenks & Lee, 2020). *Non-native* teachers have shared their experiences navigating their self-value as educators and as non-native speakers (Sung, 2011; Zacharias, 2019). Non-native speaking MA TESL students in Sri Lanka and native U.S. undergraduates also reported challenging their own misconceptions about each other through a cultural exchange project (Schreiber, 2019).

Exclusion based on White native-speakerism was demonstrated through Lowe and Lawrence's (2018) description of Yamanaka's (2006) research which showed the exclusion of certain varieties of English from contexts which use English as a native language. Mohamed (2015) also exemplifies exclusion in a Libyan EFL text's reading passage which reduced an image of poor Black South Africans to exoticism and Othering. Textbooks typically include standard dialects of English (e.g., American Standard English) while other native English language dialects, such as African American Vernacular English, are excluded (Jumiah, 2016). The view of textbooks as authentic representations of all English language use perpetuates a hidden curriculum that renders deviations as illegitimate English use (Jumiah, 2016). Jumiah also notes that the producers of textbooks are generally from where English is spoken as a native language, i.e. *Inner Circle* countries as named by Kachru (2006) or *center* countries according to Phillipson (1992). Teaching methods are recommended from the dominant center, providing White, Western countries with the authority to dominate the development and distribution of texts even though local developers are able to produce them (Kumaravadivelu, 2016). Kumaravadivelu (2016) critiques the notion that the critical examination of textbooks from White native speaker dominant countries should fall on local teachers and students: "It would be naive to think that the passive tactics of the weak can deter the aggressive strategies of the strong" (p. 75). Leaving the local context to critically break down White native-speakerism is a task of challenging a dominant internalized discourse.

Textbooks and materials may be presented and received as neutral, generalizable tools (Jumiah, 2016; Mohamed, 2015). However, the perspective of language as an ideology (e.g., Bourdieu, 1991 & Foucault, 1972, as cited in Jumiah, 2016) positions texts as "ideology-driven and serv[ing] certain interests" (Jumiah, 2016, p. 58). Jumiah (2016) found Western social and economic ideologies which serve the interests of White Western publishers and society in high

school EFL texts developed for Saudi Arabia. Topics in generalized texts include *neutral* topics (e.g., clothing, food) and exclude *controversial* topics (e.g., religion, racism), indicating a belief that removal of these topics renders a text neutral (Jumiah, 2016). Mohamed (2015) understands textbooks as ideology in their reflection of the writers' cultural perspective which is then reinforced among textbook users. The attempt to generalize the content of textbooks removes the development of the negotiation of cultural identity in English, demonstrated by Jumiah (2016) who criticized the minimal inclusion of Islamic texts in Saudi EFL textbooks as an omission that removes students' opportunity to use English to express an integral part of their identity, thereby deepening the divide between English language and the local culture.

White native speaker status may be either ascribed or not ascribed based on students' and parents' perspectives. Charles (2019) described how one Black teacher of English in South Korea did not openly state she was teaching Black history to avoid potential conflict with parents. Iams (2016) described referring a friend to a job who was not considered because students expected native speakers. Kramadibrata (2016) showed that students indicated a preference for a White teacher when seeing videos with the image and voice of a White or Indian teacher. Sung's (2011) observations in Hong Kong included parents' preference for White native speaker teachers, exemplified through a parent's doubt regarding an Asian American teacher, only appeased by the monolingual status of the teacher, indicating a bias equating bilinguals with inferiority as English teachers. Ramjattan (2019) named the use of such preference to justify discriminatory hiring practices as "inequality as customer desire" (p. 134).

White Native-Speakerism in Teaching Methodology

Kumaravadivelu (2016) describes English teaching methodology as "the most crucial and consequential area where hegemonic forces find it necessary and beneficial to exercise the greatest control, because method functions as an operating principle shaping all other aspects of language education: curriculum, materials, testing, and training" (p. 73). Methods, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), emanate from White-dominant developers, presented as universal solutions to EFL teaching needs (Kumaravadivelu, 2016). Although methodologies such as CLT are simply approaches, they may be accompanied by "some sense of cultural superiority or cultural chauvinism" (Lowe & Lawrence, 2018, p. 180). Delivery of methodologies as best practices to different cultural contexts without attention to local cultural and methodological practices imposes White native speaker developed methodologies as the ideal (Lowe & Lawrence, 2018). Even historical methods highly criticized now, such as grammar and translation, still widely employed in EFL contexts, are "Western ideological imposition[s] on non-Western countries" which reinforce the ideology "that only English teaching techniques from the West are appropriate, and [native English speakers] are most suitable to teach the English language because it is their native language" despite variance in culture and educational techniques (Charles, 2019, pp. 6–7).

White native-speakerism is reinforced through this hidden curriculum which influences teachers' socialization into English teaching (Lowe & Lawrence, 2018). English programs may reinforce and normalize such ideologies through the hiring of only teachers trained in Western institutions or conducted by Western staff, orientation processes, classroom observations, and professional development sessions (Lowe, 2020). Kiczkowiak et al. (2016) discuss how demand for native speakers for teacher training activities prioritizes the methodologies of White-dominant English-speaking countries without challenging lack of contextual knowledge or potential monolingual biases. Even native speakers with no teaching qualification or experience are considered to have valuable teaching methodology contributions for EFL contexts, demonstrated

in a recount of a White teacher's induction into the Peace Corps as an inexperienced teacher trainer (Iams, 2016).

The White 'native speaker' may be considered inherently linguistically equipped to teach English, while those categorized as *Other* are not. Iams (2016) noticed trends in publication titles which demonstrated the ideology generalizing native speaker teachers as linguistic ideals with non-native teachers indicated as linguistically challenged in teaching but more pedagogically qualified. These generalizations primarily include Standard English, which is associated with White middle and upper class status (Jumiah, 2016). Black teachers of English in Korea sought to dismantle the myth of White-centered monolithic English use in ELT (Charles, 2019). Native speakers may hold ideas that they are the best pronunciation teachers, which reinforces the ideology that to be perceived as a "good" English speaker, one must sound like a native, excluding the multiple accents, varieties, and uses of English around the world (Charles, 2019). This echoes beliefs expressed by native teachers, who also mocked non-standard-conforming accents in Korean uses of English, that only native speakers could lead English-only zones, which they believed necessary for proper development of English (Jenks & Lee, 2020).

Standards of English are based on an unspoken accommodation of the White listener (Flores, 2020; Gerald, 2020b; Rosa, 2016). Rosa (2016) argues that the standards set for academic language development for students are based in raciolinguistic ideologies which favor White native speaker judgment. Studies of ELT textbooks show how White supremacist ideologies manifest in the materials through "the racialization of the English language and associating the idealized native speaker's identity of English to whiteness" (Jumiah, 2016, p. 150). Flores (2020) criticizes the assumptions that Mexican-origin students in the U.S. lack *academic* language in both Spanish and English, an assumption marking their uses of language as inferior. This ascribed "languagelessness" is in reality a nonconformity with dominant standards and a perception that users are "incapable of producing *any* legitimate language" (Rosa, 2016, p. 163). There is a need to combat such ideologies through raising language awareness among educators (Kiczkowiak et al., 2016).

Reinforcement of White Native-Speakerism

The ELT policies of specific countries can reinforce White native-speakerist ideologies. For example, South Korea has enforced visa laws requiring English teachers to hold passports from countries strongly associated with White native speaker status (Charles, 2019; Jenks & Lee, 2020; West, 2019). The visa requirements of South Korea have expanded to include English teachers from other countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, the Philippines, and India; however, these teachers are required to possess teaching credentials that are not required for teachers from countries strongly associated with Whiteness (Charles, 2019). Jumiah (2016) describes a societal internalization of light skin status and alignment of identity with Whites' power and wealth access in Saudi Arabia that is reinforced through EFL textbooks and circulating ideologies that position American and British standard varieties of English as more prestigious and connected with economic and social opportunity. Schreiber (2019) describes the policies and practices of English use in Sri Lanka where English is used regularly in an official capacity as a result of British colonization history despite the official languages being Sinhala and Tamil, with unequal English access across the country resulting in a social hierarchy associating English use with higher status (Schreiber, 2019). Job advertisements and hiring practices of English teachers in China have been shown to favor native speakers (Sung, 2011). The reinforcement of White native-speakerism through the societal ideologies and official policies of specific countries and communities may

impact resistance to hegemonic policies and practices in ELT, especially when seen as "the way things are" and legitimizing inequality (Ramjattan, 2019).

Notions of authenticity are entwined with White native speaker norms (Lowe & Pinner, 2016). A label of authenticity places materials, language use, etc., in a state of authority which upholds the power attributed to White native speakers (Lowe & Pinner, 2016). Culturism, or Othering, can occur in how references to authentic materials refer to native speakers and Other users of English, essentializing Western norms in contrast to the local culture, just as native-speakerism others the non-White Western English speaker (Lowe & Pinner, 2016). Authenticity may be seen as cultural capital, or the view that learning certain varieties of English results in gain of status, connecting knowledge with Western standards (Lowe & Pinner, 2016).

Positionality

My embodied Whiteness and use of Standard American English as an ESL instructor both inside and outside the U.S. have reinforced ideologies of White native-speakerism. Students asked to learn how to speak "like me" and described me as a "real American" to compare me to U.S. citizens of non-White racialized identities. I was invited to conferences outside my expertise, introduced as an "American native speaker" and not as a credentialed and experienced teacher. My native speaker status granted me privileges, moving myself and my companions through border checks and granting me publishing and speaking opportunities. As I address my lack of active resistance to my own privilege, my neglect in empowering non-White colleagues, and my taking for granted my understandings of teaching methodology, I acknowledge that my process of change is ongoing and in flux. In undertaking this analysis, I did not remove my own Whiteness and internalization of White norms in ELT. I recognize that my perceptions of language, speakers of English, and English teaching are strongly entwined with internalized White native-speakerism that requires a lifelong unlearning. As such, undertaking this process of change has shaped and will continue to evolve my interpretations as I confront my internalized truths.

Methodology

The critical lens turned toward Whiteness in ELT is called for by scholars that have identified Whiteness as "the central driving force behind ELT" which either explicitly or implicitly excludes those seen as non-White or non-White conforming (Gerald, 2020b, p. 45). Critical Discourse Studies (CDS) (Wodak & Meyer, 2015) provided the analytical lens to examine discourses of power and framing of ideology in the texts. From this lens, discourses are understood as more than uses of languages but placed within the context which frame language use, as "relatively stable uses of language serving the organization and structuring of social life" (Wodak & Meyer, 2015, p. 5), and include written, oral, and visual texts. Dominant ideologies are understood in how they "appear as 'neutral,' linked to assumptions that remain largely unchallenged" (Wodak & Meyer, 2015, p. 8). Power is "in the way discourse (re)produces social domination…mainly understood as power abuse of one group over others, and how dominated groups may discursively resist such abuse" (Wodak & Meyer, 2015, p. 9). Theoretical and empirical analyses are essential to each step of CDS, "imply[ing] a circular and recursive–abductive relationship between theory and discourse" (Wodak & Meyer, 2015, p. 14). In this study, this relationship between theory and discourse was addressed through an ongoing review of literature prior to and during analysis to connect interpretations from empirical studies to the researcher's interpretations of discourses in the training modules. CDS informed the analytical approach to examining discourses in the modules which reinforce or resist the social division of different racialized identities in ELT,

understood both through what is said and what is left unsaid and therefore presented as inferable (Gee, 2014). CDS in this study guided the analytical focus to textual and visual discourses that frame or resist ideologies of White native-speakerism, both present and not present and that have been demonstrated in previous studies to unequally position the roles of different groups, their racialized identities, and uses of languages and language varieties within the context of global EFL teacher training.

Data Sources

The materials are 14 open-source teacher training modules available on AmericanEnglish.state.gov, developed through the University of Oregon for the U.S. Department of State Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs Office of English Language Programs (Opp-Beckman & Klinghammer, 2006). Each module consists of a video segment available on YouTube that is between ten and fifteen minutes and a text facilitation guide with handouts to accompany the videos. The videos begin with a narrated introduction of the module focus, followed by video clips of classroom teaching or interviews with teachers. The footage represents primary, secondary, and adult level classes, with English classrooms in the U.S., Egypt, Costa Rica, and Thailand. The facilitation guides, approximately 10 pages of text each, begin with notes for the trainer, "Before Viewing" discussion prompts and vocabulary related to the content focus or video segments, reflection questions, and steps for teachers to create an action plan for teaching. The guides also include suggested answers to the reflection questions on the video segments. Each module focuses on one of the following topics: contextualizing language, building language awareness, integrating skills, pair and group work, learner feedback, managing large classes, learning strategies, authentic materials, critical and creative thinking, alternative assessment, individual learner differences, younger learners, peer observations, and reflective teaching. The modules were designed for a general EFL teacher audience whose goals are, according to the introduction, "to build an academic or 'pedagogical' foundation in language teaching" and "to improve language teaching classroom practices" (Introduction, p. 7). These materials are likely to be used by EFL teachers in countries in which the U.S. sponsors English language programs. The modules are designed for flexible use and could be facilitated by an experienced teacher trainer or by teachers in individual or group professional development. The modules are designed to be used either in the order presented or selected individually based on interest. Users are encouraged to consider how they might immediately apply what they learned to their own contexts. The modules were designed to address a lack of teacher training materials with examples from EFL teaching contexts.

Data Analysis

The application of CDS guided the focus of coding on discourses which framed ideologies of White native-speakerism, including both what was said and not said, and potential inference in the context (Gee, 2014). The analysis included identifying positioning of power: between participants and facilitators, between teachers of different racialized identities, between varied teaching methodology choices, and the wording and framing of questions and definitions (e.g., culture, authentic materials). Both what the module developers chose to include and not include were considered. The common ideologies regarding White native-speakerism gleaned from the literature review guided interpretation of discourses in the text, which included a consideration of the potential premises that led to the choices in phrasing by the developers (e.g., "other speakers

of English" vs. "non-native speakers") and possible interpretations of these choices by target audiences (Fairclough, 2016; Gee, 2014).

An initial review of literature provided guidance in uncovering discourses which framed normative White teaching practices against a deficient Other and the framing of success as the achievement of a native-like (i.e., White) norm. All data source materials were reviewed prior to coding to gain a general sense of the modules. A textual analysis of the facilitation guides was conducted first: The instructions for facilitation, questions for participants, and suggested responses to the video discussion prompts framed the textual materials as guiding documents. The prior and ongoing literature review informed the initial stage of deductive thematic coding of the written texts which resulted in the development of topic coding and in vivo codes (Richards, 2015). Emergent themes were then categorized for the second round of coding, targeting the framing of the discourses evidenced in initial themes and the development of analytical codes (Richards, 2015). This resulted in topical categories, including culturally-related, language-related, program-related, and teacher-related codes, authenticity, and adaptation to the local context. Refinement of these categories included text searches of the textual data sources for words and phrases including "authentic," "culture," "effective," "it is important," "real world," and "speakers" to identify instances of repeated discourse patterns related to themes which developed in the first rounds of coding. The researcher wrote ongoing analytic memos for each coded theme to reflect on and develop interpretations.

At this stage, the developed categories revealed contradictions which interconnected themes across categories and prompted the next round of categorization. This analysis centered on the premises on which discourses were based, how these discourses might be received, what was left as inferable, and alignment with the visual and audio representations in the videos. A video analysis was used to confirm themes which arose from the textual data, especially regarding visual and audio representations of teachers and cultures which were not present in the textual materials. These representations included accents, language varieties, demonstrations of culture in classrooms, racialized identities of teachers, how teachers were positioned relative to each other, and the relationship of this positioning with language varieties and racialized identities. A memo for each module video was created to record the number of featured teachers (those interviewed or showcased in their classrooms), their racialized identities and possible nationalities (inferred from the 4 represented countries in the modules: Egypt, the U.S., Thailand, and Costa Rica), their accents or English varieties used, gendered identities, and presence or positioning relative to other teachers in the videos. In some cases, content from the interviews were noted as relevant to the facilitation guides and coding material (e.g., the use of the word pidgin to describe students' English use). Classroom visual and linguistic landscapes were also noted, including wall charts which represented languages or culture themes, oral language use in the classroom, student products of activities, and items used in the classroom. Native language use was also noted.

The computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software NVivo 12 (QSR International Pty Ltd, 2020) was used to organize all analyzed data sources, manage codes and the coding process, and search the full range of analyzed texts using the text query feature.

Findings and Discussion

The overarching theme that emerged from the analysis is an *avoidance of stance*, demonstrated through contradictory, simultaneous representations of resistance to and reinforcement of ideologies of White native-speakerism. This avoidance of stance is marked by a deference to participants and their contexts. The repetition of the following sentence on the first page of each

of the module facilitation guides except Modules 5 and 12 indicates this emphasis on participant contexts: "It is important that teachers apply the concepts in the module to their own classrooms and situations." The importance placed on context provides agency to participants to adapt training material to their own contexts; however, this deference to the context may falsely place the impetus onto participants to resist marginalizing ideologies that hierarchize language and teaching methodologies. The idea that teachers and learners can resist native-speakerism in dominant teaching materials and marketing diminishes the real control that the dominant discourse maintains (Kumaravadivelu, 2016). These contradictions position ELT training as neutral ground and reinforce a naturalized preference for Whiteness and White-centered ELT methodology. This avoidance of stance is further exemplified through *representation of language varieties*, the emergence of a *monolingual view* of teaching, *representations of culture*, and *the framing of authenticity*.

Representation of Language Varieties

Resistance to White native-speakerism is demonstrated through references to English use. Questions for participants ask them to reflect on how students might use English and apply English use as a basis to inform lesson design. The modules reference not only native speaker varieties of English as benchmarks but also explicitly include "other users of the target language" (Module 2, p. 21) and "any of the various forms of native speaker English and/or examples of native and non-native English that are likely to be used in the learners' environment" (Module 8, p. 85). This highlighting of the existence of multiple legitimate varieties of English for communication resists the ideology that only native varieties are suitable. A majority of the 14 module videos (86%) featured the voices of teachers of varied racialized identities using standard and non-standard accents in contrast to the percentage of videos which featured White teachers (57%). There is clear inclusion of teachers of color, both native and from EFL contexts, which visually and aurally resists the White native speaker ideal.

Alongside this resistance is reinforcement of the ideology that English ownership is not extended to these users. The term *native speaker* is placed first and in opposition to *other users*. This phrasing may have been chosen to specifically resist a native-speakerism ideology denoting only sources from native speakers as authentic; however, the term native speaker is loaded in ways that may delegitimate multiple native speaker identities. This may serve to reinforce White native-speakerism held by a community or individual due to the lack of directly recognizing the complex meanings of native speaker and other users of English.

Monolingual View

The monolingual perspective views language learners as multiple monolinguals in one, separating languages into distinct functions of use; however, bilinguals and multilinguals (the majority of the world population) utilize their full linguistic repertoire (Baker & Wright, 2017). English only methodology advantages English-speaking monolingual speakers and advocates for a monolingual approach to language learning unaligned with the multilingual realities of many language learners around the world (Baker & Wright, 2017).

Few instances in the training modules demonstrated an acknowledgement that languages other than English will be used in the classroom. One acknowledgement was through observation reflection questions that asked the participant to note the percentage of time English is used during an observed lesson, which can be understood as in comparison with the percentage of other language use. This type of questioning could allow for an analysis of language use in the classroom

from a holistic view of language; however, without explicit purpose, it is open to interpretation from a monolingual view of bilingual development. Four out of the fourteen video modules include the use of a word from a native language or writing in the native language on classroom visual supports. The video narrator's suggestion that class rules be posted in both English and the native language as a management technique positions the L1 as a disciplinary tool rather than a tool for learning. Other references point to an "English-only" paradigm; for example, regarding a teaching demonstration on the use of realia, the guide states: "Note that [the teacher] uses only English, and the children are able to follow along very well" (Module 8, p. 90). This comment, and the limited representation of the L1, point to an application of English only in the classroom, indicating White native speakerist ideology (Lowe, 2020).

Representations of Culture

A definition of culture embedded in one of the facilitation guide activities portrays culture in an inclusive, non-essentialist manner:

> If we think of "culture" in the broadest possible sense—something like "a shared set of behavior patterns" among any group of people—then we can see that it applies as a concept not only to ethnic cultures, but to workplace cultures and even classroom cultures as well. (Module 4, p. 38)

This definition provides a view of culture in the facilitation guides beyond ethnicity and brings the concept of culture into everyday lived experience. However, in a later guide (Module 8), references to "not culture-specific" materials imply that there are objects from people's everyday life that are universal. The idea that the objects or practices of people can be "not culture-specific" aligns with deculturization of White practices as the neutral standard to compare with the Other (Kumaravadivelu, 2016).

Most of the coded references to topics and activities in the facilitation texts (approximately 50) were topics presented generally to apply across contexts, aligning with the general one-size-fits-all approach for all English learning contexts (Jumiah, 2016). However, specific references to White U.S.-based topics include the Pilgrims, American Thanksgiving, Uncle Sam, a news story about a U.S. event, planning a trip to D.C., and famous people in the target culture. The Pilgrims and Thanksgiving examples specifically reference a White-centered historical group of people and holiday. Examples demonstrating inclusion of students' cultures were more predominant in the video segments, including a teacher describing her use of folk stories from students' cultures to build upon their prior knowledge, students explaining a project which leveraged both locally relevant sources along with English-language sources to create a book about the students' city and culture, and a class-created poster in English on the wall highlighting local Thai desserts. The non-U.S. contexts in the modules do not match the U.S. cultural examples in number or specificity, reinforcing the ideology that cultural content in English teaching should be related to White history and culture. Despite the importance placed on the module content to be adjusted for participants' contexts, teacher participants do not see non-White, locally relevant culture legitimated in the English classroom and thus do not see themselves represented. As the audience is a predominantly EFL context, the lack of specific examples incorporating local culture into the classroom homogenates EFL contexts and essentializes U.S. culture.

Framing of Authenticity

Among the many applications of the term *authentic* in the modules are "authentic classroom scenes," "authentic items," "authentic language," "authentic context," "authentic opportunities,"

"authentic text," "authentic purposes," and "authentic sources." "Authentic materials" occurs most often (30 times). *Authentic materials*, the topic of Module 8, are explicitly defined as "Materials used in the target culture for actual communicative needs. They should enable the learner to hear, read, and produce language as it is used in the target culture" (Module 8, p. 84). The criteria for choosing authentic materials include that they be "in a style of English learners will hear and use" (p. 85), inviting different varieties of English to be represented in the classroom but also potentially reinforcing particular varieties as cultural capital: more authentic, more authoritative, and contributing to gain of status and connection (Lowe & Pinner, 2016). The linking of authenticity with *the* target culture negates the authenticity of English use in the local context and the myriad ways English is used around the world. In contrast, *authentic use* (11 occurrences) refers to "us[ing] language to communicate purposefully." The definition of *authentic tasks* (3 occurrences) also denotes language use: "Tasks or activities that are used in the 'real' world for actual communication needs" (Module 8, p. 84). *Real world* (10 occurrences) is "The world in which we live—outside the classroom" (Module 1, p. 12). Here, *the target culture* is not mentioned, the focus instead on students' language use. The contrast between authentic materials (objects) and use (action) weaken the construction of authenticity, which avoids a clear stance through deferring the task of interpreting authenticity to participants. In pointing to *the* target culture in describing objects, activities, and sources as authentic, authority is reinforced for whichever image has been determined as the target, i.e., White-dominant culture. These references to the target culture as authentic may also establish culturism through the separation and essentialization of Western norms from the local culture in ELT (Lowe & Pinner, 2016).

Implications

Taking White-centeredness as a given in teacher training materials and ELT as a field needs to be explicitly resisted, with these ideologies confronted head-on in teacher training. To establish awareness of the presence of such ideologies, their impacts, and resistance, Gerald (2020a) strongly advocates for educators to step out from behind the ELT altruistic shield to challenge White supremacy in the field rather than ignoring it beneath a justification of the "goodness" of our work. Teacher training must incorporate explicit questioning of White native-speakerism (Kiczkowiak et al., 2016), including understanding that training materials are not neutral—they are influenced by the ideologies internalized in the field. Training materials need to advocate for teachers to develop skills as producers of knowledge rather than passive recipients of knowledge and materials from the target culture (Kumaravadivelu, 2016). Rather than the colorblind approach to ELT and teacher training, explicit acknowledgement of race and culture, impacts experienced by ELT teachers of color, and the highlighting of the voices and experiences of ELT teachers of color need to be opened up in teacher training (Charles, 2019), along with fostering critical assessment skills for both ELT teachers and students to reveal hidden curricula (Jumiah, 2016; Lowe & Lawrence, 2018). Greater incorporation of a multicultural and multilingual approach in ELT is also suggested to combat the widespread monolingual approach to teaching (Kiczkowiak et al., 2016). Along with suggestions for greater inclusion of a wide variety of World Englishes to resist these ideologies (Jumiah, 2016; Kubota, 2018; Ramjattan, 2019), explicit and ongoing discussions that raise awareness of and break down White native-speakerist ideology are necessary to combat essentialism (Kubota, 2018) and need to be explicitly included in training materials rather than left to individual users.

Impacts

Continuing to reinforce silently-centered Whiteness in ELT causes harm to those who are racialized as non-White (Gerald, 2020b). Non-White teachers and non-native speaking teachers are positioned as deficient, inferior, illegitimate, and unequal (Ramjattan, 2019). This harm, while perhaps not intentional, is under the responsibility of various stakeholders, one of which is teacher training developers and programs, who contribute to this harm through neglecting to address disparity-causing issues such as White native-speakerism (Jenks & Lee, 2020). The profit motive for perpetuating White native-speakerism, as ELT is a money-making enterprise benefiting White native speaker dominant countries and communities, also reinforces the perpetuation of this ideology (Gerald, 2020b). This leads to further economic disparity among race divides through privileging White native speakers in employment access and White publishers and materials developers (Gerald, 2020b) along with professional recognition and advancement in the field (Kubota, 2018; Kumaravadivelu, 2016). There are also impacts on students when the standard for their legitimacy as English users and speakers is reliant on a standard that is largely dependent on birth (Gerald, 2020b) and the impetus for marginalized racialized communities to remove themselves from oppression is placed on their ability to modify their language practices (Flores, 2020). Teachers may internalize a negative self-image if they do not meet the White native speaker standard and do not see themselves represented as legitimate in the profession (Lowe & Pinner, 2016; Zacharias, 2019). Such ideology may include a form of Othering of Western native speakers and "reduc[e] them to tokens and commodities" (Lowe & Lawrence, 2018, p. 164). These impacts indicate the complexity of implications and consequences of native-speakerism ideology and the importance of addressing its reinforcement.

Limitations and Future Research

This analysis cannot be generalized to all materials and is based on the researcher's interpretation which excludes comprehensive contextual knowledge about the texts' development (Wodak & Meyer, 2015) and how trainers have employed the materials beyond the researcher's experience. The centering of Whiteness in this study is meant to bring awareness to and challenge White native-speakerism in EFL teacher training; however, this endeavor does not do justice to the need for the voices of teachers and students of color from a wide variety of contexts, identities, and experiences to break down this construct. This study does not look at intersections of oppression (Crenshaw, 1989) in ELT, such as the relationship of race with classism, sexism, homophobia, ableism, transphobia, fatphobia, immigration status, religion, or other ways teacher training may oppress along the intersections of commonly separated identities. Future studies that incorporate a larger sampling of texts may provide insight into the generalization of these findings. Further research should include the perspectives of developers, trainers, and teachers from varied contexts who have utilized these materials; how individuals and communities may internalize or resist these ideologies; and how other factors, such as national or institutional policies and practices, influence individuals' reception of such materials.

Conclusion

These materials are clearly designed to honor teacher agency and context and promote teacher development grounded in theory and practice. This can be acknowledged while also understanding how these materials may reinforce White native-speakerism in ELT. White native-speakerism is firmly rooted, "hidden and normalised" within the field of ELT (Lowe, 2020, p. 152). Resistance is in direct action, and when it comes to racism, there is no middle ground; there is a racist stance

and an anti-racist stance, and those in power will act based off of what benefits the dominant group (Kendi, 2017). An anti-racist stance will actively call out White native-speakerism in ELT; empower teachers of color and their varied language varieties, accents, and dialects; de-exoticize culture; and reexamine the assumptions of English teaching methodology.

References

Baker, C., & Wright, W. E. (2017). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (6th ed.). Multilingual Matters.

Charles, Q. D. (2019). Black teachers of English in South Korea: Constructing identities as a native English speaker and English language teaching professional. *TESOL Journal*, *10*(4), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.478

Crenshaw, K. (1989). Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex: A Black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory and antiracist politics. *University of Chicago Legal Forum*, *1989*(1), 139–167.

DiAngelo, R. J. (2018). *White fragility: Why it's so hard for white people to talk about racism*. Beacon Press.

English Language Programs. (2020, June 11). [Image]. Facebook. https://www.facebook.com/elprograms/photos/a.10153768841096184/10156970781271184

Fairclough, N. (2016). A dialectical-relational approach to critical discourse analysis in social research. In R. Wodak & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Methods of critical discourse studies* (3rd ed., pp. 86–108). SAGE Publications.

Flores, N. (2020). From academic language to language architecture: Challenging raciolinguistic ideologies in research and practice. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1), 22–31. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2019.1665411

Gee, J. P. (2014). *How to do discourse analysis: A toolkit*. Routledge.

Gerald, J. P. B. (2020a). Combatting the altruistic shield in English language teaching. *NYS TESOL Journal*, *7*(1), 22–25. http://journal.nystesol.org/jan2020/3_AP.pdf

Gerald, J. P. B. (2020b). Worth the risk: Towards decentring whiteness in English language teaching. *BC TEAL Journal*, *5*(1), 44–54.

Holliday, A. (2006). Native-speakerism. *ELT Journal*, *60*(4), 385–387. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccl030

Iams, S. (2016). Unpacking the native speaker knapsack: An autoethnographic account of privilege in TESOL. *Korea TESOL Journal*, *12*(2), 3–21.

Jenks, C. J., & Lee, J. W. (2020). Native speaker saviorism: A racialized teaching ideology. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *17*(3), 186–205. https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2019.1664904

Jumiah, A. A. (2016). *Language, power, and ideology in high school EFL textbooks in Saudi Arabia*. University of New Mexico.

Kachru, B. (2006). English: World Englishes. In K. Brown (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language & linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 195–202). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-044854-2/00645-3

Kendi, I. X. (2017). *Stamped from the beginning: The definitive history of racist ideas in America*. Bold Type Books.

Kiczkowiak, M., Baines, D., & Krummenacher, K. (2016). Using awareness raising activities on initial teacher training courses to tackle 'native speakerism.' *English Language Teacher Education and Development Journal*, *19*, 1–9.

Kramadibrata, A. (2016). The halo surrounding native English speaker teachers in Indonesia. Indonesian *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *5*(2), 282–295. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v5i2.1352

Kubota, R. (2018). Racial, ethnic, and cultural stereotypes in teaching English. In J. I Liontas (Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1–7). John Wiley & Sons. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0298

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2016). The decolonial option in English teaching: Can the subaltern act? *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(1), 66–85. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.202

Lowe, R. J. (2020). *Uncovering ideology in English language teaching: Identifying the 'native speaker' frame.* Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-46231-4

Lowe, R. J., & Lawrence, L. (2018). Native-speakerism and "hidden curricula" in ELT training: A duoethnography. *Journal of Language and Discrimination*, *2*(2), 162–187. https://doi.org/10.1558/jld.36409

Lowe, R. J., & Pinner, R. (2016). Finding the connections between native-speakerism and authenticity. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *7*(1), 27–52. https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2016-0002

Matias, C. E., & Mackey, J. (2016). Breakin' down whiteness in antiracist teaching: Introducing critical whiteness pedagogy. *The Urban Review*, *48*(1), 32–50. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-015-0344-7

Mohamed, M. A. S. (2015). The role of English language textbooks in the reproduction of racism. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, *3*(1), 95–108.

Mosley, D. V., & Bellamy, P. L. (2020). *Academics for Black survival and wellness*. https://www.academics4blacklives.com

Nayak, A. (2007). Critical whiteness studies. *Sociology Compass*, *1*(2), 737–755. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9020.2007.00045.x

Opp-Beckman, L., & Klinghammer, S. (2006). *Shaping the way we teach English: Successful practices around the world.* Office of English Language Programs. https://americanenglish.state.gov/resources/shaping-way-we-teach-english-successful-practices-around-world

Pennycook, A. (2017). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315225593

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford University Press.

Picower, B. (2009). The unexamined Whiteness of teaching: How White teachers maintain and enact dominant racial ideologies. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *12*(2), 197–215. https://doi.org/10.1080/13613320902995475

QSR International Pty Ltd. (2020). *NVivo* (Version 12) [Computer software]. QSR International Pty Ltd. https://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo-qualitative-data-analysis-software/home

Ramjattan, V. A. (2019). The white native speaker and inequality regimes in the private English language school. *Intercultural Education*, *30*(2), 126–140. https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2018.1538043

Richards, L. (2015). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.

Rosa, J. D. (2016). Standardization, racialization, languagelessness: Raciolinguistic ideologies across communicative contexts. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*, *26*(2), 162–183. https://doi.org/10.1111/jola.12116

Ruecker, T. (2011). Challenging the native and nonnative English speaker hierarchy in ELT: New directions from race theory. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *8*(4), 400–422. https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2011.615709

Ruecker, T., & Ives, L. (2015). White native English speakers needed: The rhetorical construction of privilege in online teacher recruitment spaces. *TESOL Quarterly*, *49*(4), 733–756. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.195

Saad, L. F. (Host). (2019, December 12). Robin DiAngelo on White fragility (No. 011) [Audio podcast]. In *Good Ancestor*. http://laylafsaad .com/good-ancestor-podcast/ep011-robin-diangelo

Schreiber, B. R. (2019). "More like you": Disrupting native speakerism through a multimodal online intercultural exchange. *TESOL Quarterly*, *53*(4), 1115–1138. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.534

Sung, C. C. M. (2011). Race and native speakers in ELT: Parents' perspectives in Hong Kong: Chinese parents in Hong Kong err in their perceptions of racial background and the native speaker of English. *English Today*, *27*(3), 25–29. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078411000344

West, G. B. (2019). Navigating morality in neoliberal spaces of English language education. *Linguistics and Education*, *49*, 31–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2018.12.004

Wodak, R., & Meyer, M. (Eds.). (2015). *Methods of critical discourse studies* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.

Zacharias, N. T. (2019). The ghost of nativespeakerism: The case of teacher classroom introductions in transnational contexts. *TESOL Journal*, *10*(4), e499. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.499

Received: August 15, 2020 | Accepted: September 30, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020

Poetry in TESOL Teacher Education: A Chinese Teacher's Identity Negotiation and Reconstruction Before and During the Pandemic

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 32–47
ISSN: 2331-6845

Yixuan Wang
Department of Language and Literacy Education, University of Georgia

Abstract

This case study explores how Meili (pseudonym), a pre-service teacher in a TESOL and World Language Education program, negotiated and reconstructed her identity as a multilingual graduate student in her emergent bilingual poems through two poetry classes offered in spring 2018 and summer 2019. Her reflections and stories in the interviews are analyzed under the framework of arts-based research. The findings point out that this non-English native multilingual teacher negotiated and reconstructed her emerging teacher-poet identity through bilingual poetry in three main ways: (a) she challenged the long-existing norms and judgments set by her English monolingual peers by bringing her multilingual voice in her English poems, (b) she combined her personal experiences as a multilingual international student in the U.S. to reconstruct an ideal identity that she aspires to as a pre-service teacher, and (c) she used translingual creative writing to exhibit and expand her linguistic and cultural repertoires which contribute to the ongoing construction of her teacher-poet identity. This analysis has implications for poetry and other arts-based approaches to be included in TESOL teacher education to help pre-service and in-service teachers from diverse backgrounds disrupt problematic norms in the field during and after the pandemic. The affordance of poetry also enables multilingual teachers to mediate and reshape their desired teacher identity through their poem writing combined with their life experiences.

Keywords

TESOL, teacher education, multilingual teachers, pre-service teachers, poetry

Background

The United States and other western English-dominant countries have been popular destinations for international students. In the U.S., international students are a fast-growing population with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Among international students, Chinese international students are the fastest- and largest-growing group of international students in the U.S. (Qi et al., 2018). Although international students generally face some shared and common challenges, previous studies demonstrated that students from Asia, Africa, and South America in the U.S. face more challenges compared to their counterparts from Europe and North America (Qi et al., 2018). Even among Asian international students, a salient difference would be language barriers that

Yixuan Wang is a doctoral student in TESOL and World Languages in the Department of Language and Literacy Education at the University of Georgia, Athens, GA; email yw61560@uga.edu.

Chinese students face since they have lower TOEFL iBT scores (a mandatory language test international students have to take to apply for universities in the U.S.) compared to students from India where English is an official language and Korea where English is not an official language either (Educational Testing Service, 2018). When the language barrier is an enormous challenge to Chinese students, the hardship becomes even more difficult for Chinese international students who are enrolled in the program of TESOL or World Language Education (WLE), in which language proficiency is a prerequisite. Noticing this issue, many scholars advocate to offer more creative approaches, such as poetry, in TESOL programs to help international students navigate in the new host country for their new life, study, and identity (Cahnmann-Taylor et al., 2016; Harman & Zhang, 2015; Kamhi-Stein, 2013). Along with these advocacies, scholars also urge to disrupt the standards set by English native practitioners in the field and offer more creative ways for international students to achieve better in their academic performance and pre-service training (Cahnmann-Taylor et al., 2016; Cahnmann-Taylor & Hwang, 2019).

As most of the teaching all around the world has been interrupted and altered due to the pandemic, it is time for educators and learners to make transformative and critical changes. The recent upheaval of policy that could influence all international students in U.S. academic programs, particularly TESOL, programs should take actions to not only nurture pre-service teachers' academic and professional development but also self-agency and intercultural competency. Thus, in the midst of a global pandemic, I ask two questions related to both arts and the world of TESOL:

1. What role does arts/poetry play in teacher education?
2. What can arts-based approaches offer in TESOL teacher education?

What follows here is a case study of a Chinese international student's personal experience. Through the analysis of three interviews with her, the analysis exhibits problematic norms and concepts that many TESOL and WLE practitioners still carry against international and multilingual teacher candidates, the negotiation and reconstruction of this bilingual teacher's identity, and the affordance of poetry in TESOL teacher education programs. The analysis itself also illustrates the importance of using arts-based research in both teaching and research (Cahnmann-Taylor & Siegesmund, 2018; Mulvihill & Swaminathan, 2019).

This study begins with a review of the long-existing binary of English-native speakers and non-native speakers in TESOL, translanguaging practices of bilinguals/multilinguals, and the arts in TESOL practice, specifically poetry. After the review, the context of culture and situation is explained to better illustrate Meili's situations in her program and her workplace as an international bilingual educator who was reshaping her identity as a bilingual, novice teacher, and emerging poet.

Theoretical Background

The Binary of English-Nativeness and Non-Nativeness in TESOL

The expanding role of English as a global lingua franca leads to the demands for more qualified English teachers in the world. Nonetheless, about 80% of English teachers around the world speak another language as their native or first language (Faez & Karas, 2019). However, these non-native teachers' teaching skills are often doubted and challenged since the field has linked teaching skills with "native like" English proficiency. As a result, such a problematic concept situates "non-native English-speaking" bilingual or multilingual teachers in a discriminated side, worsening the

tolerance and embrace of English varieties and localized English in the world. Gradually, this binary lead non-native teachers to identify with the ideology of "nativeness" in the field, ranging from teaching skills to cultural understanding and teaching. This deep-rooted ideology further favors native teachers as well as influencing non-native teachers to perceive themselves as inferior and deficient in English (Nguyen, 2017). Phillipson (1992) challenges such "native speaker fallacy" and he asserts that this proposition is unequal and unethical (p.185). A growing number of scholars call for breaking down the dichotomy and promote counter discourses (Pennycook, 1994). To empower non-native speakers in the field, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) also advocate for the necessity to "develop an identity of their own construction that neither prescribes a limited role for them in the profession nor specifies definite boundaries to their capacities therein" (p. 418). Therefore, TESOL teacher education becomes extremely important to non-native teacher candidates' experiences in the training since teachers tend to bring in their own experiences in the program into their future classrooms and form their own beliefs from the programs. For this reason, it is critical to examine if courses offered in TESOL teacher programs are able to influence pre-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs of non-nativeness and diversity, and if the courses could empower non-native bilingual/multilingual teacher candidates to disrupt problematic norms in the field (Mahboob, 2010). When seeking for critical pedagogy changes and transformations, arts-based teaching and learning offered possible solutions.

Art and Poetry in TESOL Teacher Education

Dewey (1934/2005) explores the concept of art experience, noting that a person not only transfers materials into art, but artworks also transform the person. Life's challenges and changes create momentum for personal development and growth. Dewey points out that the human development speeds up when a person overcomes challenges and difficulties to make progress (Dewey, 1934/2005; Richards, 2017). In this process, a person's artistic transformation takes place when the past experience is carried into the present experience with the desired imagination of the near future (Eisner, 2002). Art helps people better understand the sense of self, the world, and their own life experience (Dewey, 1934). Thus, Dewey's notion of art as experience highlights the importance of art in human development and growth. As international students constantly face challenges and difficulties during their stay in the U.S. for academic purposes, especially during and after the global pandemic, art should be involved in their life as much as possible to help them carry prior life experiences to their current experiences to fulfil the goals of self-development and self-growth.

With the increasing needs for English teachers in other countries, more and more international students come to the U.S., seeking a graduate degree in teaching English as a second language (ESL) or a foreign language (EFL). To help these students adjust to the new environment academically and socially, poetry has been adopted by TESOL teacher educators as a creative, aesthetic, and critical vessel. Hanauer (2003) conceptualizes that poetry has certain value in promoting multilingualism and understanding diversity in human life. Unlike other linguistic approaches, poetry makes it possible for poets to express their thoughts in an aesthetically pleasurable way, and thus brings back adornment to the original thoughts. Hanauer (2003) also states that poetry offers access to the first-hand experiences in the world, which connect readers with the understanding of the artist's experiences, thoughts, and emotions that are related to the poems. He further argues that bilingual/multilingual poems have pushed against the assimilation that the dominant monolingual power posts on the multilingual minorities.

In recent research which focuses on poetry in teacher education, especially with international students, scholars demonstrate that by writing bilingual/multilingual poems, multilingual teachers push against the norms set by dominant monolingual practitioners and bring in both multicultural and individual voices in the field. Adding poetry in language teacher education also introduces the new concept of poetic Zone of Proximal Development (P-ZPD) which offers dialogic possibilities to help TESOL teachers identify themselves as collaborative artists in creative multilingualism (Cahnmann-Taylor & Hwang, 2019). P-ZPD can also "impact imitation, grammar, vocabulary, authority, and other classroom concepts in many global EFL classrooms" (Hwang, 2016, p. 159). Training pre-service teachers to be artists means to help students think and act actively and strategically, seeing opportunities when others might see as limitations and impossibilities. The arts make great contributions in TESOL education to help students view English as a meaningful "home" from multilingual perspectives and enable creative and agentive multilingual proficiencies. Artful TESOL practices also connect instructors' and students' linguistic and cultural repertoires to learn from cross-cultural sharing, failure, and revisions. Through such an aesthetic self-discovery, students' authorhood and creative agency will be sharpened and developed (Cahnmann-Taylor & Zhang, 2018). In another word, poetry provides teacher candidates with a space for sharing personal/life experiences with multicultural, multilingual, and multilevel meanings to forefront the process of translanguaging and shaping a new identity as a teacher.

Translanguaging in Poetry

Translanguaging is a process when multilingual speakers use their multiple languages in meaning making. This discursive process of multi-language use, often simultaneously, is an expansion of languaging featured with speakers' complex navigation in multiple linguistic and cultural repertoires (Carnagarajah, 2011; García, 2009). Under this framework, scholars push back against the false view of bilingual speakers' cognition, which describes bilingual speakers as inferior speakers of both languages and double monolinguals (Baker, 2011; García, 2009; García & Wei, 2014).

Since English has become the second or the third language of many people all over the world, translanguaging is prevalently used and implemented in numerous countries. Because of this change, the space for translanguaging is expanding in educational settings at the same time. In higher education in the U.S., as more and more international students come to the U.S. to pursue an undergraduate or a graduate degree, these students certainly employ translanguaging skills in their personal and academic experiences. Hence, such vital change in higher education also requests TESOL educators to accommodate these bilingual/multilingual students' needs, and to foster their prior skills that they acquired in both their native and second or third languages. Allowing and assisting students' translanguaging practices opens the door for more potential and possibilities in TESOL programs (De Costa et al., 2017).

The Current Analysis: Contexts and Method

Context of Culture

The context of culture in this case study is surely consistent with the larger culture of the TESOL world. Meili started her graduate program as soon as she graduated from college in 2018. Meili's program and its faculty make efforts to reshape beliefs and ideologies of multilingual learners and world English in multiple courses for pre-service and in-service teachers. Among graduate students

in the program, the teaching experiences of students vary. For students who do not have much teaching experience, like Meili, they applied for the program mainly for a pre-service training before their future career. Meanwhile, there are also students who are full-time teachers already, working on another degree for better career choices. Thus, for Meili and many other international pre-service teachers, they regard U.S. in-service teachers as experienced authority in TESOL and WLE. However, idolizing experienced teachers in their pre-service training could be inappropriate since some experienced teachers could bring in misbeliefs about multilingual teachers in the TESOL and WLE world, even though many courses have been correcting and shifting such false concepts. If these pre-service teachers internalize and continue this misconception in their training and future teaching, they might look down upon their own identities as multilingual and idealize the "native speaker fallacy". Blindly following and legitimizing this norm set long ago by English native monolingual educators is harmful for international and multilingual teacher candidates, especially in their negotiation and reconstruction of their identity as promising educators in the field. Their internalization of these norms could also further hinder their performance and teaching in diverse classrooms where they might serve a great number of multilingual students.

Context of the Situation

In a university in the Southeastern U.S., Meili, a Chinese international student, enrolled in two poetry classes offered in the graduate-level TESOL and World Language Education program in spring 2018 and summer 2019. When Meili took the first course, it was the first semester of her first year in the program. The course offered in 2018 was a Master-level poetry course for pre-service teachers. In the course, there were four Chinese-L1 international students, including Meili, and four other English-native students (English-Spanish bilingual speakers and English monolingual speakers). In the doctoral level course offered in 2019, Meili was the only international student along with other U.S. students who are both English-Spanish bilingual speakers and English monolingual speakers (six in total). At the end of the second course, Meili had two English poems published in U.S. poetry journals. The purposes of these two courses are helping students acquire poetic crafts to write poems to cross linguistic, cultural, and disciplinary boundaries as well as immersing teachers in the process of writing poetry, regarding themselves as poets, to create more cross-cultural and meaningful instructions in their own language classes. Meili was selected as the focal participant because she took both courses, and she was the only international multilingual student in the summer course who experienced challenges from other multilingual or monolingual U.S. peers. As Meili felt powerless and lonely in the summer course when a U.S. English-L1-multilingual in-service teacher consistently picked on her language use in her poems, Meili wrote the poem "For International Students" to push back against this U.S. in-service teacher's grammar critiques. In the poem, Meili had written about not only language barriers she faced in the program but also many other challenges that she had to overcome in the new host country.

When the first interview took place, it was the beginning of her last semester in the program as a pre-service teacher. Upon the time the second interview was conducted, Meili had already been working as a full-time Chinese teacher in an elementary school in the U.S. for almost a semester. The third interview was conducted in the summer of 2020 before Meili went back to China to be a full-time English teacher in a local elementary school. In the first two interviews, Meili and I both used English most of the time. For the last interview, Meili chose to use Chinese with only a few English words as she felt more relieved to speak Chinese for the last interview.

Data Collection

To have a better understanding of Meili's prior experience with poetry and literacy before and after she enrolled in the program as well as the two poetry classes, three semi-structured interviews were conducted and audio recorded in the fall semester of 2019 and summer of 2020. The first interview mainly focused on Meili's reflection on the summer course. One of her poems entitled "For International Students" is also partially included in the analysis (see Figure 1 below) as a poetic reflection on her own experiences in the U.S., which epitomize Chinese international students' collective experiences in her program. The second follow-up interview covered more of her early childhood and family literacy practices that indicate her rich poetic repertoire of biliteracy. The third interview unveiled her reflection of the rapid changes in her life before and during the pandemic as well as how poetry engaged in her life during this unprecedented time.

Figure 1

Excerpt from "For International Students" Poem

"For International Students"

For you cross the sea with 2 overweight luggage;
For realizing even YouTube ads know your race;
For feeling you shouldn't speak your mother tongue;

…

For hearing "We only hire Americans";
For depositing triple security when not having the SSN;
For changing the tire, then worrying about the next-month-rent;
For longing to hear your native songs in restaurants;
For furnishing your apartment from dumpsters;

…

For not relating to family newborns;
For hating yourself when parents sell their house for tuition;
For lying "I'm great."

Note. The poem is patterned after *Jubilate Agno* by Christopher Smart.

Data Analysis

A thematic analysis was conducted to examine the collected data and identify recurring themes and issues. Line-by-line transcription reading was employed in the first round of inductive thematic analysis. Transcribed and translated data were coded in the chronological order. All themes and categories were generated from the data without any pre-existing presumptions. By using the software QDA miner, pattern and frequency of words were collected and categorized. Some of the frequent words that appeared in the data were "identity", "experience", and "bilingual". After the initial coding, a second round was conducted to analyze the contextual connections and relationship of the patterns. There were three core pattern codes established in this stage: prior

experiences of literature and art, experiences as a non-native bilingual speaker in the U.S., and affordance of poetry in the ongoing negotiation and reconstruction of identity. Under each of these themes, there are several developed sub-codes to better explain, connect, and explore each main theme. Since Meili already employed translanguaging practices during all three interviews by using both languages, "translanguaging" was also coded and categorized as one of the sub-themes.

Although the terms of "native" and "non-native" speakers are still prevalent in TESOL, this paper will consistently use alternative terms, such as "English monolingual," "English-native bilingual/multilingual," and "English non-native multilingual." These terms are selected to avoid spreading and reinforcing the long-existing binary.

Findings

Prior Experiences of Literature and Art

When international pre-service teachers study in the U.S., their academic ability and knowledge repertoires are usually graded and judged by their English academic writing. This U.S.-centered practice usually neglects the profound cultural and linguistic foundation that these students already established in their native language and culture. The data and findings displayed below showcase Meili's previous life experiences that shaped her knowledge and ability in language and literacy that the U.S. academic practices often overlooked.

Meili's family literacy practice. In the second interview, Meili revealed her family's literacy practices when she was a child. These valuable practices with family members established her early literacy skills in her native language. In the excerpt below, Meili described her family's reading practices with her mother and uncle:

> Once I finished my homework, my mom read books. We were in the same room but doing different things. . . she read the book and I read the book. We shared thoughts together. . . Even now, we still recommend books to each other. . . Sometimes I read with my uncle. (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

This vignette demonstrates that her mother helped her develop regular and constant reading habits in her family. Apparently, through reading books while Meili was doing homework, her mother became a role model for Meili when she was young. They shared their thoughts on books they read. Her mother helped her develop her reading ability and possible critical thinking through book discussion. Through her narrative here, it is not hard to understand that her family offered great literature resources for her to accommodate her reading needs.

Prior experience with literature and cultures of different countries. Because Meili's family fostered a great environment and provided her with resources for her literacy and reading development, she was able to read many translated books from world literatures and cultures, along with developing her literacy in her native language (《 》are used with book titles in Chinese):

> I liked books such as *Little Women*, *Harry Potter*, and *Anne of Green Gables*. And 《黑骏马》 (*Black Beauty*), 《古堡里的月亮公主》 (*The Little White Horse*). And some Chinese books. In middle school, that was numerous! So many. . . like *Jane Eyre*, *Pride and Perjurious*, *Sense and Sensibility*, and *Emma*. *Wuthering Heights*, *Great Expectations*, *Les Misérables*, but all in Chinese though. . . High school, I read some Russian, French, and Japanese literature. I read《安娜. 卡列

> 琳娜》(*Anna Karenin*) and 《复活》 (*Resurrection*). But I don't really like Russian literature. They combined so many descriptions of scenery and the language is kind of obscure. French literature,《羊脂球》 (*Boule de Suif*), 《茶花女》(*La Dame aux Camélias*), 《基督山伯爵》 (*The Counte of the Mounte Cristo*), 还有一些莫泊桑的短片小说集 (And some other short stories from Guy de Maupassant). Japanese literature,《菊与刀》 (*The Chrysanthemum and The Sword*) (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

Her narrative here is an epitome of her experience of foreign literatures and understanding of diverse cultures through reading classics from her native language and other languages. When recalling these books, she also had a short reflection on Russian literature and her understanding of Russian literature back then. This means she connected her prior experience with her literacy and understanding of Russian literature with her present literacy level to make such a reflection. This excerpt also proves that Meili established primary understanding and gained knowledge of literature, languages, cultures, and histories of other countries, being culturally competent. These experiences surely enabled her to understand multicultural materials at a young age.

Early experiences with art and literacy. Similar as books, Meili also had adequate experience with the arts when she was little in both school and home settings. The public schools that she attended helped her with artistic experience:

> We also had writing competition and calligraphy competition. I drew pictures and handwrote for our newsletters. . . I drew pictures that matched my articles and combined them together to make posters (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

Meili's school back then provided many art-related activities to help students develop art experiences as well as multimodal literacy by using multi-semiotic approaches. For example, Chinese calligraphy is a kind of art combined with both literature and art, because writing characters on the paper to make artwork requires the artist's ability of understanding the meanings of characters and content as well as making aesthetically beautiful handwriting at the same time. The combination of pictures, handwriting, and articles in newsletters and posters that Meili made also created opportunities for her to develop multimodal literacy of understanding the pictures and the texts in the process of meaning making.

Poetry, specifically, is another type of the arts that is important to Meili, her family, and other Chinese children according to her narrative:

> when I was in elementary school, we had poem reciting competitions. Teachers liked us to use poems in our writing. So, I always write my favorite lines from poems in my notes and use them frequently in my writing (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

Using poems in her writing seems like a common practice for Meili, which helped her understand the history and culture of her native language and carry the legacy in her own writing. These poems later undoubtedly became a part of her linguistic repertoire and her English poem writing. In her home setting, poetry also had its own priority:

> when I was a kid, my mom taught me how to recite poems . . . when I had summer break, I still remember this, my mom required me to be able to recite one poem every two days. She picked the poems and I really liked them (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

Her mother's requirement of reciting one poem every two days during summer breaks showed the importance and her value of poems in the family. Along with the book reading routine, Meili's mother made many influential decisions on literacy education and art education for her daughter. Besides Meili's prior life experiences, her life experiences in the U.S. are also important components in her English poems.

Experiences as A Non-Native Bilingual Speaker in the U.S.

Collective experiences of Chinese students. Carrying her prior life experiences, Meili came to the U.S. as a graduate student in TESOL and WLE program. As a Chinese student, she found the community in which she found a sense of belonging:

> I got a lot of help from other Chinese students. . . The person who picked me up at the airport. The first day when I was here was New Year's Eve. And my roommates cooked a lot of food for me and helped me with my luggage (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

Within the community of Chinese peers, Meili learned and shared common experiences as a Chinese international student, for example:

> I think we have some similar experiences like the social security number thing. It's like when we first came here, we all don't have social security number and I still remember my first apartment. And we have to pay a-thousand-dollar security deposit. Everyone just does that. (personal communication, September 29, 2019).

In this example, she recalled the experience of paying a higher security deposit for her rent since she did not have the social security number, like all of the other Chinese students (indicated by her use of "we" as heteroglossia and a collective voice) when they first arrived. This experience later appeared in her poem (see Figure 1 above) along with many of her personal experiences. One example of her personal experiences that she included in her poem was an online English teaching job which rejected her application due to her citizenship:

> They said, "We can't hire you, not because like you are Asian, but because you don't have American citizenship." The funny thing is that their customers are Chinese students. I think probably I can do it, because it's teaching Chinese students how to say English, right? (personal communication, September 29, 2019)

From the comment on this experience, it is obvious that she regarded herself as a qualified and eligible candidate of this English teaching job, because teaching English to Chinese kids should be her expertise based on her academic, linguistic, and cultural competence. However, her citizenship became the main reason for the company to reject her. This experience exemplifies the challenges Chinese and other international students have to face in their stay in the U.S. for academic purposes. This kind of hardship is exclusive to international students and immigrants because U.S.-born students, monolingual or bilingual, would not have such concern in the program. This kind of hardship and challenge adds more uncertainty to their stay in the new host country.

Friendship and tension with English-L1 peers. During her stay in the U.S., she had both friendship and tension with U.S. peers. Although some English-L1 peers came from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, they were able to understand Meili's poems during the poetry class. However, not all encounters with classmates were pleasurable to Meili. In the second poetry class, a U.S. English-L1 bilingual peer criticized Meili's grammar in her poem and further created intense tension which aligned with the long-existing binary of nativeness and non-nativeness in the field:

> It's just I feel like she thinks every grammar mistake is because of my English proficiency. That's weird. That's weird. Because I know English is not my native language, so I make mistakes. I accept that fact. But that's not an excuse like she can blame me, or like she can pick my grammar mistakes every time when she saw my poems. Terri is just like she saw this line and she just assumed that I made it because my English is not very good. I don't like it (personal communication, September 29, 2019).

The tension started when the peer, Terri (pseudonym), picked on Meili's grammar use in her English poems. Although Meili admitted and understood her own limitations in writing English poems as a non-native bilingual speaker, she did not think it was acceptable for Terri to criticize her unconventional grammar use every single time. Ironically, Terri herself is also an English native bilingual speaker who has been teaching Spanish for more than a decade in the field. From this scenario, the tension between native speakers and non-native speakers of English still exists in the field. Even English native bilingual educators can spread and repeat such misconceptions in and out of the pre-service training. Since Meili and other students mainly interact with people in the program during the graduate training, it is critical to stop false beliefs in teacher education so that students like Meili can have better experiences in their training.

At the earlier stage of the global pandemic in 2020, Meili also experienced tension and misunderstanding from her colleagues in a U.S. elementary school. As she recalled, her students asked if she had been to China in the last fourteen days in February 2020. When she started taking precautions since she got the information from Chinese media where she learned this virus is extremely contagious, her American colleagues did not think it was necessary:

> They only believe what they want to believe. . . They don't understand why I prepare disinfectant and masks. They don't believe scientific and medical information from other countries… I'm always foreign to them (personal communication, August 10, 2020).

Since COVID-19 was first identified and spread in China, her students inevitably connected Meili and the virus together. As a Chinese native bilingual speaker in the U.S. during this time, she certainly experienced racial related distrust and misunderstanding from her working and living environments. When dealing with these tensions in both academic and professional settings, poetry became a critical tool to record and reflect.

Affordance of Poetry in the Ongoing Negotiation and Reconstruction of Identity

Connecting prior and present experiences. At the point of writing her poem to international students, Meili connected her prior and present experiences in her poems. As discussed above, paying a higher security deposit for rent took place when she first arrived, in the first several weeks. However, the encounter with the online teaching job happened later in her stay.

Thus, in the same poem, Meili connected her earlier experiences and later experiences in one poem to convey the scenarios of her life in the U.S. Her three-semester experiences in the U.S. were composed in each line in the poem, representing the most important moments of her stay in the new host country. By writing this poem, Meili got opportunities to recall and re-experience these events to reflect on hardships and challenges she had as an international student. Many experiences depicted in this poem have tight connections with her identity as an international bilingual speaker, for example, "For realizing even YouTube ads know your race." This line represents how the environment in the U.S. reflects and reshapes her own understanding of her identity as being international and non-native, which might not be the same as her prior experience in China. Living in a homogenous region in China, Meili has never experienced being marginalized and non-native. This new experience in the new host country made her reconsider and reshape her own identity.

Empowering bilingual voices. By writing and teaching poems, Meili's bilingual voice and desire of empowering bilingualism were strengthened in an artistic way: "I want to keep my non-native voice. It's interesting. Sometimes, English is very, very, very, not flexible as Chinese" (personal communication, September 29, 2019). After taking the second course, Meili confirmed that she aimed to have voices from both languages that she can speak in her poems, especially keeping her English non-native voice. The reason behind this goal is based on the inflexibility of English compared to her native language, Chinese. She was able to have this goal because of her knowledge of both languages as a bilingual speaker. After using both languages, she made such choices and goals to keep her non-native voice as a choice of a bilingual poet. This goal could be interpreted that her bilingual voice was empowered through poetry, challenging the voice and standard set by monolingual English speakers.

Enhancing cross-cultural understanding and translingual practice. As Meili started her own teaching in fall 2019 in the U.S. as a full-time Chinese teacher in an elementary school, she used poems in her classes to foster her own and her students' translingual practices to help her students in meaning making:

> I will write the first complete sentence as an example, using both Chinese and English. And then, I will leave some blanks for them to finish. . . One kid wrote "我是 (I'm) Pikachu." And he drew a picture of pikachu, so funny (personal communication, November 27, 2019)!

The method Meili used to teach poems in her classes is truly translingual as well as multimodal just like what she did when she was a kid in her school for newsletters and posters. As a Chinese teacher who can speak both Chinese and English, Meili not only teaches Chinese in her class but also English. For some kids in her classes, Chinese is probably their third language, because 80% students are African Americans, and 10% students are Latinx. Therefore, by learning, writing, and drawing in her classes, students had chances to learn Chinese, as a new language, through poetic and multimodal ways.

At the same time, as a bilingual speaker herself, Meili also respects and encourages students to employ their translingual ability in the school settings:

> I encourage them to use more languages in class. I have some kids who can speak Spanish. So, they were so surprised when I say "*Hola*" and "*Gracias*", and they are so happy. They ask me "How do you know *español*?" I speak Spanish to them, and they use Chinese with me, and usually English. It's a way to improve the relationship between us (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

This implementation has a close relation with Meili's realization of her bilingual identity and the empowerment from poetry. As discussed above, poetry helped Meili realize and be more confident about her bilingual identity as well as the importance of keeping bilingual/multilingual voices. Therefore, Meili is able to resonate with her multilingual students and try to encourage her students to have multilingual practices in academic settings. The practices of translanguaging and poetry in Meili's class strengthen the relationship between Meili and her students even though they are from very different cultural, linguistic, and demographical backgrounds. The multilingual and translingual interactions between Meili and her students further enriched their cross-cultural communication and mutual understanding by using different languages in literacy activities. The relationship between Meili and her students improved since translingual practices made students from different backgrounds communicate better in the classroom. The shared experience of being bilingual/multilingual and English non-native in the U.S. built a bridge for Meili and her students. Using translanguaging and poetry in her first in-service practice in the U.S. have significantly positive transition from her graduate training to full-time career.

Current teaching and imagination of the near future. Poetry in certain ways also serves as a bridge to mediate new challenges she experienced during the pandemic in the U.S. and transition Meili's imagination of her future in China, facilitating her ongoing negotiation and reconstruction of identity as a teacher and bilingual speaker. Before and during the COVID-19 pandemic, she worked as a full-time teacher in an elementary school in the southeastern U.S. and used poems in her Chinese classes. Poetry can be an effective tool for her to reflect on her own teaching and life, as well as her reconstruction of identity as a teacher: "I guess I can put some teaching experiences in my poems in the future. My students were very surprised when they knew I published poems. They asked for copies so they can read after school" (personal communication, November 27, 2019). Before her job at the current elementary school, Meili already put her prior life experiences in her poem, although without teaching themes since she had limited teaching experience. Themes in her poems before are mainly experiences of her childhood, food, and her family (personal communication, November 27, 2019). However, now Meili plans to include her own teaching experiences and her transnational experience in both countries in her future poems as accumulated present experiences.

Meanwhile, her poems also help Meili and her students build community in- and after-class. Since her students were surprised that Meili writes and publishes poems, they would like to ask for copies to read after school. In this way, a close relationship could be established through poetry reading and discussion (personal communication, November 27, 2019) from more diverse multilingual perspectives. In addition, reading Meili's poem may help her students better understand her not only as their teacher but also an individual with multifaceted identity (e.g., bilingual, international, teacher, poet, etc.).

Another important function poetry has is helping Meili with her desired identity in the near future. Due to the severe COVID-19 situation, visa uncertainty, and discrimination against Asians and Asian Americans during the pandemic, Meili made the decision to go back to her home country. Obviously, this is another major challenge and change in both her life and career. As Dewey (1934/2005) points out, this could be one of the transformative experiences of self-development and self-growth assisted by the arts. Scholars have also regarded poetry as therapeutic in the present time. From a psychological perspective, "Poetic words not only forge links between the writer's voice and the mind and heart of an individual reader, but also provide connection among members of a community" (Chavis, 2011, p. 13). Hedges (2005) also notes that poetry "can give

us a sense of identity with the mood or thoughts or feelings of the poet . . . it broadens out our experience and helps us understand that some experiences . . . poetry also expresses affirmation and inspiration and offers hope" (p. 2). Echoing these points from scholars in both education and psychology, Meili also considers poetry one of the best ways to document this unusual life-changing decision and this unprecedented time with her international and bilingual perspective for both international, multilingual, Chinese, and educator communities. She also asserts that poetry will also exist in her future classrooms when she goes back to China to teach English as one of the most powerful tools for language and literacy education: "Poetry is a good way to express self and who we are. It's a good way to teach, especially young children. They are the hope of the world's future. I can see that from them" (personal communication, August 10, 2020). She imagines and expects poetry in her classes to add more therapeutic creativity and possibilities for students in her classes. As an emergent bilingual herself, she feels happy about such possibilities and hopes that she could bring into teaching. Her imagination about changes she could make soon also reveals the self-agency and self-confidence she gained from poetry.

Discussion

Poetry as a Vessel to Connect Prior and Present Experiences

Meili has been developing and expanding her linguistic and cultural repertories since she was young with help from her family and her teachers. From Chinese poetry and art to international literatures, Meili sharpened her cultural competence and literacy skills through literacy related activities. These prior literacy experiences later became resources to support her academic performance in the U.S. or materials for her English poems. The literacy practices her family and schools implemented in her childhood were also reformed and implemented in her classes in an elementary school in the U.S.

In terms of her experiences as an international bilingual, poetry gives Meili a space to record, think, retrospect, heal, and relive in those moments when she had hardships and challenges. To be able to write collective or shared experiences of Chinese students' experiences in the U.S., Meili also brings in the collective voices of Chinese students in her poems to make a more solid reflection on the unique phenomenon of studying abroad as Chinese students. More Chinese students' prior and present experiences were intertwined and combined in her poems for readers from different backgrounds. Poetry makes it possible to make human connections regardless of the different backgrounds that the poet and readers have.

Reconstructing Identity and Imagining the Near Future through Poetry

From her reflection during and after writing poems, Meili also pushes forward for identity reconstruction as a new teacher in the U.S. or soon in China. Although this process of reconstruction is an ongoing process, Meili understands what kind of teacher she absolutely does not want to be based on Terri's reaction in the second poetry class. Due to the tensions with English native peers during their training, Meili learned that unconventional grammar use in bilingual writer's creative writing is more like a choice instead of a mistake. Simply judging grammar mistakes in teaching and learning loses the opportunity to help multilingual learners add their voice in their writing. Meanwhile, such critiques could also hinder learners' development of self-agency and self-growth.

Additionally, Meili combined poems and multimodal literacy in her poetry teaching with her students in the U.S. who are also bilingual, emerging bilingual, or multilingual learners. By

drawing and reading poems, her students had chances to learn Chinese, learn poetry, and have positive relationships with her. Such transformation has transformative impacts on both the teacher and students. The affordances of poetry and multimodal literacy help Meili move forward to her goal of being a teacher who can let students have fun and learn at the same time (personal communication, November 27, 2019).

Translanguaging Practices in Multiple Settings

Meili also explained how she uses poetry in multiple settings. In her personal life, poetry is a way of recording her prior life experiences, her life in the U.S., and some arrangements done by her family to help her settle once she goes back to China. Writing poems becomes a kind of relief and healing as she said, "It's actually a kind of self-relief, because sometimes I feel really hard to work, to study, and to learn how to get used to American things. So, it's kind of relief. It's kind of growth" (personal communication, August 10, 2020). However, writing these personal experiences and emotions in English poems requires her constant translingual practices as a bilingual writer. In her classes, she also teaches poetry to help students from different backgrounds express themselves and have conversations in an aesthetic way to embrace and develop students' translanguaging, multilingual skills, and identities. She thinks to write bilingual poems and to teach students to be creative writers disrupts both rigid language standards set by monolingual native speakers in the U.S. as well as rigid teacher-centered classroom culture from China. Poetry becomes a hybrid space between two countries and two cultures.

Disrupting Problematic Standards of Nativeness and Empowerment

The tension between Meili and another English-native bilingual peers in the poetry class also displays the dichotomy of nativeness and non-nativeness, although the peer herself is bilingual as well. However, since Meili chose to keep her non-native voice in her poems, her word choices and language use as a bilingual poet questions and challenges the standards set by English native speakers, which is not flexible to bilingual speakers in the U.S. in the process of meaning making. Confronting this tension is not an easy process for Meili, because she regarded experienced English native peers as role models in the field when she entered the program. Therefore, the huge transition from respecting to challenging shows the empowerment assisted by poetry in disrupting the problematic binary and standard by English native speakers, both monolingual and bilingual English-L1 native speakers. After this epiphany, Meili found a sense of self-agency in her poems as an emergent bilingual teacher poet who has potential to make changes in the field. Through the artistic approach, she found a way to push back the boundary of defining qualified and skilled teacher in the field and bring in more justice in the program and field for other pre-service or in-service bilingual/multilingual and international teachers.

This case study with Meili further proves Dewey's (1934/2005) theory of art as experience that reshapes people when people carry challenging moments in their life into arts-based approaches to achieve self-development and growth. Through poetry, Meili re-experienced and mediated the hardships she has been through in the U.S. as an international bilingual speaker in her program and her job. The process of creating artworks empowered her bilingual voice and agency as a graduate student and novice teacher. Most importantly, this transformation gives her confidence and hope in her future career, believing that she can bring positive learning experience to her students as a bilingual teacher-poet. Her creative poem writing offers her resources to negotiate, reconstruct, and imagine the desired identity she wants to shape as a teacher.

Conclusion

This study testifies the troublesome concept of nativeness and non-nativeness that many educators still hold in the field of TESOL and WLE. The negative judgement regarding non-native bilingual/multilingual teacher candidates as deficient and inferior better illustrates the importance of more arts-based approaches in teacher education for social justice and the embrace of bilingualism/multilingualism. Meanwhile, it is also an urgent necessity to find effective solutions from art to help international bilingual/multilingual students adjust to the new environment in the new host country during and after the pandemic.

This analysis also showcases benefits of arts-based educational research in future arts-based research to expand educators' understanding and knowledge of the field, teaching, and learning (Mulvihill & Swaminathan, 2019). Future studies could also use the approach of different kinds of art to explore the affordance of art in TESOL programs for social justice and meaningful changes.

This case study also has some limitations. Although Meili's poems and reflections consist of many collective experiences of Chinese students, future studies on the same topic should recruit more participants to further explore the collective and individual experiences of Chinese and other international students in the TESOL and WLE programs in the U.S. The final impact of COVID-19 on international and multilingual students deserves continuous attention in future research.

References

Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Multilingual Matters.

Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Hwang, Y. (2019). Poetic habits of minds in TESOL teacher preparation. *Language and Education*, *33*(5), 399–415. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2018.1540634

Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Siegesmund, R. (2018). *Art-based research in education: Foundations for practice* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Zhang, K. (2018). The arts and TESOL. In J. I. Liontas & M. DelliCarpini (Eds.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1–6). Wiley Press. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235

Cahnmann-Taylor, M., Bleyle, S., Hwang, Y., & Zhang, K. (2016). Teaching poetry in TESOL teacher education: Heightened attention to language as well as to cultural and political critique through poetry writing. *TESOL Journal*, *8*(1), 70–101. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.263

Carnagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaing. *The Modern Language Journal*, *95*(3), 401–417. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x

Chavis, G. G. (2011). *Poetry and story therapy: The healing power of creative expression*. Jessica Kingsley.

De Costa, P. I., Singh, J. G., Milu, E., Wang, X., Fraiberg, S., & Canagarajah, S. (2017). Pedagogizing translingual practice: Prospects and possibilites. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *51*(4), 464–472.

Dewey, J. (1934/2005). *Art as experience*. Penguin.

Educational Testing Service. (2018). *Test and score data summary for TOEFL iBT tests*. https://www.ets.org/s/toefl/pdf/toefl_tsds_data.pdf

Eisner, E. W. (2002). What can education learn from the arts about the practice of education? *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, *18*(1), 4–16.

Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2019). Language proficiency development of non-native English-speaking teachers (NNEST) in an MA TESOL program: A case study. *Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language, 22*(4), 1–16. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1204612.pdf

García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Wiley-Blackwell.

García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism, and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Hanauer, D. I. (2003). Multicultural moments in poetry: The importance of the unique. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *60*(1), 69–87. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.60.1.69

Hedges, D. (2005). *Poetry, therapy, and emotional life*. Radcliffe.

Hwang, Y. (2016). *Poetry writing for creative second language education: Artist-teacher identity (re)construction of international TESOL educators through poetry-based learning* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia]. UGA Electronic Theses and Dissertations. https://getd.libs.uga.edu/pdfs/hwang_yohan_201612_phd.pdf

Kamhi-Stein, L. D. (2013). Preparing non-native professional in TESOL: Implications for teacher education programs. In G. Braine (Ed.). *Non-native educators in English language teaching* (pp. 145–158). Routledge.

Mahboob, A. (2010). *The NNEST lens: Non-native English speakers in TESOL*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Mulvihill, T. M., & Swaminathan, R. (2019). *Arts-based educational research and qualitative inquiry: Walking the path*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315143361-8

Nguyen, M. X. N. C. (2017). TESOL teachers' engagement with the native speaker model: How does teacher education impact on their beliefs? *RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 48*(1), 83–98. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217690066

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Routledge.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford University Press.

Qi, W., Wang, K. T., Pinus, A. L., & Wu, L. Z. (2018). Interpersonal problems and acculturative stress over time among Chinese international students from Mainland China and Taiwan. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, *9*(3), 237–246. https://doi.org/10.1037/aap0000119

Richards, R. D. (2017). Young children's drawings and storytelling: Multimodal transformations that help to mediate complex sociocultural worlds. In M. Narey (Ed.), *Multimodal perspectives of language, literacy, and learning in early childhood* (pp. 127–147). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-44297-6_7

Samimy, K. K., & Brutt-Griffler, J. (1999). Revisiting the colonial in the postcolonial: Critical praxis for nonnative-English-speaking teachers in a TESOL program. *TESOL Quarterly*, *33*(3), 413–431. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587672

Received: August 15, 2020 | Accepted: September 30, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020

Teaching Media Literacy to ESL and EFL Students in the Age of COVID-19

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 48–58
ISSN: 2331-6845

Joshua Gaston
Webster University

Abstract
Media literacy education is a field that is fraught with disagreement over definitions, approaches, principles, and purposes, but teaching media literacy is arguably needed now more than ever before, especially for ESL and EFL students. From the research available, it appears as though many ESL and EFL students are not taught media literacy in their home countries. Additionally, much of the research that does exist in regards to teaching media literacy to ESL and EFL students focuses on forms of media that are no longer relevant to most learners. Since ESL and EFL teachers support the development of their students' English-language skills, it is justifiable that at least some of the responsibility of media literacy education should fall on their shoulders. The widespread transition to virtual learning as a result of COVID-19 presents a unique opportunity for ESL and EFL teachers to teach media literacy to their students. However, because this period also presents numerous challenges to the public's collective media literacy skills, it is imperative that teachers integrate media literacy education into their pedagogy.

Keywords
media literacy, ESL, EFL, COVID-19

Background

Media literacy has been recognized as a necessary set of skills for students to develop for 21st-century life and work (Battelle for Kids, 2019). While there have been disagreements over definitions and approaches (Hobbs, 2011), modern conceptualizations of media literacy include a type of 'critical' approach (Hobbs, 2005), including those applied to ESL and EFL classrooms. However, there seems to be a scarcity of research regarding best practices for teaching critical media literacy to ESL and EFL populations in spite of their being a population potentially more prone to English-language misinformation and disinformation. Furthermore, what research is available does not address the current media literacy crises involving internet-mediated technology, and especially that of social media. Considering both the importance of accessing reputable streams of information during the COVID-19 pandemic and the sudden transition from face-to-face learning to virtual and online learning, the author will advocate for teaching ESL and EFL populations critical media literacy by engaging them on the very online media platforms they use in their everyday life.

Definition

Media literacy can be difficult to define. However, Aufderheide and Firestone's (1993) definition of media literacy as "the ability of a citizen to access, analyze, and produce information for specific

Joshua Gaston teaches media literacy at Webster University, Webster Groves, MO; email gaston.joshua@gmail.com.

outcomes" (p. 6) sets a foundation for the future development of media literacy. One definition that was derived from Aufderheide and Firestone's definition states that media literacy is "the ability to access, analyze, evaluate and communicate messages in a wide variety of forms" (Hobbs, 2004, p. 43; Martens, 2010, p. 2). While this is the most prominently used definition of media literacy today, many researchers and organizations continue to expand upon it. The Center for Media Literacy, for example, states that media literacy "builds an understanding of the role of media in society as well as essential skills of inquiry and self-expression necessary for citizens of a democracy" (Jolls & Thoman, 2008, p. 22).

Many researchers have adapted their definitions of media literacy to add aspects of critical literacy. According to Hobbs (2005), most modern conceptions of media literacy now involve a "type of 'critical' literacy based on reflection, analysis, and evaluation, not only of the content and structural elements of the specific media texts but of the social, economic, political, and historical contexts in which messages are created, disseminated, and used by audiences" (p. 866). This definition of media literacy rejects an apolitical approach to media literacy education and necessitates that students engage media through a sociohistorical lens in which they can explore "how power and information are always linked" (Share, 2015, p. 14).

Approach

Since many modern conceptions of media literacy so often involve a type of "critical" literacy (Hobbs, 2005), it is no surprise that critical media literacy is the dominant approach to teaching media literacy. While there are at least four distinct approaches to teaching media literacy (Kellner, 1998), only critical media literacy will be addressed for the purposes of this article since it seems to appear most prominently in the literature for both general student populations and for ESL and EFL student populations.

Share (2015) argued that critical media literacy is the only approach to media literacy education that can "help marginalized students see the structures of oppression, analyze the role of hegemony in shrouding those structures, and find agency in the act of becoming subjects who can express their voices to challenge racism, sexism, classism, and all forms of oppression" (p. 42). Essentially, Share and others believe that critical media literacy is the only approach that has the potential to empower students.

This approach has direct applications to ESL and EFL students, and especially those who come from marginalized communities. One exemplary use of critical media literacy education with ESL students was described in Choudhury and Share (2012). In this study, Choudhury asked Los Angeles middle school students, most of whom were Hispanic and over one-third were English language learners, to analyze and critique representations of their communities in newspaper images. The students were then tasked with walking through their communities and taking photographs, interviewing people, and writing notes. Subsequently, they analyzed that data and co-constructed alternative representations of themselves and their communities. This study and others, such as Arikan (2002), Gruba (2007), Grigoryan and King (2008), and Hobbs et al. (2015), show the transformative and empowering potential of a critical approach to media literacy education for ESL and EFL populations.

In spite of the studies mentioned above, there is a limited amount of research on approaches to integrating media literacy education into ESL or EFL classrooms. Nonetheless, the critical media literacy approach that Share, Hobbs, and other researchers advocate for does indeed seem to be the approach that is most often applied by ESL and EFL-context researchers. However, what literature is available focuses on using source texts from outdated forms of media for today's young

learners, such as TV or print media. If young English language learners are going to develop modern media literacy skills and become responsible and critical consumers of media, then they must be engaged with media they most often access in their everyday lives. Recent studies have demonstrated that the media literacy issues most pertinent to today's young learners are not as relevant to TV or print media; instead, they are most relevant to digital and social media.

Current State of Media Literacy

The current issues in media literacy should still have as much to do with "analyzing the politics of representation of crucial dimensions of gender, race, class, and sexuality" (Share, 2015, p. 14) as they did before, but the most pressing problems are more rudimentary: students of all ages simply cannot differentiate between reputable and disreputable sources or between information and misinformation online.

Stanford researchers McGrew et al. (2017) reported rather disheartening results from their research into the media literacy skills of American middle school, high school, and college students (7,804 student responses total). When tasked with distinguishing between a site's news stories and native advertising (advertising that is made to look like editorial content), nearly 70 percent of high school students believed that the native advertisement was authentic content. Only 25 percent of high school students could distinguish between verified and unverified sources on Facebook, even though a blue checkmark is used to identify verified sources on that platform. Lastly, college students were tasked with comparing the websites of two organizations of pediatricians, one reputable (The American Academy of Pediatricians) and another one a splinter group that exists on the fringes (American College of Pediatricians). More than half of the college students concluded that the latter, designated as a hate group by Southern Poverty Law Center, was the more reliable source. These were college students from what has been one of the most prestigious American universities since its founding in 1885: Stanford University.

The issues of media literacy among middle school, high school, and university students highlighted by McGrew et al. (2017) are even more serious when considered with other recent research. Recent Pew Research data showing that, among American teenagers aged 13–17, 45 percent self-reported being online "almost constantly" (Anderson & Jiang, 2018, para. 1). Furthermore, 78 percent of Americans under the age of 50 are now getting their news through social media (Shearer & Gottfried, 2017). What these three studies tell us is that young learners are spending a majority of their lives online, that they get a majority of their news online, and that they do not have the media literacy skills to identify reputable sources or valid information.

Despite all of the above suggesting an exigent need for media literacy education, there is "no standardized national curriculum or curricular guidance in the United States for media literacy, nor is there dedicated funding for supporting teacher professional development in this area (Lemish, 2015; Potter 2013). Rather, there are several states who have statewide standards related to media literacy (He, 2019) and most teacher training in media literacy takes place at the grassroots level (Bulger & Davison, 2018).

It is unclear to what extent the above studies included ESL student populations, if at all. Unfortunately, there do not seem to be much research available regarding the internet and social media usage, news-gathering methods, or media literacy skills of ESL and EFL populations. However, Bakla's (2019) study of the digital nativeness and productivity among 97 Turkish EFL university students and 30 American ESL university students shows that nearly all participants had access to the internet and nearly half of all participants used the internet 3 to 4 hours a day. What is more, the study showed that 20 percent of the EFL students and 43 percent of the ESL students

spent 5 hours or more a day on the internet. Although Bakla's (2019) study was rather small and not focused on the students' media literacy skills, it demonstrated that ESL and EFL students spend a great deal of their time online.

State of Media Literacy Education for ESOL Populations

As mentioned above, there simply does not seem to be large-scale data regarding the internet and social media usage, news-gathering methods, or media literacy skills of ESL and EFL populations. However, according to Lessenski's (2019) research with the European Policies Initiative of the Open Society Institute of Sofia, there is a wide disparity of media literacy within the European Union as it concerns resilience potential to fake news. The index Lessenski created shows Turkey and most Balkan countries scoring much lower than Northern European countries such as Finland, Denmark, and the Netherlands. Thus, it is apparent that at least a subset of ESL and EFL students may be in desperate need of the same modern media literacy skills that the students in McGrew et al.'s (2017) study so severely lack.

There appears to be little information or research into the existence or extent of media literacy education outside of European and Western, English-speaking countries (Share, 2015), such as New Zealand, the UK, Australia, and the United States. As one example, Argentina has been cited for having a media literacy program that went national in 2000 and which now exists in every primary and secondary school (Share, 2015). In Finland, primary and secondary school students examine and interpret media messages, engage in critical analysis of media messages, and learn how to "develop their own independent opinions about messages transmitted in mass media" (Lederer, 1988, para. 2). Hong Kong was also noteworthy in having 200 schools and organization which had media education programs by 2003 (Share, 2015).

To reiterate, there does not seem to be a prevalence of evidence suggesting that most countries even have media literacy education integrated into their national curricula. The reasons for the lack of widespread media literacy education are manifold, but this is all the more reason for ESL and EFL educators to integrate media literacy education into their language instruction.

Need for Media Literacy Education for ESL and EFL Students

There are three primary reasons why media literacy education is so important for ESL and EFL students. The first reason why it's so important for ESL and EFL learners is that media literacy education does not seem prevalent in most countries. Considering that nation-wide or nationally mandated media literacy education seems largely relegated to Central, Northern, and Western European and Western English-speaking countries based on the literature available, it could be inferred that media literacy education is not being conducted in many other countries around the world. Therefore, ESL and EFL students may not be exposed to media literacy-integrated curricula in their respective public educational systems.

The second reason is interrelated with the first. There are now more speakers of English who speak it as an additional language than those who speak it as a first language. It is estimated that 1.75 billion people speak English at a "useful" level which is approximately 1 in 4 of the world's population. It is a far greater number than the combined population of all Western English-speaking countries that one commonly thinks of as English-speaking countries, including the Australia, the UK, and the United States among others (Neeley, 2012). This means that there are millions and millions of students who learn English as an additional language and have the linguistic tools necessary to access endless amounts of information in the target language. The primary reason that this is important is that if their students are developing their linguistic abilities

to access English-language information and they have no educational background in media literacy, then they may be left prone to misinformation and disinformation once they have they have achieved a functional level of language proficiency.

The third reason why media literacy interrelated with the previous two. Based on the evidence available, it seems that young ESL and EFL students exhibit much of the same behaviors as other young learners: they spend much of their time online and access much of their information through social media (Anderson & Jiang, 2018; Bakla, 2019; Shearer & Gottfried, 2017). Furthermore, one survey found that fifty percent of teenagers are getting their news from YouTube and sixty percent of those teens say they are more likely to get their news from "celebrities, influencers, and personalities rather than from news organizations utilizing the platform" (Common Sense Media, 2019, para. 3). By default, therefore, young ESL and EFL students could be accessing more misinformation and disinformation from disreputable sources on a daily basis compared with their parents or older members in their communities.

Approaches to Critical Media Literacy for 21st Century ESL and EFL Learners

Unfortunately, there simply does not seem to be much research regarding best practices on teaching critical media literacy to ESL or EFL students in the way that centers media as it is currently conceived as a multi-platform, multi-directional stream of information primarily accessed through the internet and predominantly through social media.

First, it is important to note that it is insufficient to teach EFL and ESL students *with* media. They also need to be taught *about* media (Arikan, 2002). This is an important distinction to make. ESL and EFL educators often ask students to engage with authentic texts (articles, advertisements, videos, and audio segments) to examine textual characteristics, develop receptive skills, or to analyze the discourse. However, educators more rarely use media to teach students *about* media. For students to understand the ways in which the media operates, and how it can be used for malicious purposes, they need to be taught *about* the media: how media messages are constructed, how those messages represent ideologies and promote certain values, and how the form is intertwined with those constructions. Furthermore, teaching students *about* media needs to be focused on digital media in order to fit how students most often access information.

As mentioned earlier, the majority of research and descriptions of teaching practice regarding media literacy for ESL or EFL students seem to be focused on teaching students to take a critical approach toward representation and messaging in older forms of media, like TV and newspapers. For example, Grigoryan and King (2008) asked their student participants to engage magazine advertisements with adbusting, the practice of creating satirical advertisements that mimic the form but subvert the message. Hobbs et al. (2015) also used print advertisements to develop the critical thinking skills of new immigrants to the United States. Although the use of Facebook, Twitter, and WeChat for utilizing digital platforms to promote media literacy was recommended, these platforms were not part of the study. Choudhury and Share (2012), as previously mentioned, empowered disenfranchised students by teaching them to analyze and critique media representations of themselves and their communities and also to create alternative representations. While their critical media literacy approach was effective in empowering students, the source material came from newspapers — a medium that is increasingly lacking in relevancy to young learners. Finally, Quinlisk (2003) focused on the mediums of TV and film to develop media literacy skills among ESL and EFL students while Park (2011) used articles from *The New Yorker* to encourage critical literacy, which, although not exactly the same as critical media literacy, is very similar.

It is imperative that rather than contextualizing media literacy education in print or broadcast media, it should be re-contextualized in social media for students. If learners are no longer accessing information through newspapers, magazines, TV, or radio, then those are not relevant mediums for educators to be teaching media literacy with. As Buckingham (2003) so prophetically stated, "the proliferation of media technologies, the commercialization and globalization of media markets, the fragmentation of mass audiences, and the rise of interactivity are all fundamentally transforming our everyday experiences of the media" (p. 310) and this has created "a widening gap between young people's worlds outside school and their experiences in the classroom" (p. 312). If educators are to reduce this gap between young people's experiences with media outside of school and in school, and truly prepare students to be media literate for the 21st century, then ESL and EFL teachers must do away with the magazines, newspapers, and TV and instead ask their students to engage with podcasts, Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, and Tik Tok.

Furthermore, the focus of the critical approaches described in the research above also seem to be somewhat out of touch with students' most pressing and foundational media literacy needs. While there is certainly value in focusing on critiquing ideology, representations, and power relations as part of students' critical media literacy development, the pedagogical focus must shift to start at a more basic issues of accessing reputable information, identifying misinformation and disinformation, analyzing for bias and omission, and evaluating sources. From there, the students could take the critique deeper and "[analyze] the politics of representation...of gender, race, class, and sexuality" (Share, 2015, p. 14).

As an example, one could re-contextualize Choudhury and Share's (2012) study to fit with learners' current media literacy needs. Instead of analyzing representations of their communities in newspapers, students could engage in a similar process by engaging with social media posts about their communities made by businesses, organizations, groups, and/or individuals. First, they could identify misinformation, bias, or omission in the posts and the accompanying comments. Afterward, they could take the analysis deeper to understand how misinformation, bias, or omission was used to express hegemonic representations and reinforce structures of oppression. Finally, the students could co-construct new representations by collecting the same kinds of data from their community that they did in the study, but instead use the data to create podcasts, tell digital stories, or even engage in online activism.

Essentially, in order to address the needs of today's ESL and EFL students, it is necessary for instructors to take critical media literacy approach which engages learners on media platforms that they use in their everyday life. The approach should begin with developing more foundational media literacy skills such as identifying bias, analyzing evidence, and evaluating sources. Then, teachers can ask students to engage in a deeper critical analysis of the digital media which explores the structures of oppression and politics of representation. Finally, students can co-produce their own digital media in order to counteract misinformation, challenge hegemonic representations, and ultimately, empower themselves. The current pandemic offers both opportunities and challenges for engaging in this very process.

Media Literacy Education During the COVID-19 'Infodemic'

While a considerable proportion of the world has been bunkering down in order to defend themselves against COVID-19, *everyone* in the world is getting blasted with a constant stream of information regarding it. The World Health Organization and the United Nations has called this an "infodemic," referring to the onslaught of misinformation that has been spreading about COVID-19 since nearly the beginning of the pandemic (United Nations, 2020). Moreover, an endless

information supply chain through social media and other mediums has been the source of new fact-based developments and scientifically-supported guidelines about COVID-19, but also conspiracy theories and scientific quackery.

As one example of the latter, a video entitled *Plandemic* became viral on social media. The claims found in this video have been ripped to shreds by more rational, evidence-based corners of the internet (Fichera et al., 2020; Shepherd, 2020). This is only the latest in a series of conspiracy theory phenomena regarding COVID-19 that have quickly rippled their way through social media. If people are overwhelmed with information while caught in the "infodemic", and at least some of that information is made of mixed messages, false narratives, or bogus theories, even from those that the public has traditionally trusted, then it can be difficult to determine which sources to trust. Since there is simply so much information about COVID-19 available, and so much of it being tentative, it can be quite a tedious task sorting through it all not just to determine what information is most relevant and beneficial but also to determine which information is accurate or true. It is time-consuming and energy-draining just to stay up-to-date with the constantly-changing situation much less to make sure to get the most accurate information.

Considering that this infodemic, with constantly-changing facts among unsubstantiated conspiracy theories, is the reality for the foreseeable future — and considering the wildly different narratives that the public seem to be aligning themselves with — it seems like an opportune time for ESL and EFL students to hone their media literacy skills and for teachers to consider how they may nurture those skills in their students. As teachers and administrators around the world scramble to transition to online learning or other forms of distance learning (Meliboeva et al., 2020), it provides an opportunity to engage and develop students' media literacy skills in the very place they tend to use them the most often these days: the internet (Khalid, 2019).

Teaching Media Literacy in the Current Situation

Despite the number of issues that teachers, administrators, and institutions have had rolling out a sudden transition to distance learning, educators' current reliance on online learning is a perfect opportunity to teach media literacy skills to ESL and EFL students.

An Ideal Time for Media Literacy Integration

There is a tremendous amount of stress involved in having to suddenly redesign and re-appropriate curricula for an online format like so many teachers have done or are currently doing. Additionally, curricula are not always flexible or malleable enough to be able to integrate the development of a skillset like media literacy. However, it could be an ideal opportunity for ESL and EFL students to explore issues of credibility, biases, and contextualization as part of the development of their media literacy skills.

For example, how might a media institution whose owners and/or reporters support reopening the economy show their bias in their online reporting on the science behind COVID-19? What ideologies are being reinforced by that institution's reporting? How might an individual's social media posts decrying shelter-in-place orders or mask-wearing requirements indicate political beliefs and cultural values? What narratives are fake online news sources manufacturing and what may be their motivations for doing so? These are some guiding questions that could be used in ESL and EFL classes to engage students in critical media literacy on digital platforms.

Ideas for Teaching Media Literacy Online During the Current Crisis

Even while educators are engaged in online teaching as a result of the pandemic, there are in-class activities to support the development of ESL and EFL students' critical media literacy-related skills. One important aspect to reiterate prior to exploring ideas for teaching critical media literacy in the current environment is the idea of focusing on media platforms that students use instead of traditional mediums like newspapers and magazines that are no longer commonly engaged by young learners. As discussed above, students are engaging with platforms like Twitter, Instagram, Tik Tok, and YouTube.

Of course, the appropriateness of the following prescriptions will differ depending on the age, skills, knowledge, and the digital literacy of the students, but below are some basic ideas for getting started with teaching critical media literacy online for any course. They start with more foundational skills of identifying, move to analyzing and evaluating sources, followed by a more critical analysis and evaluation of representations and ideologies, and rounded out by a media production to counteract misinformation and empower students.

First, instructors can lead students through online articles about COVID-19 (or other timely issues) while using Zoom or other types of videoconferencing software. Instructors can start by simply using the *share screen* feature and encouraging their students to observe or notice the search results that appear from a search about COVID-19 or another topic. Which websites look more reputable based on their accompanying URLs and short descriptions? Next, instructors can also spend an entire lesson just asking students to analyze images and headlines from articles and evaluating how the image operates as an element of the article. The instructor can ask the students why the image or headline provokes specific feelings, why it provokes those feelings, and what intent the author or organization had in using that image or headline to provoke those feelings. Alternatively, students can do the same with images taken from social media posts on Instagram or Facebook.

Third, students can annotate images and articles using Zoom. While an instructor is sharing an article, students can highlight or underline loaded language, they can add questions or comments about questionable or unexplained claims, or they can add links to other sources that verify claims made in the target article. Instructors can then give their students a more challenging annotation assignment by using Thinglink (thinglink.com). Thinglink is one app that can be used to annotate images. Not only can you annotate with comments and questions but you can also annotate with videos, links, or other photographs, demonstrating the interconnectedness of media and information. Students can use Thinglink to link to sources that provide support for the truthfulness of an image or the accuracy of an informational meme. They could link to news reports on YouTube that do the same. Additionally, they make a video or audio recording of themselves responding to the image.

After using Thinglink, students can use Padlet (padlet.com) to collect data. Padlet is an app that acts as a digital bulletin board. Instructors and students can post messages, images, videos, and links. Additionally, its interactivity allows for upvoting and for comments. There are a variety of ways that Padlet can be used to teach media literacy. For example, you can task students with finding photos that have been photoshopped and spread on social media as misinformation or disinformation. Students can use reverse image finders like TinEye (tineye.com) or Google's own reverse image search (labnol.org/reverse) in order to find the original. Since a Padlet board can have multiple sections, a teacher could create sections entitled "True", "Mostly True", "Misleading", and "False" to categorize the different media messages that the students find. This

allows learners to co-construct a database of knowledge surrounding a subject they are investigating.

Following the construction of their Padlet database, students can begin a critical analysis by investigating the ideological underpinnings and hegemonic representations in the media that they have collected. Students can be tasked with reviewing the media they collected on their Padlet in order to consider who is behind the messages, what values are being expressed in the messages, who benefits from the messages, and how might different people interpret the messages differently. Instructors can ask students to explore Wikipedia pages and other sources that would provide background knowledge on the values and ideologies of institutions and authors of the media they are investigating.

After their critical analysis of their collected data, students can create their own informational memes using Canva (canva.com) or a similar digital design platform. Students can be tasked with creating one informational meme with completely accurate information and then a similar one with slightly (or wildly) inaccurate information. Students can send one another their memes to one another via Zoom or a learning management system (LMS) and then fact-check each other's memes while also critically analyzing the assumed values or ideologies of the meme.

Finally, students can include their Canva memes as part of a multimedia presentation through Loom or another screen-casting or video-producing app. These presentations can present their research and the evidence they collected on a particular topic regarding misinformation or disinformation, how they critically analyzed the assumed values and representations behind it, and discuss what further steps could be taken to counteract or subvert the original message. These are only a few possibilities for engaging learners in order to develop their critical medial literacy skills during this uncertain period of virtual learning.

Conclusion

Considering the current COVID-19 'infodemic' and the proliferation of misinformation and disinformation on social media, it is clear that the current primary objective of critical media literacy education should be for the purposes of combatting misinformation and disinformation. Recent studies have shown us that there is a severe lack of basic media literacy skills around the world that is having dire and dangerous effects on people, including ESL and EFL students. It calls for a return to teaching foundational media literacy skills, but within the context of social media and other digital technology favored by young learners. However, this foundation should be understood as a springboard for engaging students in deeper, critical analyses of representations, ideologies, and power structures.

The current pandemic period provides both opportunities and challenges for this to be accomplished. Teachers can take advantage of the sudden transition many of us have made to virtual learning by engaging learners in the very platforms with which they use to access information and entertain themselves. The challenges are manifold in that new scientific research regarding COVID-19 is constantly coming to light, contributing to the 'infodemic,' and leaders are disregarding the opinions of experts and calling into question their credibility.

It is uncertain just how long the COVID-19 pandemic will last. However, what the last five years, and especially the last six months, has made certain is that it is absolutely imperative that educators integrate media literacy into ESL and EFL curricula and practices. Teaching students media literacy skills during this uncertain time will benefit them in the short-term as they protect their health and the health of those around them, but it will also benefit them in the long-term as they continue to engage social media to access information for the foreseeable future.

References

Anderson, M., & Jiang, J. (2018, May 31). Teens, social media & technology. *Pew Research Center*. https://www.pewresearch.org/internet/2018/05/31/teens-social-media-technology-2018/

Arikan, A. (2002). Critical media literacy and ESL/EFL classrooms. In L. M. Semali (Ed.), *Transmediation in the classroom: A semiotics-based media literacy framework* (*Counterpoints*, Vol. 176, pp. 113–124). Peter Lang. https://www.jstor.org/stable/42977175

Aufderheide, P., & Firestone, C. (1993). *Media literacy: A report of the national leadership conference on media literacy.* Queenstown, MD: Aspen Institute. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED365294.pdf

Bakla, A. (2019). A study of digital nativeness and digital productivity: Data from EFL and ESL contexts. *MOJET: Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *7*(1), 15–33. https://doi.org/10.17220/mojet.2019.01.002

Battelle for Kids. (2019). *Framework for 21st century learning*. https://www.battelleforkids.org/networks/p21/frameworks-resources

Buckingham, D. (2003). Media education and the end of the critical consumer. *Harvard Educational Review*, *73*(3), 309–327. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.73.3.c149w3g81t381p67

Bulger, M., & Davison, P. (2018, February). *The promises, challenges, and futures of media literacy*. Data & Society Research Institute. https://digital.fundacionceibal.edu.uy/jspui/handle/123456789/227

Choudhury, M., & Share, J. (2012). Critical media literacy: A pedagogy for new literacies and urban youth. *Voices from the Middle*, *19*(4), 39–44. https://library.ncte.org/journals/vm/issues/v19-4

Common Sense Media. (2019, August 12). New survey reveals teens get their news from social media and YouTube. https://www.commonsensemedia.org/about-us/news/press-releases/new-survey-reveals-teens-get-their-news-from-social-media-and-youtube

Fichera, A., Spencer, H. S., Gore, D., Robertson, L., & Kiely E. (2020, May 8). The falsehoods of the 'plandemic' video. *Fact Check*. https://www.factcheck.org/2020/05/the-falsehoods-of-the-plandemic-video/

Grigoryan, A., & King, J. M. (2008). Adbusting: Critical media literacy in a multi-skills academic writing lesson. *English Teaching Forum*, *46*(4), pp. 2–9. https://americanenglish.state.gov/files/ae/resource_files/08-46-4-b.pdf

Gruba, P. (2007). Exploring media literacy research in Australian ESL contexts: A review paper. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, *2*(2), 167–191.

He, H. (2019). Media literacy education and second language acquisition. In R. Hobbs, & P. Mihailidis (Eds.), *The international encyclopedia of media literacy*. Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118978238.ieml0125

Hobbs, R. (2004). A review of school-based initiatives in media literacy education. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *48*(1), 42–59. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764204267250

Hobbs, R. (2005). The state of media literacy education. *Journal of Communication*, *55*(4), 865–871. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.2005.tb03027.x

Hobbs, R. (2011). The state of media literacy: A response to Potter. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *55*(3), 419–430. https://doi.org/10.1080/08838151.2011.597594

Hobbs, R., He, H., & Robbgrieco, M. (2015). Seeing, believing, and learning to be skeptical: Supporting language learning through advertising analysis activities. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(3), 447–475. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.153

Jolls, T. & Thoman, E. (2008). *Literacy for the 21st century: An overview & orientation guide to media literacy education* (2nd ed.). Center for Media Literacy. http://www.medialit.org/reading-room/literacy-21st-century-overview-orientation-guide-media-literacy-education

Kellner, D. (1998). Multiple literacies and critical pedagogy in a multicultural society. *Educational Theory*, *48*(1), 103–122. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-5446.1998.00103.x

Khalid, A. (2019, October 3). American can't stop relying on social media for their news. *Quartz.* https://qz.com/1720695/pew-study-shows-more-americans-rely-on-social-media-for-news/

Lederer, L. (1988). *What are other countries doing in media education?* Center for Media Literacy. http://www.medialit.org/reading-room/what-are-other-countries-doing-media-education

Lemish, D. (2015). *Children and media: A global perspective*. John Wiley & Sons.

Lessenski, M. (2019). *The Media Literacy Index 2019: Just think about it*. European Policies Initiative, Open Society Institute–Sofia. https://osis.bg/?p=3356

Martens, H. (2010). Evaluating media literacy education: Concepts, theories, and future directions. *JMLE: Journal of Media Literacy Education*, *2*(1), 1–22. https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/jmle/vol2/iss1/1

McGrew, S., Ortega, T., Breakstone, J., & Wineburg, S. (2017). The challenge that's bigger than fake news: Civic reasoning in a social media environment. *American Educator*, *41*(3), 4–11. https://www.aft.org/sites/default/files/ae_fall2017_fake-news.pdf

Meliboeva, N., Patrinos, H., & Teixeira, J. (2020, April 24). Uzbekistan: A timely response on learning during school closures. *World Bank*. https://blogs.worldbank.org/europeandcentralasia/uzbekistan-timely-response-learning-during-school-closures

Neeley, T. (May 2012). Global business speaks English. *Harvard Business Review.* https://hbr.org/2012/05/global-business-speaks-english

Park, Y. (2011). Using news articles to build a critical literacy classroom in an EFL setting. *TESOL Journal*, 2(1), 24–51.

Potter, J. (2013). Review of literature on media literacy. *Sociology Compass*, *7*(6), 417–435. https://doi.org/10.1111/soc4.12041

Quinlisk, C. C. (2003). Media literacy in the ESL/ESL classroom: Reading images and cultural stories. *TESOL Journal*, *12*(3), 35–40.

Share, J. (2015). *Media literacy is elementary: Teaching youth to critically read and create media* (2nd ed.). Peter Lang Publishing.

Shearer, E. & Gottfried, J. (2017). News use across social media platforms 2017. *Pew Research Center: Journalism & Media*. https://www.journalism.org/2017/09/07/news-use-across-social-media-platforms-2017/

Shepherd, M. (2020, May 7). Why people cling to conspiracy theories like 'Plandemic.' *Forbes*. https://www.forbes.com/sites/marshallshepherd/2020/05/07/why-people-cling-to-conspiracy-theories-like-plandemic

United Nations. (2020). UN tackles 'infodemic' of misinformation and cybercrime in COVID-19 crisis. https://www.un.org/en/un-coronavirus-communications-team/un-tackling-'infodemic'-misinformation-and-cybercrime-covid-19

Received: August 23, 2020 | Accepted: September 21, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020

Engaging Adult English Language Learners in Distance Education: An ESL Program's Experience During the COVID-19 Pandemic

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 59–69
ISSN: 2331-6845

Mary Baxter
Georgia Piedmont Technical College

Abstract
Traditionally, adult English as a Second Language (ESL) programs, also known as English as an Additional Language (EAL), deliver instruction through in-person classes rather than distance education, as was the case at Georgia Piedmont Technical College (GPTC). However, due to the global COVID-19 pandemic, distance education became a tool used at GPTC to engage students in learning while school campuses were closed. This paper gives details about how administrators, instructors, and staff at GPTC quickly built a distance education program for adult English language learners in response to the pandemic, including resulting challenges, insights, and successes. Research on the topic of distance education and its possible benefits for adult English language learners is explored in order to inform the efforts of building this type of program. The information provided can help guide other adult EAL programs seeking to incorporate distance education for adult English language learners.

Keywords
adult ESL/EAL programs, language program administration, English language learners, distance education

Background

On Thursday, March 12th, we were in the midst of a robust and successful adult English as a Second Language (ESL)[1] program at Georgia Piedmont Technical College (GPTC). Our program consisted of day and evening classes and our building housed students from 8:30 in the morning until 9:00 at night most days. With 43 paid instructors, administrators, and staff and approximately 700 students, we were one of the largest adult English as an Additional Language (EAL) programs in the state of Georgia. Our student population consisted of immigrants and naturalized citizens who had been in the U.S. for many years as well as recently arrived refugees and immigrants. Students represented more than 50 countries and more than 70 languages. Educational experiences covered the spectrum, from students with graduate degrees to students with interrupted or no formal schooling. On March 12th, aside from normal classroom instruction, our staff was planning 2020 Census activities, working to incorporate digital literacy in each class, connecting volunteer

[1] The official name of the school is Georgia Piedmont Technical College's ESL Program. Therefore, the term ESL is used in coordination with the program name while the term EAL is used elsewhere in the paper as a recognition that English may not be a student's second language but an additional language to several already learned.

Mary Baxter is an ESL program supervisor at Georgia Piedmont Technical College, Clarkston, GA; email baxterm@gptc.edu.

tutors with students, and preparing for our program's annual International Fashion Walk and Talent Show. When classes were dismissed on March 12th, staff had no way of knowing that none of these preparations would come to fruition, nor did we have the opportunity to prepare our students for the drastic changes they were about to experience.

Friday, March 13th brought the sudden, but not entirely unexpected, news that due to COVID-19 in-person classes would not resume on Monday. The news prompted a scramble to quickly develop and implement a fully online EAL program to serve as many students as possible. This paper details that process and our staff's efforts to create an inclusive distance education (DE) environment that serves our students in the midst of a global pandemic. It shares our staff's experiences and draws from research about DE in order to provide insights into building a DE program for adult English Language Learners (ELLs). For the purposes of this paper, DE is defined as "…the delivery of instruction to students who are separated from the instructor, using some type of technology to support regular and substantive interaction between the students and instructor, synchronously or asynchronously" (McCain, 2009, p. 10).

Literature Review

Diversity is inherent to an EAL program. Students have a variety of backgrounds and identities including age, religion, education, occupation, cultures, learning ability and motivations (Eyring, 2014). Students also have a wide array of learning styles, which can vary depending upon a student's background and cultures (Eyring, 2014). Because of this diversity, inclusivity and equity are fundamental to a successful program. This is especially true in the current climate of racial tension, policies against minoritized populations, including immigrants, and growing divisiveness:

> At present, a strong anti-immigrant sentiment has resurfaced in the country…The new immigration policies are negatively impacting immigrants living and arriving in the United States…This anti-immigrant sentiment has generated anxiety and confusion among immigrants who are afraid of being deported. Even immigrants who are legal residents fear losing their jobs or their work permits. (Larrotta, 2019, p. 54)

Students of diverse backgrounds need a safe and inclusive environment that supports rather than hinders language acquisition. While this is most often considered within the traditional classroom, DE programs can also serve to foster inclusivity and participation by offering accessibility, varied and relevant content, and opportunities for autonomy and self-directed learning. The administrative team of GPTC sought to capitalize on these strengths in order to engage as many students as possible when transitioning to DE during the pandemic. At the same time, the team recognized that DE is not a perfect solution for all students.

A common assumption is that adult ELLs are unable to access DE due to age or lack of access to a computer or the Internet (McClanahan, 2014). There are, however, many ways these students can engage in DE learning, beginning with their personal devices. In the United States, 81 percent of adults now own a smartphone and "smartphone ownership is relatively common among Americans of different economic, educational and racial and ethnic backgrounds" (Anderson, 2019, para. 10). This wide ownership of smartphones suggests many ELLs may have access to DE via their phone even if they do not have a computer or tablet, provided that the DE is designed to be accessible via smartphone. It also suggests a level of comfort with a technological device because smartphones are likely readily available and already familiar to students (McClanahan, 2014). Another benefit to the smartphone is that it can provide connectivity for adults who have no access to traditional broadband. Many people now rely on their smartphone

instead of broadband to access the Internet (Anderson, 2019). As a result, our administrative team and instructors selected platforms that worked well with smartphones, acknowledging that this is how a majority of our students access the Internet. However, as we discovered, despite having access to such devices students often ran into technical difficulties when attempting to participate in DE via these devices.

In addition to the potential accessibility of DE via smartphone, DE is capable of providing engaging and interactive content that can appeal to learners of diverse backgrounds and experiences. This is in part due to the scope of available content. According to McCain (2009), "technology does provide access to a far wider range of material than is available from a bookstore, library or school, and frequently at low or no cost to the individual" (p. 13). While many instructors in classroom settings may depend on textbooks, the DE environment necessitates instructors finding a variety of material to use with students, including audio, video, and interactive activities. As the awareness that many people use smartphones to access online content increases, more materials are designed to be accessible via smartphone and thus can be used by students on their personal devices. Our program administrators and instructors took advantage of this diverse online content and identified varied synchronous and asynchronous material to offer to our students.

Another benefit to DE is the relevance it has in the lives of students. Increasingly, social interaction is taking place via technology and ELLs need to learn how to navigate technology in order to participate (Nisbet & Austin, 2013). DE can help students develop a knowledge of both language and technology by incorporating authentic materials such as email, videos, podcasts and phones, which in turn provide opportunities for connecting language learning to authentic communication (Huang et al., 2011). Our staff used technology both as an instructional tool and as a means to communicate with students, particularly in regard to smartphones and email. It is important to acknowledge, however, that not all students want to participate in technology and may find it intrusive or unnecessary, which can lead to DE programs being inaccessible to these students. This was the case for some of our students who did not want to participate in DE despite having the technology.

Finally, DE has the potential to promote autonomy, motivation, and self-guided learning by giving learners varied opportunities for participation (Ally et al., 2007; Eyring, 2014; Nisbet & Austin, 2013). One of the reasons is due to the frequent access students have to their personal devices, although this access can be constrained by factors such as having to share the device with other family members (Pettitt, 2017). This availability allows students to interact with instructional content from any location, and as they progress through material and achieve success they may be more motivated to continue their learning (Ally et al., 2007). Many asynchronous online platforms are accessible by personal devices and allow students to complete work on their own time, according to their own schedules, and around the responsibilities of other commitments. Instructors can provide various activities and opportunities for students to accomplish work outside of the synchronous classroom and students can self-pace and self-direct their learning. At GPTC, administrators hoped that moving to a DE program would give students additional opportunities for autonomous and self-directed learning beyond the traditional classroom setting, particularly through the offering of asynchronous material, and would motivate them to continue studying during the pandemic.

DE can be an asset to students and EAL programs by engaging students in these ways and thereby fostering inclusivity. It must be viewed as a viable instructional method. As McCain (2009) states, "evidence abounds that distance education offers increased flexibility, cost-effectiveness, and successful outcomes, but until the classroom is no longer viewed as the focal

point for all learning, significant change . . . will not occur" (p. 19). In the case of GPTC, the pandemic forced staff to shift our perception of the classroom as the focal point to embracing DE as an effective instructional method. The remainder of this paper details our staff's efforts to bring our program online and what we learned in the process.

Program Administration Successes

A vital component to any program's success is administration. GPTC's ESL program has a strong administrative team of five full-time staff that worked collaboratively to make the transition to DE classes possible. The administrative team recognized the need to capitalize on the strengths that were already in place. We initially accomplished this transition in two ways. The first was to use existing teacher and student relationships. Administrators were prepared to call and email students and explain our DE classes to them but determined that it would be more efficient and effective for each instructor to reach out to his or her own students. By doing this we believe we received a greater response from students.

Second, administrators drew on instructor and staff strengths and expertise. When we transitioned to DE in March, we were able to maintain the positions of only three of our 25 instructors due to the low number of participating students. We gave all instructors the opportunity to apply and then selected three instructors who were flexible, creative, and demonstrated a high comfort level with technology. These instructors were already regularly incorporating technology into their classes and were able to shift easily to teaching online. They were also creative and self-motivated to develop their own online curriculum. In addition to the instructors, staff stepped up in various ways to brainstorm how to move processes online or how to redesign processes to fit the DE environment, such as student intake and testing. Each person was eager to participate and saw the circumstances as an opportunity rather than as an insurmountable obstacle.

When GPTC transitioned to DE classes, our staff went from 43 employees consisting of 38 part-time instructors and staff and five full-time administrators to eight employees consisting of three part-time instructors and five full-time administrators. In building our DE program, administrators gradually added back staff and instructors as our student numbers increased rather than trying to maintain the same or a similar number of classes and staff as we had with in-person instruction. Once the need for another instructor or staff member became evident, we opened the opportunity to those who were not teleworking and they had the chance to apply to join as a DE instructor or staff member. As of August 2020, we have 19 employees, an increase that took place over four months.

One of our administrative team's first tasks when transitioning to DE was to create a working student database that helped us track student contact efforts and enrollment. Pulling the initial data from the Georgia Adult Learners Information System (GALIS) into a working spreadsheet, which included student names, class levels, and contact information, we then added columns to track new phone numbers or emails, whether or not the student had been contacted and enrolled in class, and the student's access to technology, such as a computer or smartphone and Wi-Fi. Administrators housed the database in a central drive that all staff had access to, and as staff heard from students, we updated the spreadsheet. This became a helpful tool in all our contact efforts and record keeping and is a form that we continue to work from as we connect with additional students.

When starting DE classes, the majority of instructors taught in the morning with the exception of a couple of afternoon classes. The morning classes were to mirror the program's original morning class schedule, although the DE classes were shorter, and the afternoon classes

were scheduled based on student availability. As our student numbers increased and administrators added instructors and classes, we scheduled synchronous classes based on instructor availability. We had classes at 10am, 12pm, 12:30pm, 1pm, 2:30pm, 6pm, and 8pm. However, this soon proved to be too difficult for our staff and the students to keep up with, and fewer students were available in the afternoons. In hindsight, our administrative staff should have established a strong schedule at the onset of DE classes rather than deciding what to do with each class as we added it. We have since reorganized our schedule to be more clearly structured into nine mostly morning and evening classes that start and finish at the same time.

In order to create a robust DE presence, we as administrators knew we needed to offer not only classes but all program services, including intake and testing. Therefore, our staff worked hard to create DE processes for these services. Intake staff piloted a new student enrollment procedure for the Technical College System of Georgia (TCSG) which has now become our regular system for enrolling new students. This process includes registration appointments using the video conferencing tool WebEx (webex.com) during which intake staff take screenshots of student documents, go over our school documents and have the student electronically sign, and review all student information in GALIS. If classes are in session during a registration appointment, intake staff will often show the class to a new student by entering the class session and sharing the screen with that student. The new student then receives a welcome email from the instructor with information about joining the class.

Staff members are also administering the BEST Plus 2.0 speaking test once again to our students, which we did not have the capacity to do when we first moved to DE. Test administrators are either meeting students during a registration appointment or scheduling appointments throughout the day to conduct both pre- and post-tests. Similar to registration, the test is administered via WebEx using methods approved by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), creator of the BEST Plus 2.0 test.

GPTC's ESL program has been successful at DE because it was built with long-term goals and vision rather than as a short-term stop gap measure. Instead of giving up on our program and resigning ourselves to the seemingly impossible task of engaging adult ELLs in DE, our staff and instructors rose to the challenge, going above and beyond in effort and creativity to assemble and implement a fully DE program. The administrative team's vision is that this will not only benefit the program and students during the pandemic, but will broaden the scope of our program when we are finally able to return to in-person instruction.

Student Contact Efforts

One of the first challenges staff faced was contacting students to notify them of our DE classes. As stated above, our staff and instructors were unable to prepare our students for this shift but instead had to reach out to them once the move to DE classes had been made. Our first effort was simply to notify students that we would not have class that following Monday, March 16th. The administrative team spent most of Friday and the weekend calling and texting students to tell them not to return to school the following week. Our subsequent contact efforts were focused on bringing students into our DE classes. This process took place in three phases:

Phase I – Our initial efforts focused on what we termed 'low-hanging fruit.' Administrators focused on higher-level students we could easily contact and encourage to come to DE classes. Four of our five administrative team members began contacting students by phone and email. We chose to start with these students because they had a strong grasp of the English language and were able to communicate easily, and also because most of them were comfortable

with and had access to Wi-Fi and a computer or smartphone. Students responded quickly and positively and were soon participating in the new DE classes. Another effort during this phase involved our instructors. They each contacted the students from their classes to explain our developing DE program. This allowed us to reach students quickly across all levels and begin developing DE classes to meet the demand of students interested in DE. In addition, our instructors had a stronger rapport with their students than the administrative team did, and we believe we received more responses as a result.

Phase II – During the first phase, staff heard from many students who wanted to participate in DE classes. However, the numbers of participating students were much smaller than those who originally expressed interest. We therefore went back to our student database, identified students who were not yet attending but who had expressed interest, and reached out to them again. Not only did we call to tell them about classes, but we also took extra measures to assist students with understanding the technology and how to enter classes, which are discussed later in this paper. We believe these efforts brought more students into our program.

Phase III – Having focused on higher-level students during the first two phases, the final efforts of staff consisted in calling through the remainder of our student database, primarily intermediate and lower levels, and encouraging them to join classes. For our lower-level students, this often involved speaking with multiple family members and having bilingual staff make phone calls to students whose languages with which they were familiar. If our staff did not speak a common language with a student and no bilingual family members were available to assist, the effort often involved numerous phone calls to that student with creative explanations for how to access the classes. As before, we began with the higher levels and gradually moved to the lower levels, knowing that the lower-level students would require more time and effort. An unexpected benefit to this method was that we as staff grew in our understanding of how to communicate with students regarding DE so that by the time we reached the lower-level students we had identified wording and techniques that allowed us to more easily engage them. While we had students participating from all levels by June 2020, we recognize that we still have not engaged many students, especially our pre-literate students.

Contacting over 700 students required a great deal of work, but it was rewarding to see students via online platforms and watch them re-engage in English language learning. Communicating with students by phone or email also gave them the opportunity to engage in authentic language use via technology. Administrators recognize, however, that despite our efforts many students remain unengaged and either unable to access classes or unwilling to participate in DE. When speaking with many of them by phone, they tell staff that they want to wait until in-person classes resume. This is not because they have tried DE classes and disliked them, but because they prefer in-person classes and do not want to try DE classes. Students' attitudes about the usefulness of DE, therefore, can preclude them from participating in classes. Our current students can help change these attitudes as they spread the word about the dynamic classes. Many students have asked to join DE classes not because of a phone call from GPTC staff, but because of what they heard from other students.

There is still much for our staff to learn with regard to engaging students in the DE environment. One of our recent challenges is student attrition. Staff members who contacted students to inquire why they have stopped attending were most often told that the cause is being unable to connect. Therefore, even though DE can be more accessible to students because they can participate via smartphones both synchronously and asynchronously, that accessibility is largely dependent upon overcoming technical difficulties. As a possible solution, administrators plan to

open the computer lab on campus for two days each week with safety protocols in place to provide a space where students can meet with an instructor to resolve technical problems that have been unresolved via phone call or email. Another possibility for administrators to explore is equipping higher-level students to assist lower-level students and pre-literate students with whom they share a common language with accessing DE.

Curriculum and Learning Platforms

Another challenge administrators faced when moving to a DE program was the selection of curriculum and online platforms. We needed asynchronous programs that provided EAL content, were easily accessible to students, and tracked student hours. We needed synchronous programs that were intuitive for both instructors and students and facilitated classroom dynamics. Finally, we needed programs that were free of cost because neither our program nor the students had the resources to pay for subscriptions or memberships.

Prior to the pandemic, when offering in-person instruction, a majority of our instructors used the Ventures curriculum from Cambridge University Press. It provided a framework for our classes at each level, helping our instructors maintain consistency. Instructors had student books, instructor manuals, and access to online materials such as additional handouts and activities. When administrators implemented DE classes, some of these materials were still useful for some instructors and students, but they no longer met the needs of all. Instructors therefore had to deviate from their traditional materials and develop web-based curricula that included synchronous and asynchronous instruction. They were able to draw from the variety of online resources, including videos, images, and websites, that were easily integrated into DE.

Synchronous Instruction

When administrators and instructors began setting up DE classes, we did not have any experience with video conferencing platforms. In order to select a platform that was user-friendly for our students, who sometimes had beginning-level digital knowledge in addition to being ELLs, we experimented with several before selecting. We looked at popular Internet platforms such as Skype (skype.com) and Zoom (zoom.us), as well as WebEx, which was provided by our college. After working with the various features available with these platforms, we decided to begin our DE classes using Zoom. We chose Zoom because the features it offers (such as breakout rooms and polling) created multiple methods for engaging students and because it was easy for students to access. They did not need an account but could simply follow a link they received by email in order to access the class. While getting students onto Zoom sometimes proved to be a challenge due to device incompatibility or the time needed for students to become familiar with the platform, once everyone learned the process and resolved compatibility issues there were few problems.

Shortly after beginning Zoom classes, administrators were notified of potential security concerns and encouraged to discontinue usage. Around the same time, TCSG made Collaborate (blackboard.com/blackboard-collaborate) available, which is a video conferencing tool used in conjunction with Blackboard, a Learning Management System. Collaborate offers features similar to Zoom that facilitate engaging DE classes, including breakout groups, polls, and file sharing. Moving students to Collaborate after they were comfortable with Zoom was challenging. Students had to familiarize themselves with a new platform and staff had to help them make their device compatible with Collaborate by instructing them on how to update permissions and settings. Administrators and instructors were able to gradually move our students to the new platform, but

having to change platforms with our students reinforced the importance of researching and establishing the appropriate platform before onboarding students.

Asynchronous Instruction

It was important for administrators to identify ways for students to accumulate student contact hours, which drive funding for the program. DE class times were initially greatly reduced from in-person class times and fewer students participated. We therefore needed an asynchronous component in order to increase student contact hours and give students additional learning opportunities. We hoped that by adding this component our students would have more autonomy in their learning and be able to self-direct their studies in a way that best fit their needs. We had two classes that easily incorporated asynchronous instruction in addition to the synchronous classes, while increasing contact hours.

First, GPTC was already piloting an online curriculum with Burlington English (burlingtonenglish.com) before the pandemic began. That class moved seamlessly to DE due to the instructional content being web-based. A major benefit to the program is that it includes built-in student lessons that track student hours spent outside of class. Students had been introduced to the student lessons while still in the physical classroom, and they were able to continue this work remotely in order to accumulate more contact hours. As of the writing of this paper, administrators plan to expand the use of Burlington English to other classes for fall 2020.

Another class that transitioned well to the DE environment and includes asynchronous learning was our Integrated Digital English Acceleration (I-DEA; sbctc.edu/colleges-staff/programs-services/i-dea) class. This is a curriculum that integrates digital literacy and English language learning into one course. It is a flipped classroom model in which students complete assignments before the lesson is taught. Under non-pandemic conditions, the material is presented in the classroom by displaying web-based content on a smartboard, and this portion of the class was easily moved to a DE classroom via a video conferencing platform. Students in this class had been using school laptops as a part of the curriculum, which also facilitated their transition to the DE environment. In-class assignments became online homework assignments that allowed students to accumulate contact hours.

For the remaining classes and instructors, a platform was needed that gave students English practice while tracking their hours and that was no cost to our budget or our students, as described earlier in this paper. Administrators settled on a program that some of our students had already used on campus for computer lab practice and that was approved by TCSG for tracking student hours: USA Learns (usalearns.org). USA Learns is a free program with four courses that provide beginning and intermediate English practice. According to the website, the curriculum includes videos and activities that focus on "listening comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, pronunciation, reading, writing, speaking and life skills" (Sacramento County Office of Education, 2020, para. 1). The site also has a citizenship course that helps immigrants prepare for the naturalization interview and civics test. It was a significant benefit that many of our students were already familiar with the program as this helped with the onboarding process.

One of our DE instructors spent the first week of telework aligning USA Learns content to our class levels. While the program offers only beginning- and intermediate-level English courses, the citizenship course covers a higher level of English and was appropriate for our higher-level classes. Instructors who did not already have an asynchronous component to their curriculum assigned homework in USA Learns and then incorporated some of the material into synchronous instruction, along with instructor-created materials.

USA Learns allows instructors to create an account and assign a class key to each English course in the program. Students can then enroll in the instructor's course using that class key and the system reports the hours and progress of each student. Realizing it would be difficult for our lower-level students to create accounts and enroll in specific courses, we created their accounts for them using their personal email addresses and a common password which we then shared with them along with instructions on how to access the classes. This process reduced confusion for the students, ensured that all students were enrolled in our classes and having their progress tracked, and gave staff the ability to update student accounts or help students make changes. Our higher-level students were given detailed instructions on how to create an account and enroll, which gave them practice with authentic English language use. These students were able to access USA Learns and enroll in our courses on their own.

Overcoming Technology Barriers

An inherent challenge of using technology to deliver instruction is the prevalence of technical difficulties. Like other adult education programs moving to DE during the pandemic, our staff had to learn flexibility and patience as we dealt with our own technology issues as well as those of our students. We learned how to share important information and to stay connected, whether by video call, email, chat or phone call. This helps us to maintain the same vision and goals and to align our work efforts.

While our school staff had our own challenges with technology, they are modest compared to the learning curve our students faced when joining DE classes. For most of them, DE was a new experience and we knew we would need to offer a great deal of support to help students develop the digital literacies necessary to succeed in this modality. Technology difficulties such as unfamiliarity with devices and programs or device incompatibility, coupled with the lack of a common language and an inability to see students' screens in order to provide support for whatever they were attempting, presented challenges during the onboarding process. Through the process, however, we discovered several ways of providing assistance that proved beneficial to students and helped them to access classes.

One of the most effective methods for helping students was done before we even introduced them to DE platforms. Administrators and instructors spent ample time on each platform, familiarizing ourselves with how the platforms operated on computers, tablets, smartphones and other devices to better understand and prepare for guiding students through the various experiences. For example, if an instructor tells a student that icons are on the bottom of the screen, this may be true on a computer but may not necessarily be the case on a smartphone. This step also helped administrators to select platforms, knowing that a large portion of our students only have Internet access via smartphones. Finally, while experimenting with various platforms we made notes of what issues might arise with students so that we would be able to help them with those issues. These problems included selecting the best web browser, giving permission for programs to access the features on a personal device such as the camera and microphone, understanding and using links, and accessing email accounts.

Having an email account was particularly important because it was the way GPTC staff sent links and class websites to the students. Many students had family members who let them use their email address if the student did not have one, but there were also scenarios in which staff helped to create new accounts for students. A staff member spent several days working with one particular student to set up an email account and teaching the student how to access that account, all by phone. It was an arduous process but the student felt included and validated by the time

spent on it and was better equipped to participate in DE. If a student had an email address, staff were able to use that method to correspond and show the student how to access other platforms. For example, when trying to encourage a student to use the Chrome web browser (google.com/chrome) because another browser was not compatible with a particular platform, a staff member emailed the student pictures of the Chrome icon along with a link to download the browser. This was done while attempting to explain the process by phone. Upon receiving the email, the student then understood what was meant by "web browser" and "the program you use for the Internet." Staff would often use email and phone calls to explain to a student how to access a video conferencing call if they were unable to access it on their own. Once students successfully accessed video calls, we were able to share our screens and explain other platforms and websites such as USA Learns.

Another method that proved successful was working with students individually outside of class to identify and troubleshoot issues. In order to do this, instructors often had other staff members on standby during class hours to assist students. If a student was unable to access the class or had other problems and contacted the instructor, the instructor was then able to refer the student to the designated staff member for help so that the class was not disrupted. We were able to help many students access their DE classes as they were being conducted using this method.

Finally, with the student's permission, staff found family members of students to be useful in our efforts to help students access their class. This was especially true of students at beginning levels of English and even more so for students at beginning-level digital literacy. Many teenage or adult children or other household members would be able to speak with GPTC staff and then work with the student to accomplish the task at hand. If there was not a family member at home who could help, we at times enlisted the interpretation help of a higher-level student who spoke the same language, provided that both students gave their permission.

During our first several weeks, instructors and staff spent many hours working with students to overcome technological challenges. We still have those interactions occasionally, although they are less frequent. During these interactions it is important to maintain patience and to be willing to think creatively in order to explain a concept in different ways. Throughout this process, our view has been that if a student wants to participate, we can make it happen no matter the challenges. This vision for supporting students who desire to and are able to attend English classes helped sustain our staff during long and sometimes exasperating phone calls and email chains and ensured that we maintained an inclusive environment regardless of students' prior experience with technology. The result is that as of the writing of this paper, we have had close to 300 students participate in our classes, almost half of our pre-pandemic population.

Conclusion

While the pandemic shut down GPTC's in-person classes, creating incredible challenges, it also facilitated new opportunities for expanding beyond the status quo and creating innovative solutions to meet students' needs. In order to transition our ESL program to DE, administrators relied on the strengths and expertise of instructors and staff and we exercised patience and creativity when working to engage students. We also maintained the strong central vision that we were developing a long-term DE program that will continue even after in-person classes resume, rather than offering DE classes as a stop-gap measure during the pandemic. As we experienced, with work from program staff and instructors, DE can be accessible to many students with various devices and flexible enough to accommodate their schedules and competing priorities. Additionally, via DE, our instructors can incorporate a wide range of content and learning opportunities through

synchronous and asynchronous instruction with the hope of promoting student autonomy and self-directed learning. Challenges remain, however, and GPTC staff continue to seek ways to engage additional students, prevent attrition, address technical issues and counter assumptions that in-person classes are more effective and that DE participation is too difficult. We will continue to work together and grow in our understanding of how to serve ELLs through DE for the remainder of the pandemic and beyond.

References

Ally, M., McGreal, R., Schafer, S., Tin, T., & Cheung, B. (2007, October). *Use of mobile learning technology to train ESL adults*. Proceedings from the 6th International Conference on Mobile Learning, Melbourne, Australia. Canadian Council on Learning. https://www.academia.edu/32256655/

Anderson, M. (2019, June 13). *Mobile technology and home broadband 2019*. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/internet/2019/06/13/mobile-technology

Eyring, J. L. (2014). Adult ESL education in the US. *The CATESOL Journal*, *26*(1), 120–149. http://www.catesoljournal.org/volume-26-1/

Huang, J., Tindall, E., & Nisbet, D. (2011). Authentic activities and materials for adult ESL learners. *Journal of Adult Education*, *40*(1), 1–10.

Larrotta, C. (2019). Immigrants learning English in a time of anti-immigrant sentiment. *Adult Literacy Education, 1*(1), 53–58. https://doi.org/10.35847/clarrotta.1.1.53

McCain, M. (2009). *The power of technology to transform adult learning: Expanding access to adult education & workforce skills through distance learning*. Council for Advancement of Adult Literacy. https://tcall.tamu.edu/twcael/docs/pdf/power_of_tech.pdf

McClanahan, L. (2014). Training using technology in the adult ESL classroom. *Journal of Adult Education*, *43*(1), 22–27. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1047373.pdf

Nisbet, D., & Austin, D. (2013). Enhancing ESL vocabulary development through the use of mobile technology. *Journal of Adult Education*, *42*(1), 1–7. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1047363.pdf

Pettitt, N. (2017). *Social positioning in refugee women's education: A linguistic ethnography of one English class* [Doctoral Dissertation, Georgia State University]. https://scholarworks.gsu.edu/alesl_diss/42

Sacramento County Office of Education. (2020). *English courses*. USA Learns. https://www.usalearns.org/free-online-english-courses

Received: August 14, 2020 | Accepted: September 22, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020

Empowering Language Learning Strategies Online

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 70–79
ISSN: 2331-6845

Melissa Aberle-Grasse
Georgia Institute of Technology

Abstract
English language educators faced challenges unique to their discipline as well as difficulties shared with all teachers as they suddenly adjusted to 100% online learning environments in 2020. Language learning strategies (LLS), which are proven strategies for improving language learning as well as building self-efficacy and peer support (MacArthur et al., 2015; Rose et al., 2018), are presented here as tools to navigate this new challenge. The article opens with a brief review of several acute current needs of online learners that critical pedagogy and learning strategies may address. Next, the author provides concise definitions for language learning strategies and summarizes the historical and theoretical basis for LLS. A classroom-based case study of language learning strategy instruction (LLSI) then follows. Finally, online tools and methods for two key strategies, goal-setting and peer review, are provided with recommendations for applying these strategies in a variety of settings.

Keywords
language learning strategies, critical pedagogy, self-regulation, peer review, goal-setting

Background

In my English as an Academic Language writing class, comprised entirely of multilingual learners, peer review days are among the liveliest. I remember one instance in February 2020, the jostling of chairs and laughter, attentive reading, and friendly conversations; everyone participated that day, even those faltering on their research-based persuasive essay. This demonstrated the self-regulated language learning strategies (LLS) I taught, which research has long documented are effective and teachable (e.g., Cohen & Griffiths, 2015; Dörnyei, 2005; Rubin, 1975). Among my colleagues and I, strategy instruction is frequent in our breakroom chats, with questions like: How can I creatively teach peer review? What helps struggling listeners more: attending to intonation or to key terms?

Then came March 2020 and an abrupt shift to 100% remote instruction amid COVID-19. I'll never forget when Joe (pseudonym) appeared with disheveled hair and a blank look in our online classroom in early April. Typically, he was a meticulous, successful student, so I contacted him. He said: "Honestly, I can't sleep . . . I can't work. I'm just having a hard time. My flight home has been cancelled several times, and my family is worried, so I don't leave my room." Suddenly, what seemed important as educators was reduced to: get through the curriculum the best we can and support ourselves and our students' urgent needs. L2 learners in the U.S., and many globally, have experienced exponentially the losses of this pandemic: lost connection with family, future security, sometimes the respect of their community amidst anti-foreign racism (Lingnan University, 2020).

Though it may seem counterintuitive, distance teaching amid this crisis highlights the value of language learning strategy instruction (LLSI). Strategy-based instruction can help us attend to

Melissa Aberle-Grasse teaches in the Language Institute at the Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA; email melissa.grasse@pe.gatech.edu.

two critical human needs right now: the need for control and the need for community. First, the need for control: As Davidson (2020) wrote, the first priority of educators during COVID-19 should be: reckon with the trauma, which she explained "means thinking about access in all its dimensions: technological, intellectual, personal, financial, medical, educational. And cognitive. Distraction is the single biggest deterrent to learning. Physical and emotional distress are the single biggest causes of distraction we have" (para. 5). One simple way to address the acute stress is by teaching strategies that increase a sense of self-efficacy (Artino & Stephens, 2009; Mastan & Maarof, 2014; Nguyen & Gu, 2013).

Second, the need for community, for genuine human connection that involves laughter and trust as well as skill development, is acute for most of us these days. Creating that online is not easy. In *Minds Online*, Miller (2014) cited research that dispels the myth that online interaction necessarily divides us. Conversely, Miller emphasized recent research which demonstrates that online communication clouds the emotional aspects of communication and tends to foster insensitive behavior due to the perceived anonymity of remote communication. The book explained how educators should scaffold strategies for avoiding these pitfalls of teaching online. LLS, from embodied tactics to culture-conscious peer review, can foster supportive relationships and a trusting atmosphere. These strategies can ease the self-consciousness intensified online which might block the freedom to make mistakes.

Perhaps this disruption invites us even to relinquish some aspects of our control in the classroom, to move toward critical pedagogy's aim of critiquing power structures in society and in the classroom (Norton & Toohey, 2004). This could mean small changes in our behavior that communicate respect instead of control, such as our gut reactions when a student enters class late or makes repeated mistakes (Weaver, 2020). Or L2 instructors may consider broader implications of applying Freire and later proponents' ideals through critical language pedagogy (Morris, 2017). For instance, students can be systematically led to identify and select their own learning strategies; learning outcomes could be allowed to emerge throughout the course.

Whether to attend to current student needs or to take a more radical approach to student-led curricula, LLSI offers practical, evidence-based approaches (Chamot & Harris, 2019). This essay will explain and demonstrate learning strategies essential for this moment. The section "Defining Terms in Context" provides a clear definition of LLS and briefly reviews the history and theory that undergird it, including a graphic task-based model. "Case Study of LLS" reviews the key outcomes of a classroom-based case study I conducted which applied a LLSI method in an L2 writing course. "LLS in Practice Online" is practical, describing online activities and tools for two learning strategies: goal-setting and peer review. In the conclusion, I offer implications for teaching in a variety of contexts.

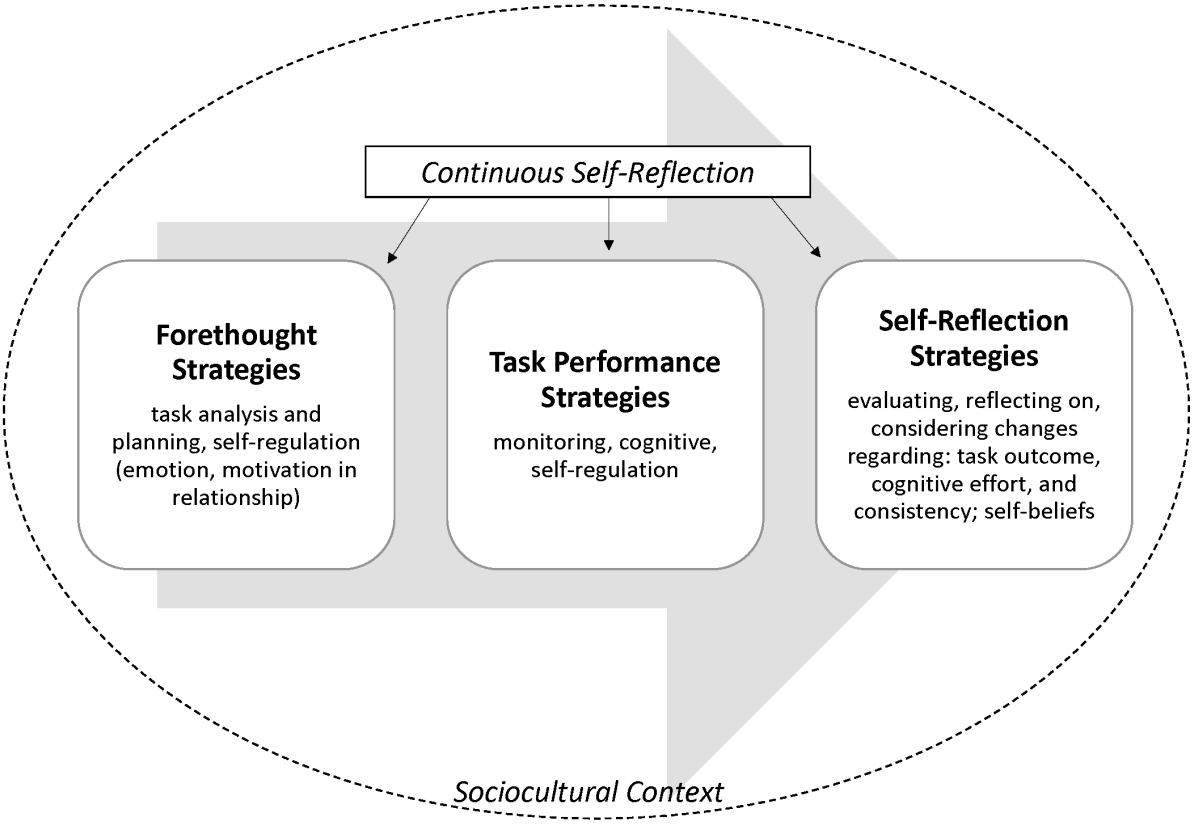
Defining Terms in Context

One common critique of LLSI is simple: a lack of common definitions. In fact, the terms learning strategy/self-regulation/meta-knowledge are ill-defined buzzwords in many communities today. This confusion led Oxford to conduct a content-analytic study of more than 30 respected LLS definitions. Based primarily on this study, she composed the following definition:

> L2 learning strategies are complex, dynamic thoughts and actions, selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts in order to regulate multiple aspects of themselves (such as cognitive, social, and emotional) for the purpose of (a) accomplishing language tasks; (b) improving language performance or use; and/or (c) enhancing long-term proficiency. (Oxford, 2017, p. 48)

This definition adds that learning strategies may be mental or behavioral, are learner-chosen, creatively applied for various contexts, and are teachable. While linguists continue to debate the definitions (Rose et al., 2018), I often return to Oxford's comprehensive definition; while long, it is clear and precise, unifying the best insights of nearly 40 years of scholarship and practice. Just as important, it suggests the complex domains and theory undergirding thorough LLS instruction. Learning strategies "are part of complex systems—the contexts inside us and the contexts outside, all operating dynamically" (Oxford, 2017, p. 170). This complexity has led linguists to develop models for LLS. A widely respected taxonomy in K-12 schools in the U.S. is CALLA, the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach developed by Chamot and O'Malley (1994). The strategy model I prefer is Oxford's S^2R model, pictured in Figure 1 as applied to a language learning task (Oxford, 2017, p. 75; adapted with permission). Two emphases should be apparent in this model: the importance of the social and inner context of the learner, and the importance of meta-strategies.

Figure 1
LLS as Applied to a Language Learning Task



Language learning strategies have been explored by teachers and scholars for more than three decades. In the 1970s, when cognitive pedagogy accelerated focus on the learner, Rubin (1975) famously launched a focus on successful behaviors of language learners. Steady interest in LLS has continued in part due to educators' intuitive desire to teach how, not just what, to learn. LLS scholars have increasingly explored: what works in the classroom? In the last 15 years, a growing body of research has confirmed that LLS can be taught (Chamot & Harris, 2019; Plonsky,

2019; Rose et al., 2018), and that context and methods matter. In a meta-analysis of 77 individual studies of LLSI among 7,890 learners, Plonsky (2019) drew the following conclusions: that self-regulation strategies should be emphasized; larger effects were observed for learners beyond the beginning level; and learners should be encouraged to select and develop their own strategies. The recent volumes by Oxford (2017) and the edited collection by Chamot and Harris (2019) provide comprehensive overviews of LLS, including ongoing critiques and future directions.

Theoretical Frameworks for LLS

Key theories that underly LLS are cognitivism, constructivism, and sociocultural theory. Each of these theories point to questions posed below that can guide instruction online today:

Cognitivism

This learning theory was prevalent when LLS began in the 1970s and 80s, which analyzes how learners process new ideas, sounds, and experiences as well as how they process information. Cognitivism also posits the importance of prior knowledge and effort and in the 1990s led to the popularization of self-regulation. Since 2000, insights from neuroscience have been added, for example how learners remember, attend to, and process information (Miller, 2014). **Questions for online teaching:** What are the key mental distractors for your students? How can your curriculum elicit and build on prior skills and knowledge and make students aware and confident in that?

Constructivism and Sociocultural Theory

These often refer to the work of Russian psychologist L. S. Vygotsky and his colleagues (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Constructivism explains that learning is an active process of constructing knowledge, dependent on the learner's experience and self as well as current context. Related is the well-known zone of proximal development, commonly defined as the distance between an individual's current learning and their potential with assistance of key sources; and scaffolding, or gradually withdrawing assistance as the learner becomes more successful. Also rooted in Vygotsky's work is sociocultural theory, which he posited as a radical new way to look at human psychology. He argued that the distinctive aspect of human consciousness is a person's capacity for self-control through the tools of language, logic, and other cultural/mental skills that she can use to mediate her relationship to the world (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). **Questions for online teaching:** What is the social and cultural context that needs to be elicited at this time? How do I leave some space in the curriculum for the unexpected due to the ongoing process of learners constructing knowledge?

Case Study of LLS

My 2019 classroom-based case study yielded new observations regarding the effectiveness of some LLS. I explored the results of integrating new self-regulated strategy instruction into one instance of an L2 academic writing class. The course was an intensive English academic writing course (35 classroom hours in eight weeks) with nine students, ages 19-35, four males and five females representing five nationalities. The instructional method was adapted from "Supporting Strategic Writers" (SSW; MacArthur et al., 2015), a curriculum which had proven success in a quasi-experimental study with 13 instructors and 276 students at two universities (MacArthur et al., 2015; Traga Philippakos et al., 2018).

Method

From the SSW curriculum, I adapted and embedded explicit writing strategies I had not taught in detail before, such as: modeling by instructor; guided brainstorming, outlining, and drafting, scaffolded for increasing independent writing; and instructed/modeled peer review. The self-regulation strategies comprised a range of strategies such as goal setting, task management, monitoring of progress, and reflection.

Case studies generally are intended to focus on qualitative detail and context in one scenario. This approach allowed me to address several criticisms of LLSI research: the need for descriptive detail about instructional methods (Chamot & Harris, 2019), and for qualitative analysis of learning strategies such as peer review, especially for persuasive writing (Mitchell & Pessoa, 2017). My research methods included two quantitative measures. First, I adapted the pre/post writing self-efficacy survey from the SSW curriculum which consisted of 27 questions, answered on a Likert scale, addressing motivation and attitude about writing. Second, I designed a comparative analysis of final student essays paired with completed peer reviews, all anonymized; these were scored (independently by a colleague and me) for significant improvement in areas related to the peer review. Students utilized a peer review rubric to conduct peer evaluations. The qualitative measures were student journals and my participant-observer journal. I had two research questions:

1. Do some aspects of strategy- based instruction show impact on student self-efficacy and/or on writing revision skills?
2. Is this methodology efficient (not overly time-consuming) for the instructor?

Results and Discussion

Regarding my first question, there were limited positive results. The first quantitative method, the pre/post survey yielded insignificant results, and therefore are not reported in detail here. Less than half of the eight participating students increased their confidence and attitude scores by 1 or more points on at least half of the questions. For example, 4/8 students expressed increased confidence in correcting their grammar and in finding ideas to write about. On the question "I can tell when to use different writing strategies," only one student increased her score; the majority scored the same. This may have been due to a limited time period (eight weeks) for self-observed change or to a poorly-matched survey (not designed for L2 writers).

The comparative analysis of the peer reviews showed more positive results, but not consistently related LLSI. Two evaluators who compared peer reviews to improvements in anonymized essays found the following: two thirds of the essays showed writing improvement related to the peer review, but only in a few areas (a clarified topic sentence or an added supporting detail); the same essays ignored other appropriate peer suggestions. Notably, the essay with the most relevant positive changes had received a peer review with detailed, clear suggestions.

The qualitative data of student reflective journals and my participant-observation journal showed positive results about my second question (efficiency of the methodology for the instructor), and positive results in student perceptions of LLS. In their reflective journals, most students (7/9) perceived strategy instruction as significant and positive. These comments were not prompted, but rather open-ended questions about their learning throughout the course. For example, seven out of nine appreciated the journal-writing (one strategy) as giving them "more freedom" or "more confidence," and planned to continue it as a new habit. Positive comments about other LLSI included: "peer review helps me to see how others write"; "modeling out loud by the teacher helped

me to avoid some mistakes." In my participant-observer journal, I also noted positive results. Compared to teaching this course without the LLSI, there was much less frequent writer's block or confusion about writing, and more frequent collaborative problem-solving. With that added efficiency, I found that increasing LLSI did not add to my time in preparation or classroom activity.

In sum, my case study confirmed other research that a systematic approach to incorporating strategies is efficient for the instructor and perceived as effective for learners (Cohen & Griffiths, 2015; MacArthur et al., 2015; Nguyen & Gu, 2013). Regarding peer review, my students' perceptions echo many studies that suggest that peer review is a positive, socially grounded language encounter and that conducting peer review enhances learning (Ahmed, 2020; Yu & Lee, 2016). However, my brief case study failed to show a causal relationship between peer review and writing improvement nor contextual data about differences among reviewers and reviews. To extend my observations, research should explore LLSI in context: how various types of virtual tools might work and for what kinds of learners (gender, age, professional or educational background, for example). Finally, my students' self-reflective journals confirmed the value of teaching and researching self-regulation and hopeful mindsets. Even though my pre-post-survey was ineffective, with a longer time period I recommend such an instrument to raise awareness in learners and provide data for instructors. An accessible instrument is Gkonou and Oxford's (2016) questionnaire which presents scenarios that elicit attitudes and emotions about language learning.

LLS in Practice Online

As I have argued throughout this essay, teaching a system of learning strategies is ideal (Oxford, 2017); yet in any stressful environment, simplicity is wise. To this end, I conclude this article with approaches—focused on practical methods and tools—for two LLS for empowering learners in a global crisis: goal-setting and peer review. Several principles for effective LSSI should be recalled when incorporating these activities online (Artino & Stephens, 2009; Chamot & Harris, 2019; Miller, 2014):

- Apply an iterative process: like a spiral, strategy instruction follows a pattern that repeats at least twice: instruction, practice, self-assessment (with instructor feedback) and changes, if needed; repeat.
- Explain the purpose of the strategy and accept doubts/ suggestions for changes.
- Collaborative and multi-modal approaches tap more learner domains and critical needs today, the motivational/ social as well as cognitive.
- Purposefully select tech tools. They should fit the objectives and be accessible to you and your students, prioritizing simplicity; suggested tools below.

Multisensory and Self-Regulated Goal-Setting Lesson

Background

LLSI research emphasizes that goal-setting is most effective when it is self-monitored, with explicit definition of the purpose, modeling, and feedback to encourage competence. A meta-strategy that can access mind and heart, goal-setting develops agency and hope (Oxford, 2017).

Lesson and Timing

I created a 20-minute interactive presentation to instruct the key meta-cognitive skill of goal-setting. Ideally taught synchronously, the lesson covers student experience with goal-setting; purpose in this course; images for reflection; student written or aural goal-setting. Typically, I

follow this pattern in the course: instruction and goal-setting week one; reflection and modification of goals: mid-course; reflection on goals and future goals: final week.

Instructional Feedback

In week one, I provide a brief encouraging comment on each student's initial goals and the following day, share an example of any goal that was NOT correct (no name), and ask all students to revise their goals if needed, based on that example. I also ask them to share their goals with one classmate (which they report on in their goal-setting document). Mid-course: I only skim their re-iteration of their goals and share a few positive examples during class. Final week: The overall assignment gets a complete/incomplete score at the end, with a final short comment from me (again non-evaluative, e.g., "I noticed your improvement . . ."; Glad to hear this felt productive").

Tools

For student responses (at least 3 times in the course), the tool needs to be shareable between student/teacher, allow for repeated viewing and commenting (begin/mid/end of course), and ideally multi-modal, allowing for audio or visual responses. In our Learning Management System (LMS) which is Canvas, I use either the assignment tool or the embedded Onenote; these allow for student-teacher private posts or whole-class interactions, and easily integrate audio or even video responses which I encourage.

Peer Review Lesson

Background

My top goal for peer review is peer learning which develops essential transferable skills (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012) and meets critical needs for community. Promoting peer learning requires a willingness to share authority, not easy for most educators (Morris, 2020). Virtual learning may apparently discourage peer learning but has many creative tools that can boost it, particularly for less confident or less extroverted learners (Miller, 2014).

Peer review as a language-learning strategy offers benefits for the reviewer and the reviewed (Yu & Lee, 2016). If written or oral dialogue is involved, especially in a dual-language, cross-cultural classroom, peer review can foster authentic communication skills such as asking for and receiving feedback (Ruecker, 2011). For instructors, effective peer review can save instructional time while still providing feedback that is specific and frequent (Oxford, 2017).

However, my experience agrees with several cautions regarding peer review, especially for L2 learners; it is ineffective if students don't apply effort to the task; and cross-cultural misunderstandings can occur. In a recent adult professional writing class, for example, I was asked to intervene when one student felt that her peer had insulted her in his comments on her writing.

Two practices have improved my use of peer review online. First, I provide in-depth instruction and scaffolded oversight. For example, I present one aspect of Meyers' intercultural communication global comparison tool (Meyer, 2015) which compares differences across cultures in giving and receiving negative feedback. Second, I apply tools that enable flexible yet clear approaches, inviting student choice and leadership.

Lesson and Timing

To instruct peer review in any course (speaking or writing), I have developed a playful yet purposeful introductory peer review presentation. This can be presented synchronously or through

a video, inviting responses. In a pluri-lingual context, instruction should address possible cultural conflicts; and discuss when to focus on global aspects of writing (organization/clarity of ideas/coherence) and when to drill down for grammar/mechanics.

Aiming for at least three experiences of peer review per course, I have developed simple rubrics and tools. For the first peer review assignment, I explain and briefly model how to use the rubric. Before the second assignment, I invite leadership by asking for any suggestions to change the rubric or even to redesign it (for credit). For the third peer review, students can opt to use the rubric or omit it, giving only holistic feedback. In all three assignments, tools invite students to give audio/visual feedback as well as written, and I elicit feedback from students about the assignment.

Instructional Feedback

Some instructional monitoring/feedback of peer review, at least at first, is needed both to motivate students and to correct misinterpretations. I aim to give timely and specific feedback, but I want this to be a low-stakes, friendly and peer-driven assignment, so I minimize my teacher-footprint on it. For the first assignment, I read each completed peer review and give completion credit; the following class, I take five minutes to: share a few examples to the whole class, without names, of effective feedback and if necessary, ineffective. For a second peer review assignment, I would only skim each one; in class, I would prompt reflection with the question: what went well with the peer reviews, and are there questions or suggestions? Lastly, in a final reflection assignment, students are asked to assess the peer review process: What worked for you as a reviewer and being reviewed? What didn't work, and how could it be improved?

Tools

Rubrics should be simple but should closely imitate the rubric used for grading. Tech tools: My preferred method is having students meet synchronously online; they complete the peer review documents, prepared in advance, during their meeting or prior; and then talk together for 5-15 minutes about one another's work. For an L2 course, every opportunity for multi-modal language use is ideal, as it integrates language skills as well as peer relationships. Our LMS (Canvas) has rubric tools and a peer review app that are versatile; they can be used anonymously/ non-paired or paired with discussion face-to-face online. Other options: video/audio tools like Flipgrid or VoiceThread are designed for peer comments, engaging, and user-friendly; a sophisticated tool is Peerceptiv (I have not reviewed).

Conclusion

"It's like to be on a boat, but on a wild ocean, like with no control. It is a rush of emotions and fear, to have no idea what I'm doing." Written by my student regarding L2 academic writing, her metaphor seems apt for all online teaching and learning in 2020: facing distress from within and without, with seesawing emotions we nevertheless aim for a place and seek to arrive there with a group. Thoughtfully instructing learning strategies can help everyone in the boat to arrive.

Returning to critical language pedagogy, linguist Coyle (2019) described a vision for "co-created strategic classrooms…where learners and teachers work in partnership for successful learning to take place" (para. 5). Building on Freire's critical inquiry, Coyle's pedagogy emphasizes the social and cultural construct of language that is shaped by and shapes its context. This classroom (online or face-to-face) has the following characteristics:

- It is pluri-lingual and highly collaborative.
- Teachers and learners co-construct goals and assessments.
- Self-directional strategies are frequently fostered.

Genuine connection and effective language learning online can be enhanced by selecting a few key learning strategies and teaching them well. Yet the pandemic also invites us to consider a paradigm shift, as Coyle and other practitioners of critical pedagogy envision (Plonsky, 2019; Weaver, 2020). Language learning strategies as simple as goal-setting, reflection, and peer review can enable students to take control of their own learning outcomes (my case study reported above; Artino & Stephens, 2009; Mastan & Maarof, 2014; Nguyen & Gu, 2013). They can also open the course to more fluid learning, possible in virtual contexts when instructors and students strategically reflect and communicate about their goals and effective assessment.

References

Ahmed, R. (2020). Peer review in academic writing: Different perspectives from instructors and students. *TESOL Journal*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.537

Artino, A. R., & Stephens, J. M. (2009). Academic motivation and self-regulation: A comparative analysis of undergraduate and graduate students learning online. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *12*(3–4), 146–151. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2009.02.001

Chamot, A. U., & Harris, V. (Eds.). (2019). *Learning strategy instruction in the language classroom.* Multilingual Matters.

Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). *The CALLA handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach*. Addison Wesley Longman.

Cohen, A. D. (1998). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. Longman.

Cohen, A. D., & Griffiths, C. (2015). Revisiting LLS research 40 years later. *TESOL Quarterly*, *49*(2), 414–429. http://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.225

Coyle, D. (2019). Designing strategic classrooms: Self-assessment in enabling self-regulated learning. In A. U. Chamot & V. Harris (Eds.), *Learning strategy instruction in the language classroom* (pp. 53–67). Multilingual Matters.

Davidson, C. (2020, May 26). The single most essential requirement in designing a fall online course. https://www.cathydavidson.com/blog/the-single-most-essential-requirement-in-designing-a-fall-online-course/

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410613349

Gkonou, D., & Oxford, R.L. (2016). *Questionnaire: Managing our emotions for language learning.* University of Essex.

Lantolf, J., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. In B. van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 201–224). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lingnan University. (2020, June 07). LU study finds international students' learning activities all over the world have been seriously disturbed by COVID-19 pandemic. https://bit.ly/2SbxRYo

MacArthur, C. A., Philippakos, Z. A., & Ianetta, M. (2015). Self-regulated strategy instruction in college developmental writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *107*(3), 855–867. https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000011

Mastan, M. E., & Maarof, N. (2014). ESL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and strategy use in expository writing. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *116*, 2360–2363. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.573

Meyer, E. (2020). *The country mapping tool.* https://erinmeyer.com/tools/culture-map-premium/

Miller, M. (2014). *Minds online*. Harvard University Press.

Mitchell, T. D., & Pessoa, S. (2017). Scaffolding the writing development of the argument genre in history: The case of two novice writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *30*, 26–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.10.002

Morris, S. M. (2017, October 27). A call for critical instructional design. https://www.seanmichaelmorris.com/a-call-for-critical-instructional-design/

Nguyen, L. T. C., & Gu, Y. (2013). Strategy-based instruction: A learner-focused approach to developing learner autonomy. *Language Teaching Research*, *17*(1), 9–30. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812457528

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2004). *Critical pedagogies and language learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. L. (2017). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies: Self-regulation in context*. Routledge.

Plonsky, L. (2019). *Second-language strategy instruction: Where do we go from here?* Plenary presented at Situated Strategy Use (SSU3), Osaka, Japan.

Rose, H., Briggs, J. G., Boggs, J. A., Sergio, L., & Ivanova-Slavianskaia, N. (2018). A systematic review of language learner strategy research in the face of self-regulation. *System*, *72*, 151–163. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.12.002

Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, *9*(1), 41–51. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586011

Ruecker, T. (2010). The potential of dual-language cross-cultural peer review. *ELT Journal*, *65*(4), 398–407. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq067

Traga Philippakos, Z. A., MacArthur, C. A., & Munsell, S. (2018). College student writers' use and modification of planning and evaluation strategies after a semester of instruction. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *63*(2), 301–310. https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.897

Weaver, R. (2020). Tiny maneuvers: On changing our instincts as teachers. *Hybrid Pedagogy*. https://hybridpedagogy.org/tiny-maneuvers-on-changing-our-instincts-as-teachers/

Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2012). What role for collaboration in writing and writing feedback? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *21*(4), 364–374. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2012.09.005

Yu, S., & Lee, I. (2016). Peer feedback in second language writing (2005–2014). *Language Teaching*, *49*(4), 461–493. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444816000161

Received: August 14, 2020 | Accepted: September 21, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020

Communicating in the Face of Racism: Infinitive v. Gerund Verbal Complements in English

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 80–90
ISSN: 2331-6845

Melody Pao
Alliance Française of Portland

Abstract
As COVID-19 continues to spread across the country, Asian Americans and Asian immigrants have experienced an increase in racist attacks. This paper presents a lesson plan that is intended to help English as a Second Language (ESL) learners of East Asian origin communicate in the face of racial discrimination. In addition to outlining this teaching technique, the article provides a linguistic analysis of the lesson plan's grammatical focus: the distinction between infinitive and gerund verbal complements. The author argues that the Bolinger Principle, a theory that articulates the reasoning behind this distinction, provides an effective and meaning-informed teaching strategy for teaching infinitives and gerunds. The purpose of the article is to offer guidance for teachers who may wish to use this form-focused technique in their own classrooms.

Keywords
ESL, racism, Asian immigrants, infinitive complements, gerund complements, Bolinger Principle

Background

COVID-19 has laid bare the deep systemic inequities that pervade our society. As illustrated through the Black Lives Matter movement, language shapes how we perceive and confront social justice issues (Avineri et al., 2018). In the wake of the global pandemic, Asian Americans and Asian immigrants have reported a surge in racist attacks and hate crimes in the United States (Nawaz, 2020; Ruiz et al., 2020). Remarks referring to COVID-19 as the "Chinese virus" and the "kung flu" are often seen as examples of attempts to normalize anti-Asian xenophobia (Kambhampaty, 2020, para. 2). Therefore, it is important to support this particular group of ESL learners in the face of bigotry. The featured lesson plan is designed to help ESL students of Asian descent learn how to communicate in response to racial discrimination.

The grammatical focus of the lesson is the distinction between infinitive and gerunds. This nuance tends to confound ESL/EFL learners, especially from East Asian countries, who may choose the incorrect form due to cross-linguistic influence from their native languages (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016, p. 679). It is thus essential that ESL/EFL teachers fully comprehend the difference in order to explain it to students and address any related errors. While infinitives and gerunds can be used in several ways, this paper will focus solely on examples containing verbal complements. According to Bolinger (1968), verbs that express unrealized possibilities generally go with infinitives, whereas verbs that refer to actual events tend to collocate with gerunds (p. 127). In this paper, I posit that this idea known as the Bolinger Principle provides an effective teaching strategy for identifying verbs that take infinitives and those that require gerunds. First, I will

Melody Pao is a recent graduate of the Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey, CA, where she majored in Teaching Foreign Language/TESOL. She currently serves as a freelance language instructor for French and English both on her own and at the following institutions: Alliance Française of Portland, the Alliance Française of Chicago, and ChatENG; email mpao@miis.edu.

present the target teaching context and articulate a rationale for the lesson plan. In the subsequent linguistic analysis, I will discuss operational definitions of complements, infinitive complements, and gerund complements, and describe how to draw learners' attention to those forms and their meanings. The purpose of this article is to provide guidance for instructors who may wish to implement this technique in their respective teaching contexts.

Description of the Teaching Context

This lesson plan was designed for adult students taking an ESL Customer Service class at the Boston Chinatown Neighborhood Center (BCNC), a center that offers resources and programs for immigrants and their families in the Boston Chinatown community. Most BCNC members come from Chinese-speaking regions (e.g. Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong), but the center welcomes immigrants of any nationality. All students taking this class wish to improve their English proficiency so they can increase their chances of landing jobs in customer service and succeeding in the workplace. The lesson plan has been written so that it can be delivered in person or online. More details on the context are provided in Appendix A.

The grammatical focus of this lesson is particularly relevant for Chinese English language learners, as they often find it hard to differentiate between infinitives and gerunds. Based on a corpus-based study of Chinese college students (Xia, 2012), the most common error was using an infinitive without the *to* and in places where a gerund should be used. These types of errors may result from negative cross-linguistic transfer, as Chinese verbs do not alter in form when used as a verbal complement. It is thus imperative that ESL students at BCNC learn the difference between infinitives and gerunds, which poses challenges for many native Chinese speakers.

Lesson Plan Rationale and Guidelines

The lesson takes a learner-centered approach to instructional design, which "prioritizes the uniqueness of every learner" (Cornelius-White & Harbaugh, 2010, p. xv). While planning the lesson, I adopted a "pedagogy of particularity," which means that language instruction should be customized to a specific group of learners (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 538). The grammar focus is the difference between infinitives and gerunds, a source of confusion for many Chinese English language learners. The lesson objectives demonstrate an awareness of students' motivations for learning English as well as the real-life challenges they currently face because they are Asian. At the beginning of the lesson, learners share their own definitions of racism and discuss how racist attitudes might emerge due to COVID-19. Then, they read excerpts from an article on Asian Americans' experiences of racism in the wake of the pandemic (Kambhampaty, 2020). The use of an authentic text helps the instructor abide by the principle of learner-centered instruction, as it is representative of reading material that students would encounter in real life and would be interested in exploring (Brown & Lee, 2015, p. 410). The article sheds light on a relevant and timely topic that pertains not only to their learning goals, but also their identities as immigrants of Asian descent.

Catered to learners' interests, the lesson aims to help students grasp the main ideas of an article on racism and understand the difference between infinitive and gerund complements (see Appendix A for all lesson objectives). In order to measure students' progress towards achieving the learning outcomes, the lesson design features several means of assessment. During the first "through" phase, students discuss the article in a jigsaw activity, an information gap task that allows them to process key details from the reading (Pica, 2008, p. 529). Based on example sentences from the text, they identify a pattern for using infinitives and gerunds and then compare their hypotheses with their classmates. This task thus adheres to the focus-on-form approach,

which draws learners' attention to linguistic elements as they arise in meaning-based lessons (Ellis, 2008; Long, 1991). Collectively, the class determines a pattern, which ideally should describe the Bolinger Principle: Gerunds generally describe actions that are real and actually happen, while infinitives generally describe unfulfilled or completed outcomes (Bolinger, 1968). Their performance in the subsequent activity should indicate whether they were able to apply the pattern in context.

The second "through" phase is focused on developing effective communication strategies against racial slurs and discrimination. In groups, learners will reflect upon a given scenario that they may encounter in daily life or in the workplace, such as a passerby who yells at them "Go back to China!" or a client who refuses their service due to their race. Through these discussions, they will determine how they would want to convey those messages. When they report on their decision, their classmates give them feedback on their proposed solution. They also answer questions from their teacher and peers that elicit the use of infinitives and gerunds (e.g., "What did you decide ***to*** do?" or "What should you avoid ***doing*** in this situation?"). During this activity, the teacher should take note of any errors that should be addressed. At the conclusion of the lesson, students complete exit tickets, which not only serve as a means of self-assessment, but also indicate to the teacher how much learning has transpired (Frey & Fisher, 2011, p. 46).

Linguistic Analysis: Complements

The meaning of complements is implied in the word itself: they complete a given expression. According to Larsen-Freeman et al. (2016), complements can be defined as, "constituents needed to complete the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or sometimes a noun" (p. 679). Verbal complements include the following broad categories: *that*-clauses, infinitive complements, and gerund complements (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016). Examples of each complement type are provided below:

> *That*-clause*: Tsui responded **that** he was Chinese American.*
> Infinitive: *She stopped **to** adjust her mask.*
> Gerund: *I avoided **taking** the bus or the subway.*

All examples in the linguistic analysis are taken from Kambhampaty (2020), the article on racism featured in the lesson. While the term complement is not mentioned in the lesson, it is important for students to understand how infinitives and gerunds complete the meaning of a verb. For instance, if the sentence *I avoided taking the bus or subway* were rewritten as *I avoided*, it would be considered incomplete. The next two sections will define and illustrate the grammatical functions of infinitive and gerund complements.

Infinitive Complements

Infinitives are non-finite; in other words, they are not limited by tense, person, or number (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016). They are the base form of a verb; they can be bare infinitives (e.g. *read*) or *to*-infinitives (e.g. *to read*). Infinitive complements can be considered clauses in that they possess both a subject and a verb (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016, p. 685): *Her images inspire people to at least acknowledge their experiences*. Within the infinitive complement, the subject is *people* and the verb is *acknowledge.* During the first "through" phase of the lesson, students examine sentences that use what Larsen-Freeman et al. (2016) classify as *attempt* and *advise* subtypes of infinitive complements (p. 684). The *attempt*-type verbs are intransitive and do not have objects

(e.g., *We try to look at the larger picture*). In contrast, *advise*-type verbs are transitive and require objects when they appear with infinitives (e.g., *Older family members told her not to involve herself in "Black-white battles"*). The *advise*-type can also be characterized as "manipulative" verbs, such as "ask, make, tell, order," which tend to take infinitive complements (Los, 2015, p. 3). The agent of the main verb "manipulates the behavior" of the object so that it performs the complement verb (Givón, 1980, p. 3). By looking at the examples above, students will observe that infinitive complements are often used to describe the outcome of an action.

Gerund Complements

Similar to infinitives, gerund complements are tenseless clauses that complete the main verb. Gerunds derive from verbs and end in *-ing* (e.g., reading). The *-ing* of a gerund is "an affix that attaches itself to a verb stem" (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016, p. 689). Gerund complements are considered clauses, because they possess an identifiable subject and a verb: *I avoided taking the bus or the subway.* In this example sentence, which appears in the first "through" phase of the lesson, it is understood that the subject of the complement is also I. Gerund complements share characteristics of noun phrases that can serve as subjects and objects of sentences (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016). In the sample sentence, *taking the bus or the subway* is the direct object of the main verb *avoid*. This statement can be confirmed by the possibility of pseudo-clefting: *What I avoided was taking the bus or the subway.* As Duffley (2000) explains, the gerund "evokes the whole of the event's interiority" (p. 225). In other words, the gerund refers to the entirety of an event, and not just some part of it.

The Bolinger Principle: Infinitive v. Gerund Complements

In this section, I will expand upon these definitions of the infinitive and gerund complements by introducing the Bolinger Principle. This theory has been an important resource for language researchers and teachers alike, as it has been cited in previously published works on complementation (Duffley, 2000, 2006; Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016; Rudanko, 2010; Vawser, 1988; Yidi, 1997) and has been used as a meaning-informed strategy to teach intermediate and advanced ESL/EFL learners the difference between infinitives and gerunds. According to Bolinger (1968), the distinction between infinitive and gerund complements is not arbitrary, for the complement types "contrast in meaning" (p. 122). Verbs such as *command, expect, hope, struggle*, etc. express "unrealized possibilities" and tend to take infinitive complements (Bolinger, 1968, p. 127). In other words, these verbs denote potential or unfulfilled outcomes, as in, *The U.S. struggles to combat a global pandemic.* Verbs such as *appreciate, defend, deny, enjoy, keep*, etc., refer to "actualities or possibilities conceived as actualities" and usually require gerunds (Bolinger, 1968, p. 127). These verbs trigger actions in the complement that are real and vivid (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016, p. 693), as in, *The man kept coming closer and closer to Tsui.* In the lesson plan, students will find a pattern for using these forms based on sentences that contain either infinitive or gerund complements. However, teachers should keep in mind verbs that collocate with both complement types as well as the distinction between these complements with respect to time and subject control (see Appendix B). While the theory has its limitations, it alleviates the cognitive load of learners in that they do not have to memorize which verbs go with which complement type. In short, the Bolinger Principle supplies teachers with a meaning-informed reason for clarifying the difference between these two complements and thus enables instructors to plan lessons that keep meaning in focus.

Conclusion

Designed for immigrant ESL students at the BCNC, the lesson plan aims to equip English language learners with communication strategies for combatting racism. While the lesson plan was developed for a specific audience, it can be adapted to suit the needs of any adult learning population. The accompanying linguistic analysis explains the difference between gerund and infinitive verbal complements and highlights the merits of the Bolinger Principle as a teaching strategy. Hopefully, readers will find this paper a useful guide for planning a form-focused lesson that addresses racial tensions of our time.

References

Avineri, N., Graham, L. R., Johnson, E. J., Riner, R. C., & Rosa, J. (Eds.). (2018). *Language and social justice in practice.* Routledge.

Bolinger, D. (1968). Entailment and the meaning of structures. *Glossa, 2*(2), 119–127.

Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (2015). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (4th ed.). Pearson Education.

Cornelius-White, J. H. D., & Harbaugh, A. (2010). *Learner-centered instruction: Building relationships for student success*. SAGE Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483349183

Davies, M. (2008-) *The corpus of contemporary American English (COCA): One billion words, 1990–2019*. https://www.english-corpora.org/coca

Duffley, P. (2000). Gerund versus infinitive as complement of transitive verbs in English. *Journal of English Linguistics, 28*(3), 221–248. https://doi.org/10.1177/00754240022005018

Duffley, P. (2006). *The English gerund-participle: A comparison with the infinitive.* Peter Lang.

Ellis, R. (2008). Explicit form-focused instruction and second language acquisition. In B. Spolsky & F. Hult (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 437–455). Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470694138.ch31

Frey, N., & Fisher, D. (2011). *The formative assessment action plan: Practical steps to more successful teaching and learning.* ASCD.

Givón, T. (1980). The binding hierarchy and the typology of complements. *Studies in Language, 4*(3), 333–377. https://doi.org/10.1075/sl.4.3.03giv

Kambhampaty, A. P. (2020, June 25). I will not stand silent: 10 Asian Americans reflect on racism during the pandemic and the need for equality. *Time Magazine.* https://time.com/5858649/racism-coronavirus/

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly, 35*(4), 537–560. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588427

Larsen-Freeman, D., Celce-Murcia, M., Frodesen, J., White, B., & Williams, H. A. (2016). *The grammar book: Form, meaning, and use for English language teachers*. National Geographic Learning, Heinle Cengage Learning.

Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (pp. 39–52). John Benjamins.

Los, B. (2015). *A historical syntax of English.* Edinburgh University Press.

Nawaz, A. (2020, April 1). *Asian Americans report rise in racist attacks amid pandemic.* PBS NewsHour. https://www.pbs.org/newshour/show/what-anti-asian-attacks

Pica, T. (2008). Task-based instruction. In N. Van Deusen-Scholl & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education, vol. 4: Second and foreign language education* (2nd ed., pp. 71–820). Springer Science/Business Media.

Rudanko, J. (2010). Explaining grammatical variation and change: A case study of complementation in American English over three decades. *Journal of English Linguistics, 38*(1), 4–24. SAGE Publications. https://doi.org/10.1177/0075424209335495

Ruiz, N. G., Horowitz, J. M., & Tamir, C. (2020, July 1). *Many Black and Asian Americans say they have experienced discrimination amid the COVID-19 outbreak.* Pew Research Center. https://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2020/07/01/many-black-and-asian-americans

Vawser, J. M. (1988). *An experiment testing the Bolinger Principle to teach infinitives and gerunds* (Publication No. 3853) [Master's thesis, Portland State University]. PDXScholar. https://doi.org/10.15760/etd.5737

Wierzbicka, A. (1988). *The semantics of grammar*. John Benjamins.

Xia, L. (2012). A corpus-based study of the infinitive errors made by Chinese college students. *English Language Teaching, 5*(6), 154–157. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n6p154

Yidi, W. (1997). Higher verbs and their nonfinite complements. *Journal of English Linguistics, 25*(3), 241–249. SAGE Publications. https://doi.org/10.1177/007542429702500306

Appendix A: Lesson Plan Outline

Setting: Boston Chinatown Neighborhood Center (BCNC), a community center that offers resources and programs to immigrants and immigrant families. A majority of BCNC members are from Chinese-speaking regions (e.g. Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong), but the center is open to all immigrants from around the world. This lesson is designed for an ESL Customer Service class, which the BCNC offers for free to any members of the Boston Chinatown community.

Learner Background Information:

- *Class size:* Each time this class is offered, the class size varies, but the size is usually small, about 10 students.
- *Age:* There is a wide range. Learners may be in their mid-twenties to late fifties. The average age varies by class, and BCNC does not offer any statistics, but based on an educated guess, the average age is about early forties.
- *ESL context:* Many students come from China (usually Mainland), but not all learners have the same L1. There is a wide range of proficiency levels (novice-high to intermediate-mid), which are determined by the proficiency test BCNC administers to entering students. Learners all read and write simple sentences in their L1. They all understand simple sentence structure. With respect to the average number of years learning English, the BCNC does not report statistics on their website, but the range can be from a few months to a few years of formal schooling.

Time: 90 minutes

Materials and Equipment:

- "I Will Not Stand Silent" article from *Time* magazine (Kambhampaty, 2020)
- Computer
- Whiteboard and markers (if in person)
- Projector (if in person), PowerPoint slide
- Internet connection, Zoom meeting room (if online)

Objectives:

Learners will be able to:

- Grasp the main ideas of a text about racist incidents, by discussing them and reporting on them with their peers.
- Articulate their opinions on racism and racist incidents, by discussing real-life events with their peers.
- Identify verbs that take on infinitive and verbs that take on gerunds by comparing example sentences with infinitives and gerunds.
- Identify a pattern for the use of infinitives and gerunds, first by writing the pattern individually and then comparing their hypotheses together as a class.
- Develop effective communication strategies against racial slurs and discrimination, by discussing them in groups.
- Report on these strategies by presenting them to the class and answering questions that elicit the infinitive and gerund forms.

Lesson Plan:

(1) *"Into" phase: Defining racism* (10–15 mins.)

- Check in with learners to see how they are doing and invite them to share any news, orally or in the chat if the lesson is on Zoom.

- Trigger warning: Warn students that this lesson will focus on a sensitive topic: racism. Remind students that this is a safe space, where we can support one another and engage bravely and empathetically with challenging material.
- Ask learners: "What does racism mean to you?" Learners are invited to write their ideas on the whiteboard (physical or virtual). Offer assistance if learners are stuck or need help finding the words.
- Ask learners: "What racist attitudes might people have during the pandemic? Give a specific example." Learners share orally their responses to this question.

(2) *"Through" phase: Reading about experiences of racism* (20–30 mins.)

- For this jigsaw reading activity, learners read a brief excerpt of the article from *Time Magazine* "I will not stand silent: 10 Asian Americans reflect on racism during the pandemic and the need for equality." Learners are divided into groups or breakout rooms based on the section they read. For example, group A reads about Justin Tsui's story, group B reads about Jilleen Liao's and so on. Within each group, learners discuss what happened in their assigned story. They will answer the following questions:
  - What happened to [insert name of Asian American who is telling the story]?
  - How is this incident racist?
  - How did s/he feel or react to this incident?

  Circle among groups/breakout rooms and listen to their conversations. Offer assistance as needed if learners do not understand certain words or phrases in the text.
- In the second phase of the jigsaw reading activity, learners change groups so that within each group, each learner will have read a different section of the article. Learners report to classmates what happened in their respective stories. When it is their turn to listen, learners are encouraged to ask their peers questions about their stories. Circle among groups/breakout rooms and listen to their conversations. Offer assistance as needed.
- Come back together as a group. Ask learners what they think about these incidents and whether they have had similar experiences. Model and provide useful phrases for expressing opinions (e.g., "I think that . . . ", "In my opinion, . . . ," or "I agree/disagree with . . ."). Learners share their thoughts in response.
- Draw learners' attention to the following sentences or phrases, which are taken from the article:
  - The U.S. struggles ***to*** combat a global pandemic.
  - We try ***to*** look at the larger picture.
  - The man kept ***coming*** closer and closer to Tsui.
  - Choi felt that he needed ***to*** speak up.
  - I avoided ***taking*** the bus or the subway.

  Ask learners these questions based on the example sentences:
  - Which verbs in bold are followed by *to + infinitive*?
  - Which verbs in bold are followed by the *-ing* form?
- Ask learners to come up with a pattern for using gerund and infinitive forms, first by writing it down individually. Then, learners compare their hypotheses with one another. Collectively, we identify a pattern for using gerund and infinitive forms. The pattern may look something like this: "Gerunds generally describe actions that are real and actually happen, while infinitives generally describe unfulfilled or completed outcomes."

(3) "*Through" phase: How do you communicate in response to racial slurs and discrimination?* (20–25 mins.)

- Learners are divided into groups or breakout rooms. Each group is given one of the following scenarios, which are inspired by true events, as reported on Stop AAPI Hate Reporting Center:
  - As you are walking in the street, someone yells at you: "Go back to China!"
  - A client refuses to be serviced by you, because you are Asian.
  - Someone throws a glass bottle at you and calls you "you f—king chink!"

    - You overhear a coworker say that the increase in COVID-19 cases is due to residents in Chinatown.

  Each group will consider the following: What means of communication can you use to communicate these messages? What would you like to say or write? Let students know about Stop AAPI Hate, a website for reporting hate crimes.
- In groups or breakout rooms, learners will brainstorm, by discussing with each other and taking notes, what is the most effective way to communicate the message. Circle between groups and offer guidance if learners are unsure or stuck.
- As a whole class, each group will answer the following questions that elicit the use of infinitive and gerund complements:
    - What is the scenario?
    - What did you decide ***to*** do? Why?
    - What should you remember ***to*** do in this situation?
    - What should you avoid ***doing*** in this situation?

  While each group is reporting to the class, pay close attention to their discourse to see if they are using the infinitive and gerund forms correctly, and take note of any errors that should be addressed. With learners' permission, audio record their reports.

  When it is not their turn, the other groups should listen attentively so that they can give feedback afterwards (What do you think of the solution? What are other factors to consider?).

(4) *"Beyond" phase: Exit ticket* (5–10 mins.)

- Ask students what we learned in class today and how they will use what we learned in the future. Students can choose their preferred means of communication for the exit ticket (e.g. say verbally to teacher, write an email, type in the chat).
- For homework, they will write their own reflection on a racist incident that they have witnessed or experienced. They will also listen to the audio recordings of their reports, and identify and transcribe all the infinitive and gerund forms.

Appendix B: Nuances and Limitations of the Bolinger Principle
Verbs That Take Both Infinitives and Gerunds

While the lesson does not include verbs that take both infinitive and gerund complements, it is important to note that, in cases of overlap, a clear difference in meaning is often implied:

I forgot to pay the bills.[1]

I forgot paying the bills.

In the sentence with the infinitive, the bills were not paid due to forgetfulness, whereas in the sentence with the gerund, the person paid the bills but forgot about it afterwards. However, Larsen-Freeman et al. (2016) acknowledge that the Bolinger Principle only partially explains the difference in meaning for verbs that collocate with both complement types (p. 694).

The Temporal Distinction: Infinitive vs. Gerund Complements

Based on the Bolinger Principle, it is tempting to define the distinction between infinitive and gerund complements in terms of time. This distinction can be ambiguous, since neither complement type is marked by tense. According to Larsen-Freeman et al. (2016), verbs that take gerunds encode actions in the complement that are "ongoing in the present or completed in the past," whereas verbs that take infinitives "encode future projections" (p. 693). However, as Duffley (2000, 2006) points out, this distinction is not so clear-cut. Scholars have often interpreted the gerund as simultaneous with the verb that it complements (Wierzbicka, 1988). Duffley (2000) questions this interpretation and argues that the gerund is "capable of evoking an event that is temporally before, after, or contemporaneous" with respect to the main verb (p. 223). In the sentence, *I remember working with him on it*, the gerund refers to a past action. The gerund complement can also allude to future or potential events, as in, *I am considering working with him on it*. In the sentence, *I am enjoying working with him*, the gerund complement happens at the same time as the main verb *enjoy*. Duffley (2000) explains that it is "the lexical content of the [main verb] that implies whether the *-ing's* event is prior, contemporaneous or subsequent" relative to the principal action (p. 229). For the example of *I remember working with him on it*, the meaning of the main verb *remember* suggests that *working with him* occurred in the past. It is thus important to evaluate on a case-by-case basis the timeframe of the gerund complement with respect to the main verb.

By contrast, infinitive complements refer to the end goal or result of the main verb. As Bolinger (1968) asserts, infinitives often signify hypotheses or future possibilities. According to Duffley (2000), the preposition *to* implies movement leading to a terminus; the notion of movement here is understood in terms of time (p. 234). In the example sentence, *The bystander threatened to report the incident*, the action of reporting the incident is a step that the bystander has threatened to take. However, a complete view of infinitive complements should consider examples such as the following: *He then proceeded to cut in front of her.* This sentence implies the realization of the infinitive's event. The infinitive complement can still be interpreted as a future event relative to the main verb. Thus, infinitive complements allude to outcomes of the principal action, whether they be unfulfilled or realized.

Subject Control: Infinitive vs. Gerund Complements

The distinction between infinitive and gerund complements can also be analyzed through the lens of subject control. As explained in the definitions section, both complement types are considered clauses, because they have an identifiable subject and a verb. Identifying the noun phrase that governs an infinitive or a gerund complement is known as the concept of subject control (Duffley, 2000, 2006). According to Duffley (2000), the subject of the main verb and that of the infinitive complement are always the same, whereas the gerund complement can either refer to the subject of the sentence or to a different entity. In the sentence, *Schools stopped offering in-person classes this year*, it is understood that schools are the subject of both the main verb *stop* and the gerund complement. However, in the sentence, *The governor recommends wearing*

[1] These examples were found in the *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (Davies, 2008–) .

masks in public, it is implied that the recommended act of wearing masks is to be carried out by everyone in the state, not just the governor. Similar to timeframes, the known subject of a gerund complement depends on the meaning of the verb. While the analysis of Duffley (2000) on gerund complements is accurate, his assertion on infinitive complements and subject control does not apply to all cases. Contrary to his findings, the infinitive complement does not always imply co-referentiality with the subject of the sentence. Based on an earlier example, *Older family members told her not to involve herself in "black-white battles*," it is older family members who impart advice and it is she who may involve herself in "black-white battles." When helping learners distinguish between infinitive and gerund complements, teachers should consider the question of subject control, which adds another layer of nuance to a complex grammatical concept.

Received: August 15, 2020 | Accepted: September 21, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020

Online Teaching: The Affordances of PowerPoint and YouTube for a More Inclusive Approach

GATESOL in Action Journal
2020, Vol. *30*(1), pp. 91–100
ISSN: 2331-6845

Ndeye Bineta Mbodj
Department of Applied Linguistics & ESL, Georgia State University

Abstract
Online education, even when planned, has a number of challenges including availability and affordability of technology (Palvia et al., 2018), students' learning differences (Jacobs, 2013; Kebritchi et al., 2017), and tech-literacy of instructors and learners (Jacobs, 2013). In emergency situations witnessed in spring 2020, one of the keys to successful online education might be collaboration among instructors as recommended by Fish and Wickersham (2010). The present paper is a move in that direction and shares techniques that can help address two of the challenges mentioned above: (1) the availability and affordability of technology, and (2) students' learning differences. The latter point is particularly relevant to those teaching multilingual learners in that it relates to one of the solutions suggested by Zamel and Pack (2006) in addressing multilingual students' academic challenges; that is, providing handouts to facilitate comprehension of the content being presented.

Keywords
teaching, PowerPoint, YouTube, Inclusion, ESOL, technology, media

Background

When Palvia et al. (2018) predicted that "globalization of e-education is bound to happen" (p. 239), they probably did not realize how soon their prediction would become reality. The outbreak of Covid-19 worldwide in spring 2020 showed how online education may be the only option for teaching and learning to be sustained (Gacs, et al., 2020). Educators found themselves compelled to suddenly transition from face-to-face (F2F) to online delivery; however, transitioning posed a number of challenges that were not expected.

Online education, even when planned, has a number of challenges. Notwithstanding issues related to tech-literacy of instructors and learners (Jacobs, 2013), course designers and/or instructors have a number of factors to take into consideration, including, but not limited to, availability and affordability of technology (Palvia et al., 2018) but also students' learning differences (Jacobs, 2013; Kebritchi et al., 2017). Indeed, ease of access to technology has been identified by Volery and Lord (2000) as one of the main variables that affect online teaching/learning, and studies have shown that *minority students* may be less likely to succeed in online courses due to a lack of access to adequate technology (e.g., K. Moore et al., 2002; P. B. Moore, 2002). This underscores the importance for course designers and/or instructors to ensure that the course content is readily accessible to all learners, and if possible, on a Learning Management System (LMS) that students are familiar with. This is part of the impetus of the present paper.

Ndeye Bineta Mbodj is a doctoral candidate in the Department of Applied Linguistics at Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA; email nmbodj1@gsu.edu.

Another equally important factor for online course designers/instructors to take into consideration are student learning differences. As rightly put by Harrell and Bower (2011), "[t]he incongruence of a student's learning style with the characteristics of the online environment could lead to frustration and eventually course withdrawal" (p. 187). While this statement could apply to all students, in general, attending to students' learning differences becomes even more crucial when it comes to teaching multilingual learners. According to Zamel and Pack (2006), multilingual students bring with them "a multiplicity of intersecting experiences and a constellation of linguistic and cultural factors" (p. 127) that have a great impact on how they react to course materials, which in turn, can affect their performance. For instance, while students with prior first language literacy might be more at ease processing course content, those with less academic experience might have more difficulties digesting content in a language (English) they are still learning. Other students, still, may have greater fluency in one or more language skills than in others (e.g., reading vs. listening, speaking vs. writing) and that, in turn, may affect their attitudes toward course materials, and ultimately, their performance in the course.

A number of solutions have been suggested to address these issues specific to multilingual learners. One solution suggested by Zamel and Pack (2006) is the use of handouts that will help learners understand the content being presented. This is the rationale behind the second technique shared in the present paper (see Zamel & Pack, 2006, for more details on addressing multilingual students' academic challenges).

In sum, the present is an attempt to address two of the challenges discussed above; namely, (1) the availability and affordability of technology and (2) students' learning differences, particularly when it comes to multilingual learners. Using PowerPoint and YouTube, two familiar and affordable tools, instructors can design course content in both audio-video and downloadable/printable formats to accommodate different learning preferences, provide more support for comprehension, and facilitate access to content for students with limited internet access. The author has successfully used the techniques described in the remainder of the present paper in the design and delivery of content for a Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) on English Communication for Health Professionals in the West African region; and more recently, for an undergraduate online grammar course at a university in the southern United States.

1. Creating a Lecture Video

1.1. Some Basic Guidelines

Before diving into the different steps of creating a lecture video, below are a few tips that can help make the content simple and easy to understand for students:

- Provide the content outline at the beginning of the presentation. This can help students know what to expect and possibly activate their background knowledge on the topic.
- Use minimal content on each slide. To that end, a good option is to use bullet points as much as possible and avoid too much text on the slide. There is ample opportunity to provide additional explanations when recording the audio-slides (see next section).
- Use the *Animations* tools in PowerPoint to sequence the content of each slide. This allows students to focus on one point at a time. Additionally, the *Shapes* tool (e.g., arrows, text bubbles, circles, rectangles, etc.) can be used to draw students' attention to key points. However, it is important to remember that too much animation might end up being distractive for students.

- Use section divider slides to break up the content of the presentation. A section divider slide is a slide with the title of the next section. It serves the purpose of visually indicating to students the end of the previous section and the beginning of the next one.

Once all slides have been created following the guidelines above, the next step is to create a video of the PowerPoint presentation following the steps described below. The steps and figures provided here are primarily those followed when using a Mac computer, but they are similar to steps in Windows. Where there are significant dissimilarities, alternative steps are also provided for Windows users.

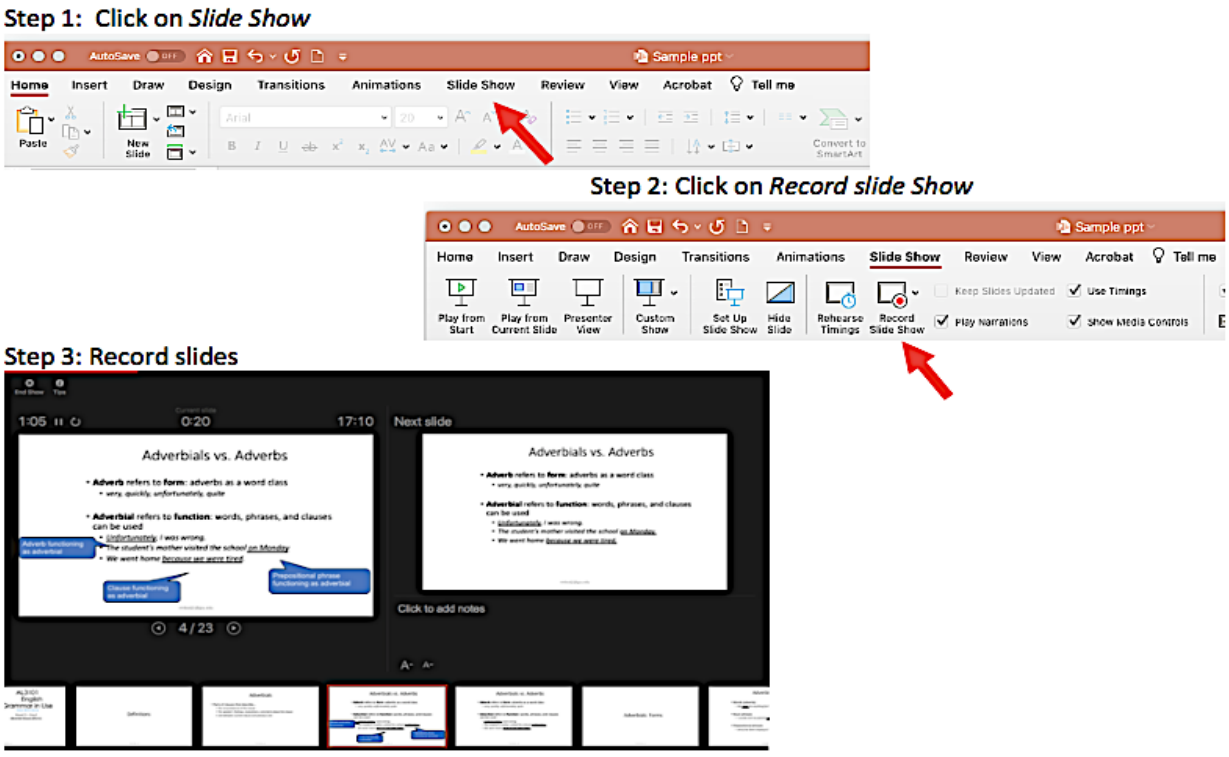
1.2. Recording Audio Slides in PowerPoint

There are three easy steps to follow for the recording of the audio slides in PowerPoint:

- **Step 1:** Click on *Slide Show* on the menu bar in PowerPoint (see Figure 1).
- **Step 2:** On the new toolbar that appears, click on *Record Slide Show*.
- **Step 3:** Start recording your slides once the recording screen opens. Here is the opportunity to provide explanations and additional details, a little like when giving a F2F presentation. As seen in Figure 1, Step 3, the recording screen is similar to the Presenter View in PowerPoint with a preview of the next slide or the next point on the slide. To move to the next point or slide, just click on the right arrow under the current slide or use the down arrow on the computer keyboard.

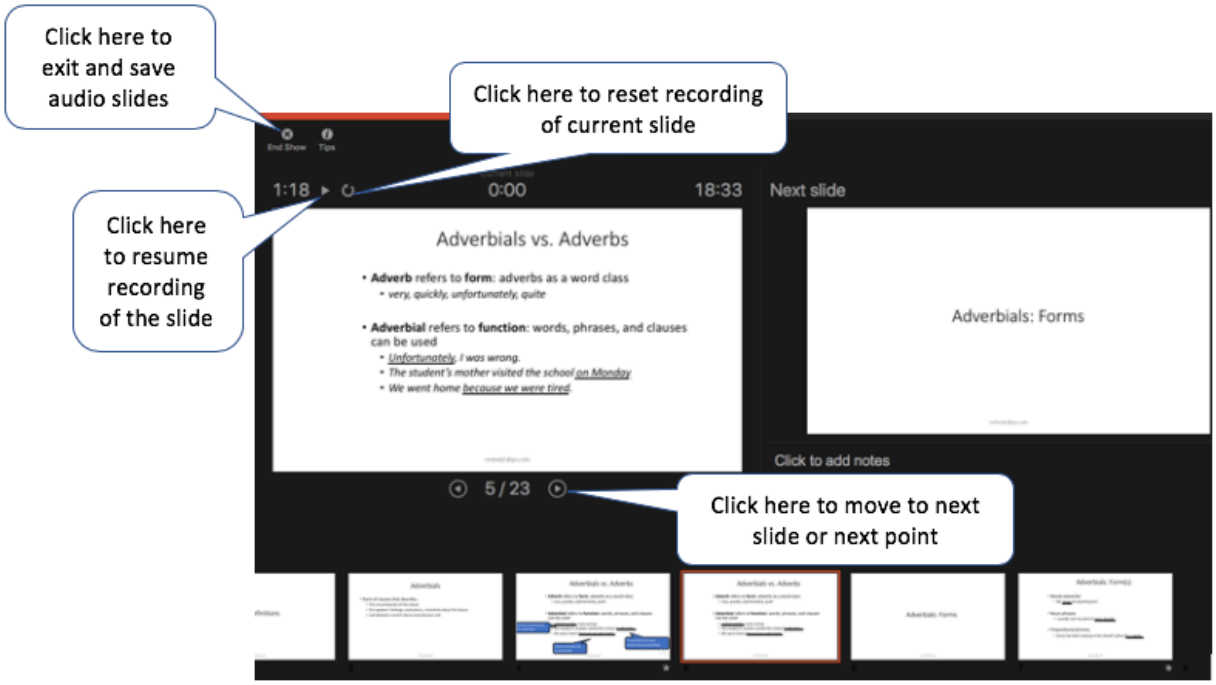
Figure 1

Three Steps for Recording Audio Slides



In case of error while recording a slide, click on the round arrow above the slide to reset the recording of that single slide and then click on the *play* button to resume recording (see Figure 2). For Windows users, click on *Clear* tab above the slide, and in the dropdown menu that appears, click on *Clear Recordings on Current Slide.* Once all the slides are recorded, click on *End Show* to exit and save your audio slides.

Figure 2
Step 3 in Details



Once all audio slides have been recorded and saved, the next step is to convert the audio into MP4 format, still in PowerPoint.

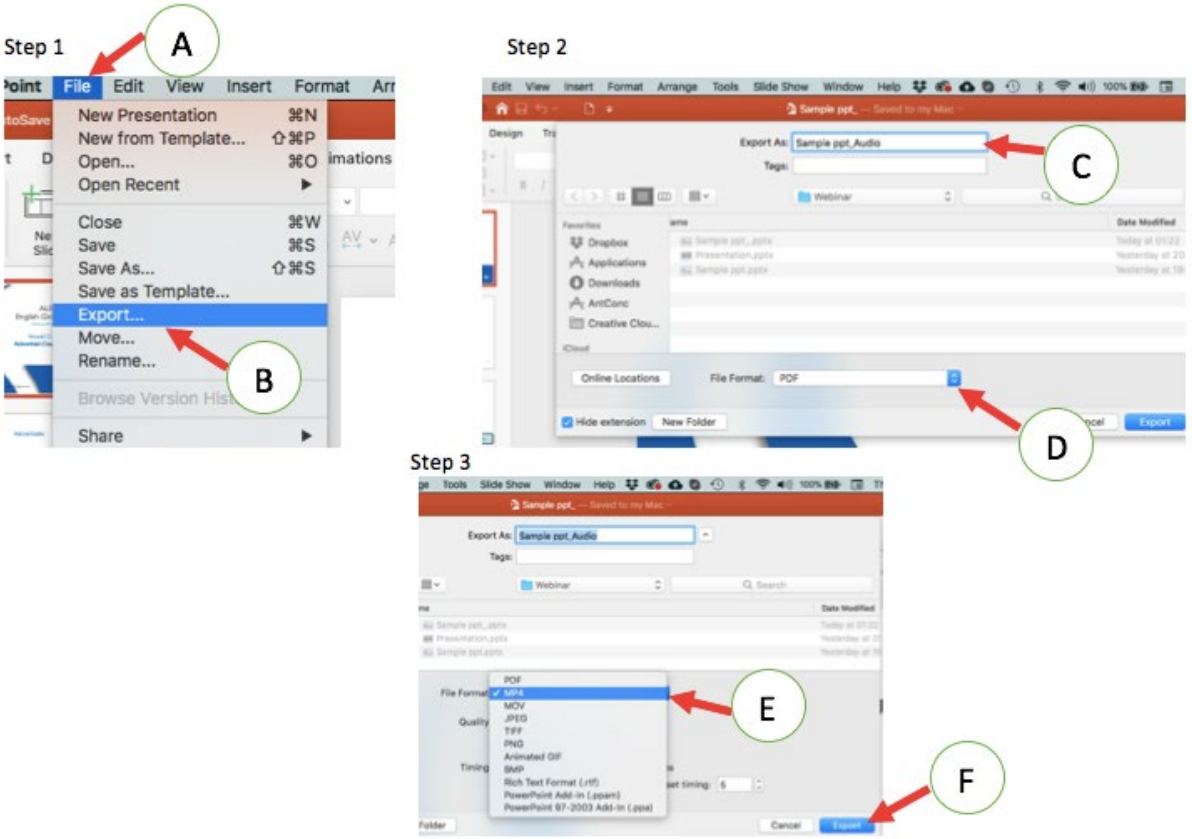
1.3. Creating MP4 File in PowerPoint

Here also, there are three easy steps described below and visualized in Figure 3:

- **Step 1:** On the menu bar, click on *File* (A), then on the dropdown menu that appears, select *Export* (B). If you are using Windows or a PC, after (A) and (B), click on *Change File Type,* then click on *Save as Another File Type.*
- **Step 2:** In the dialog box that appears, name the file (C); then click on *File Format* (D). For Windows users, (D) will correspond to *Save as type.*
- **Step 3:** In the dropdown box that appears, select MP4 (E) and click on *Export* (F) or *Save* for Windows users.

Once PowerPoint finishes generating the MP4 file, the next step is to create the video in YouTube. It should be mentioned that it can take time for PowerPoint to convert the audio slides into an MP4 file depending on the length of the presentation. The longer the presentation, the more time it will take to create the MP4 file. If possible, divide the content of your lesson or lecture into short presentations of 10 to 15 minutes.

Figure 3
Creating MP4 Video File in 3 Steps

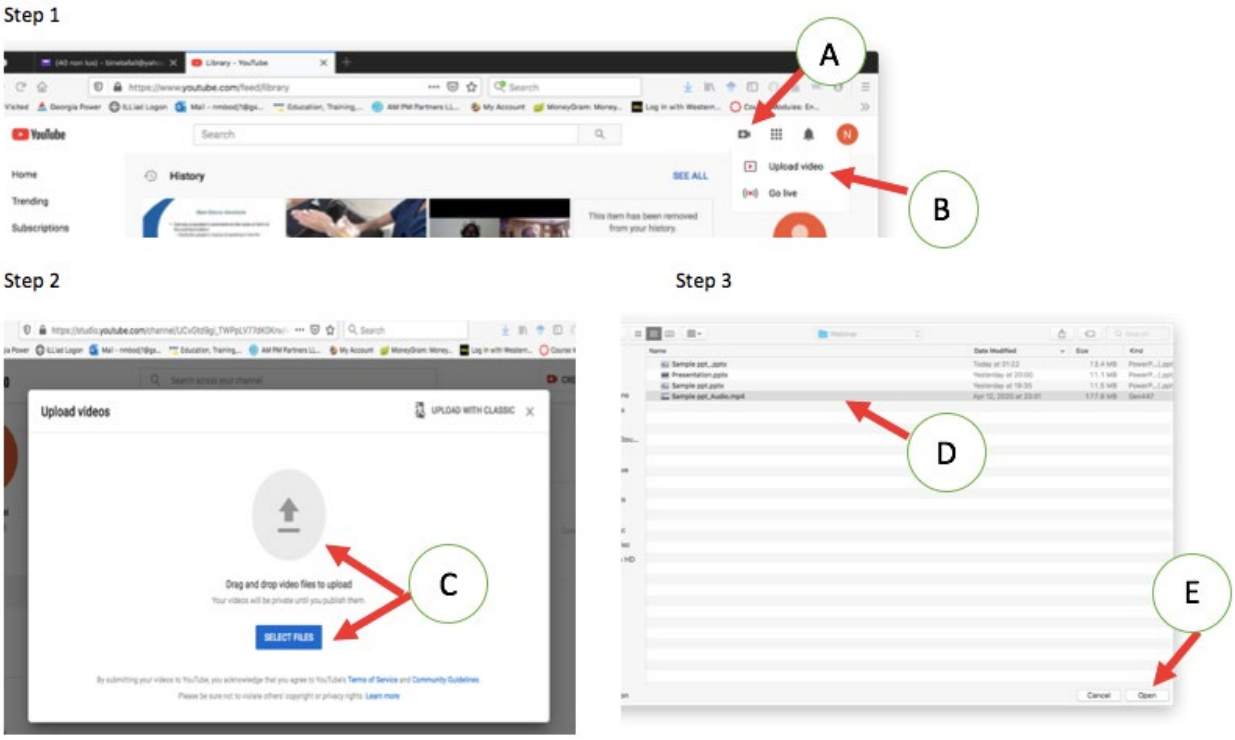


1.4. Creating the Video in YouTube

To create the video in YouTube, all you need is a Google account. Log in to YouTube using your Google credentials. If you do not have a Google account, create one and then log in to YouTube. Once on your YouTube page, follow these three steps:

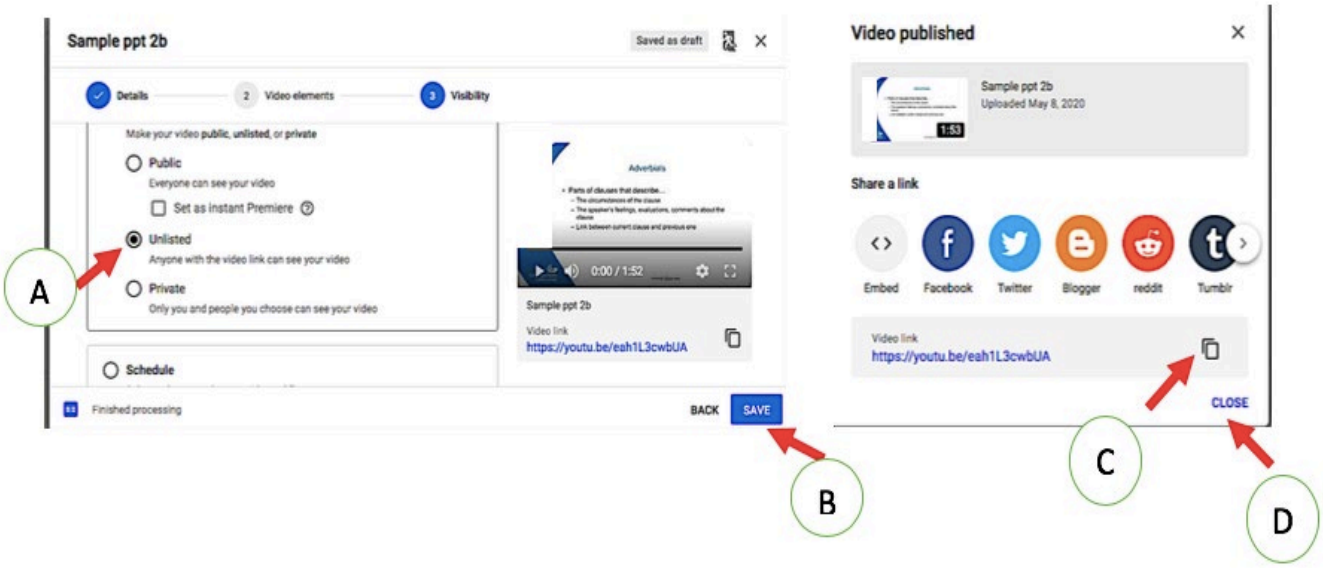
- **Step 1:** On your YouTube page, look at the top of the page for the video icon (see Figure 4). Regardless of what page you are on in your account you will always see the video icon on top of the page. Click on the icon (A) and it will give you two options: *Upload Video* or *Go Live;* click on *Upload Video* (B)
- **Step 2:** Once you click on *Upload Video,* a dialog box will appear. Click on select file or just click on the arrow above it (C).
- **Step 3:** In the new dialogue box that opens, browse for the MP4 you have just created and select it (D). Then click on *Open* (E).

Figure 4
Creating a Video in YouTube in 3 Steps



Once the MP4 file has been uploaded, follow the steps in YouTube to complete the creation of the video. Once YouTube finishes processing the video, select the visibility of your video (A). Personally, I always choose *Unlisted*. That way, the video is not searchable in YouTube but anyone who has the link can access it. For greater collaboration, it is important not to save your video as *Private*. Private videos can be shared with a maximum of only fifty users and those users cannot share the video. In other words, even if someone else has the link, they cannot access the video unless you personally invite them. After selecting the visibility of your video, click on *Save* (B). A box will appear with multiple options for sharing the video. All you have to do is copy the video link (C) and share it with your students, whether you are using a commercial learning platform (e.g., Canvas, Blackboard, D2L, LoudCloud, itsLearning, etc.) or other free platforms like Google Classroom. If you are not ready to share the video yet, click on *Close* (D)*;* you can always get the link later from your YouTube page.

Figure 5
Last Steps in YouTube



2. Creating a Reading Version of the Video

The purpose of creating a reading version of the video is twofold. First, it attends to students' differences. Students can choose to watch the video or download the reading version depending on their learning preferences. For multilingual students who are less fluent in listening, it certainly would be beneficial to follow the written version while listening to the video. As discussed above, this reading version of the lecture can also serve the purpose of facilitating multilingual learners' comprehension of the content of the lecture. In fact, some of my undergraduates (also multilingual students) told me at the end of the course they found it very helpful to follow the reading document while listening to the video. The second purpose of the reading version is to make the same content available to students with limited internet access. Downloading a Word or PDF document certainly requires less data than watching a YouTube video. The reading version is created using the transcripts of the video (automatically generated in YouTube) and images of the PowerPoint Slides.

2.1. Generating the Video Transcript in YouTube

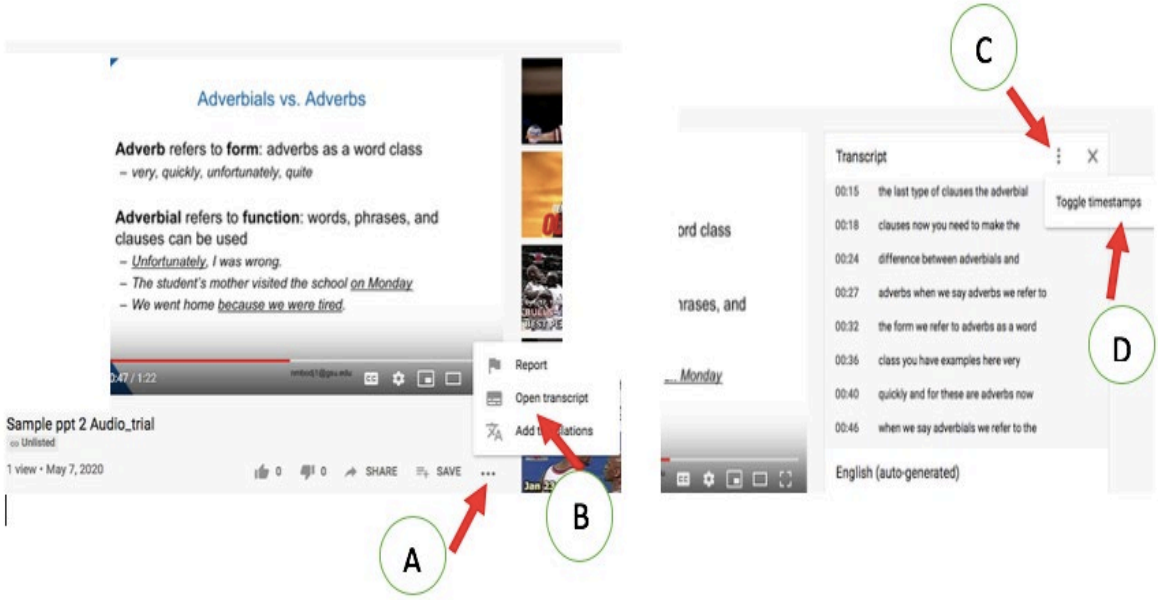
Here again, there are three easy steps:

- **Step 1:** Open your video in YouTube.
- **Step 2:** Once the video is open, click on the three little dots in the menu bar below the video (A). In the dialog box that appears click on *Open Transcript* (B), and the transcript will appear at the top right of the page.
- **Step 3:** As you can see on Figure 6, the transcript comes with time stamps. To hide the time stamps, click on the little dots on the top right of the transcript window (C) and then click on *Toggle Time Stamps* (D).

After these three steps, just select and copy the transcript and paste it on a Word document. At this point, it is important to mention that the transcript is machine-generated, which means that it may not be a 100% accurate. It is necessary to go over the transcript to check it for accuracy and

punctuation. After editing the transcript, you can now move on to converting the PowerPoint slides into images.

Figure 6
Generating Video Transcript in YouTube



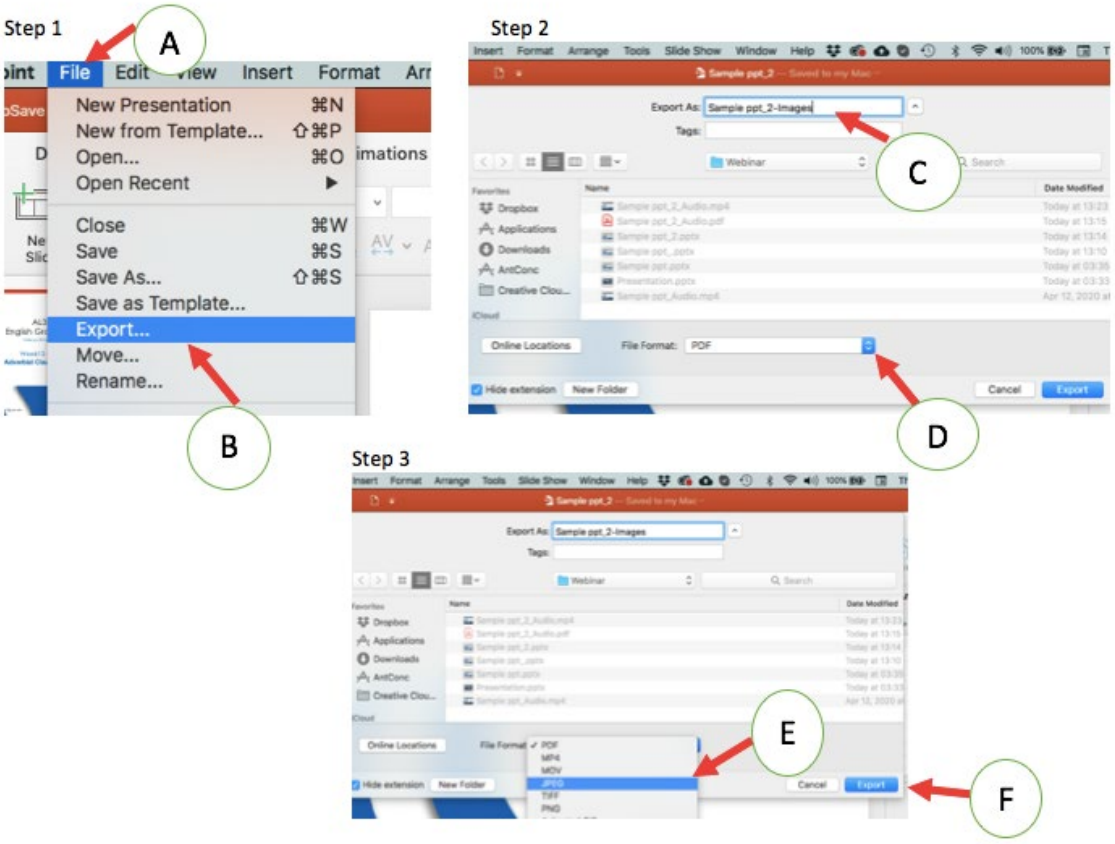
2.2. Saving Slides as Images in PowerPoint

To obtain the images of the content that will be used for the reading version of the video, open the original PowerPoint presentation and follow (again) the three easy steps below:

- **Step 1:** On the menu bar, click on *File* (A) and on the dropdown menu, click on *Export* (B). If you are using Windows or a PC, after (A) and (B), click on *Change File Type,* then click on *Save as Another File Type.*
- **Step 2:** In the dialog box that appears, name your file (C) and click on the *File Format* button to open the drop-down menu (D). For Windows users, (D) will correspond to *Save as type.*
- **Step 3:** On the dropdown menu, select JPEG or PNG (E) depending on your preferred extension for pictures, then click on *Export* (D) or *Save,* for Windows users. PowerPoint then generates a folder with all slides saved as separate images.

Now that you have your video transcript and individual images of the slides, you can create the reading version of your lecture. Open a new Word document, insert the first slide and then copy and paste the corresponding passage of the transcript. Repeat the same process with subsequent slides till you reach the final slide. This transcribed version of the video can then be saved in both Word and PDF documents and shared with the students.

Figure 7
Converting Slides into Images in 3 Steps



Conclusion

In this paper, I shared techniques for creating course content using familiar and affordable technology and using different modes of delivery of such content. Beyond fostering ease of access to course content for all students, the techniques shared in this paper can contribute to a more inclusive approach to online teaching by providing multilingual learners with the additional support they may need to comprehend course materials. Indeed, finding ways to provide this additional support is all the more crucial in a context like the United States where more than 176 languages are spoken nationwide (Castek et al., 2008) and where multilingual learners are expected to make up for approximately forty percent of the K-12 student population alone (Thomas & Collier, 2002). Since online education seems to be the main (if not the only) option in these challenging times, collaborating and sharing techniques and tips is more important than ever for instructors. It is my hope that the techniques shared in this paper will help alleviate some of the challenges (for both instructors and students) inherent to online education and perhaps most importantly, contribute to a more inclusive approach to online teaching/learning.

Acknowledgment

I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. John Bunting with whom I designed and taught the MOOC on English Communication for Health Professionals. I learned a lot working with him.

References

Castek, J., Leu, D. J., Coiro, J., Gort, M., Henry, L. A., & Lima, C. O. (2008). Developing new literacies among multilingual learners in the elementary grades. In L. L. Parker (Ed.), *Technology-mediated learning environments for young English learners: Connections in and out of school* (pp. 111–153). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Fish, W. W., & Wickersham, L. E. (2010). Best practices for online instructors. *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, *10*(3), 279–284.

Gacs, A., Goertler, S., & Spasova, S. (2020). Planned online language education versus crisis-prompted online language teaching: Lessons for the future. *Foreign Language Annals*, *53*(2), 380–392. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12460

Harrell, I. L., & Bower, B. L. (2011). Student characteristics that predict persistence in community college online courses. *American Journal of Distance Education*, *25*(3), 178–191. https://doi.org/10.1080/08923647.2011.590107

Jacobs, P. (2013). The challenges of online courses for the instructor. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, *21*, 1–19.

Kebritchi, M., Lipschuetz, A., & Santiague, L. (2017). Issues and challenges for teaching successful online courses in higher education: A literature review. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, *46*(1), 4–29. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047239516661713

Moore, K., Bartkovich, J., Fetzner, M., & Sherrill, I. (2002, June). *Success in cyberspace: Retention in online courses*. Paper presented at the Association for Institutional Research, Toronto, Canada.

Moore, P. B. (2002). *Access and success in web courses at an urban multicultural community college: The student's perspective*. Northern Arizona University. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED465402.pdf

Palvia, S., Aeron, P., Gupta, P., Mahapatra, D., Parida, R., Rosner, R., & Sindhi, S. (2018). Online education: Worldwide status, challenges, trends, and implications. *Journal of Global Information Technology Management*, *21*(4), 233–241. https://doi.org/10.1080/1097198X.2018.1542262

Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. P. (2002). A national study of school effectiveness for language minority studetns' long-term academic achievement. *Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence*, *96*, 1–351.

Volery, T., & Lord, D. (2000). Critical success factors in online education. *International Journal of Educational Management*, *14*(5), 216–223. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540010344731

Zamel, V., & Spack, R. (2006). Teaching multilingual learners across the curriculum: Beyond the ESOL classroom and back again. *Journal of Basic Writing (CUNY)*, *25*(2), 126–152. https://www.jstor.org/stable/43443830

Received: August 16, 2020 | Accepted: September 25, 2020 | Published: October 29, 2020